

**THE ROLE OF DEMOCRATIC RIGHTS AND OBLIGATIONS OF CITIZENS IN
ENHANCING PUBLIC SERVICE DELIVERY IN UGANDA**

By

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DECLARATION

I declare that the thesis hereby submitted by me for the degree Philosophiae Doctor (PHD) in Public Administration and Management at the University of the Free State, is my own independent work and has not previously been submitted by me at any other university/faculty. I furthermore cede copyright of the thesis in favour of the University of the Free State.



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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my mentors, friends, supervisors and colleagues: the late Professor Koos Bekker and the late Professor A. M. Sindane, Who without their support, words of wisdom, encouragement and always having faith in me, I would not have completed this study.

Thank you and R.I.P.

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ABSTRACT

Irrespective of a two decade-plus long prevalence of several democratic participatory frameworks, and the excellent legal and policy frameworks for citizen participation in Uganda, exercising of democratic rights and obligations of citizens in Uganda is far from reality and the services rendered to the citizens are still poor. As an example of this ill reflection of reality, the electorate is still prone to hand-outs and is easily manipulated into participation. The general awareness level on citizens' rights and responsibilities has swung out of balance in Uganda. For instance, based on the findings, the right to participate in decision-making and, subsequently, the right to demand for accountability on the quality of services delivered are not commonly known among the citizens in Uganda. The majority of the citizens are not aware of the government initiatives in place supporting citizen participation. Likewise, nepotism and corruption is still increasingly staining politics and government institutions that are supposed to form the basis for participation. Moreover, to a certain extent, there is censorship of the press, and no separation of powers. These not only attesting to the statement that participatory initiatives in Uganda are more like wish lists than substantive statements that are guaranteed in practice, but also raising questions such as:

- How relevant have the democratic citizen participatory initiatives been to the actual involvement and participation of citizens in prioritising, planning, and decision-making on issues affecting citizens?
- What is the citizens' knowledge and understanding of the democratic citizen participatory initiatives?
- Have the democratic citizen participatory initiatives promoted citizen participation that is strong in order to demand quality service delivery?

Thus, to try and answer the above questions, this research aims to establish whether the quality of public services relates to the exercising of democratic rights and obligations of citizens by citizens in Uganda. Specifically focusing on:

- documenting the concepts of democracy, democratic rights, citizen responsibility and democratic consolidation

- realising whether and how fundamental notions of democratic citizenship and democratic participation either undermine or advance public service delivery;
- exploring the current state of democratic rights and obligations of citizens in Uganda;
- conducting empirical research on the realities and practices regarding the exercise of democratic rights and obligation of citizens as well as assess its implications towards service delivery in Uganda; and
- proposing a comprehensive participatory framework for exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens to improve public service delivery in Uganda.

The study employs a mixed-method research approach, conducted on a representative sample of 110 participants, and data collected through extensive literature review. The same literature supported by qualitative interviewing of key officials employed by Kampala City Council Authority (KCCA), as well as a quantitative questionnaire survey based on three variables used to measure the exercise of democratic rights and obligations. Thus based on the findings of the qualitative and quantitative research methods at the univariate and multivariate levels of analysis, the study proposes comprehensive participatory framework for exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens to improve public service delivery in Uganda.

Keywords: Democracy; Rights; Obligations; Citizen Participation; Uganda; Public Service delivery; Kampala.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

APRM	African Peer Review Mechanism
BOD5	Biochemical Oxygen Demand
BOO	Build Own and Operate
BOT	Build Operate and Transfer
BYU	Brigham Young University
BTVET	Business, Technical, Vocational and Education Training
CCL	Local Coordination Councils
CDDP	Community Demand Development Programme
CODEL	Local Economic Development Commission
CSOs	Civil Society Organisations
CRCs	Citizen report cards
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
DHP	Decent Housing Programme
ELLA	Evidence and lessons from Latin America
GAVI	Global Alliance for Vaccines and Immunisation
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HDI	Human Development Index
HREA	Resource centre for Human Rights Education
ICCS	Institute for Citizen-Centred Service
IDEA	Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance
IDP	integrated development plan
IGG	Inspectorate of Government
IMF	International Monetary Fund
KCCA	Kampala City Council Authority
LC	Local Council
LG	Local Government
LGBFP	Regional Local Government Budget Framework Paper
LGDP	Local Government Development Programme
MBO	Management Buyout
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MWE	Ministry of Water and Environment

NHP II	Second National Health Policy
NDP	National Development Plan
NPM	New Public Management
NRM	National Resistance Movement
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation
DAC	Development assistance Committee
PAC	Public Accounts Committee
PEAP	Poverty Eradication Action Plan
PETS	Public Expenditure Tracking Survey
PPDA	Public Procurement and Disposal of Public Authority
PPOA	Political Parties and Organisation Act
PPP	Public . Private Partnership
QSDS	Quantitative Service Delivery Survey
RC	Resistance Council
SAMDI	South African Management Development Institute
SAS	Staff Absence Survey
TPDF	The Peoples Defence Forces
UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
UNESCAP	United Nations economic and Social commission For Asia and the Pacific
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UPC	Uganda Peoples Congress
WDR	World Development Report
WSP	Water and Sanitation Programme

CHAPTER 1: GENERAL INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The exercising of democratic rights and obligations of citizens (citizen participation) and service delivery are two thought-provoking notions . especially in the current global setting. For instance, according to the governance and development advocates such as: the Human Rights Network . Uganda (HURINET-U), Uganda Human Rights Education and Documentation Centre (UNEDOC), and in particular the Foundation for Human Rights Initiative (FHRI). It is widely hypothesised that exercising democratic rights and obligations by citizens translates into effective representation and empowerment, subsequently positively influencing service delivery and rural development (Blair 2000: p.23; Narayan 2002: p.14; Fox and Meyer 1995: p.20).

Similarly, engaging citizens and civil society, in monitoring government performance according to the South African Government, is expected to enhance and complement government's performance monitoring systems; improve service delivery; improve program effectiveness; improve public expenditure efficiency; and strengthen institutions, processes and systems (Republic of South Africa 2013: p.2). Moreover according to Irvin and Stansbury, if citizens become actively involved as participants in their democracy, it is hypothesised that the governance that emerges from the process will be more democratic and more effective (Irvin and Stansbury 2004: p.55).

But why has this not been the case in a country like Uganda? For instance, irrespective of a two decade-plus long prevalence of several democratic participatory frameworks, and excellent legal and policy frameworks for citizen participation. Such as; the 1995 constitution of Uganda that provides for the Bill of Rights and stipulates that the exercise and enjoyment of rights and freedoms are inseparable from the performance of duties and obligations of citizens.

The presence of institutions that protect democracy and promote human rights, i.e. the Public Accounts Committee (PAC), the Public Procurement and Disposal of Public Assets Authority (PPDA), and the Inspectorate of Government (IGG). Over and above the re-introduction of a multi-party political system in 2005, which set the stage for the first multi-party elections of 2006 (Uganda Governance Monitoring Project 2004: p.47, Inspectorate of Government 2013: p.7). Exercising of democratic rights and obligations of citizens in Uganda is far from the reality and the services rendered to the citizens are still poor (Uganda Governance and Monitoring Report 2013: p.42; Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) 2010: p.9, The Parliament of Uganda 2012: p.5).

As an example of this ill reflection of reality, the electorate is still prone to hand-outs and is easily manipulated into participation. Nepotism and corruption still increasingly stain politics and political institutions (Muwenda 2011). Moreover to a certain extent, there is censorship of the press, and there seems to be no separation of powers. This not only attesting to the statement that democratic participatory initiatives in Uganda are more like wish lists than substantive statements that are guaranteed in practice, but also raises questions such as:

- How relevant have these initiatives been to the actual involvement and participation of citizens in prioritising, planning, and decision-making on issues affecting citizens; and
- What is the citizens' knowledge and understanding of these initiatives; and have these initiatives promoted citizen participation that is strong in order to demand quality service delivery.

Therefore, to try and answer these questions, this research aims to establish whether the quality of public services relates to the exercising of democratic rights and obligations of citizens by citizens in Uganda.

1.2 MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

This research was motivated by two important factors. Firstly, although there have been several attempts to evaluate the weaknesses of service delivery in Uganda,

especially in areas of health, basic education and infrastructure. These attempts have tended to focus more on the general weaknesses such as: the lack of adequate resources, lack of capacity and maladministration, overly dependence on grants from central government, as well as donor funds as the root causes of all service delivery mishaps. Consequently, this indicating that there has hardly been any major investigation to evaluate whether or not the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens by citizens has a positive impact on service delivery.

Secondly, this research is motivated by studies done by various scholars on promoting Civic Education as part of the effort to provide democratic assistance and strengthen civil society. Scholars, who view Civic Education as an important component of education that can encourage citizens to participate in the public life of a democracy, use their rights and in-turn realise their responsibilities with the necessary knowledge and skills (USAID 2002; Margaret 1998; Branton, Alderfer, Bouser and Temba 1999: p.810; and Osler and Starkey 2006: p.3).

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Over the past 20 years, according the World Bank Group, (2011: Internet) Uganda has been referred to as Africa's success story. That is characterised by a strong record of prudent macroeconomic management and structural reforms that have been able to promote GDP growth amidst economic challenges. Growth of 6.3% above the sub-Saharan countries average in 2010/11 and one of the countries that have strongly embarked on substantial poverty reductions with promising signs of progress towards the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

The above characteristics attributed to the NRM government, who on coming into power in 1986, set its two most important objectives, namely: the reinstatement of peace and security, and the institutionalisation of democratic governance. This clearly depicted in the ten point programme, commonly known as the NRM manifesto. The NRM manifesto according literature (Semuwemba: 2011: p.1; Mutibwa (1992: p.1997; National Resistance Movement website 2011) entailing:

- Restoration of Democracy at all levels from the villages up to the national level.

- Restoration of security;
- Promotion of national unity through elimination of sectarianism;
- To stop the interference of foreign interests in Uganda's domestic concerns;
- Building an independent, integrated and self-sustained national economy;
- Provision of basic services and rehabilitation of war-ravaged areas;
- Resolving problems of victims of the past injustices through returning land to the rightful owners;
- Elimination of corruption and misuse of power;
- Cooperation with other African countries; and
- Succeeding an economic strategy of a mixed economy.

All the above stated elements marking the return of democracy to Uganda from decades of authoritarian rule and military leadership that weakened the democratic norms and institutions under the leadership of Idi Amin (1971-79) and Milton Obote (1979-85).

Nonetheless, following this landmark return of democracy to Uganda by 1994, the Constituent Assembly promulgated a new constitution for the Republic of Uganda identifying, among other provisions (Kabwegyere 2000: p.23):

- The limits, authority and responsibilities of the various organs of the state;
- The rights and responsibilities of individuals;
- Inter-relations and interdependence; and
- The provision for key democracy-promotion institutions, i.e. the Inspectorate of Government (IGG); the Auditor General; and the Electoral Commission.

Likewise, in 2005, the National Resistance Movement (NRM) government after passing a referendum reintroduced a multi-party democratic system in 2006. This multi-party democratic system guided by various pieces of legislation such as the Electoral Commission Act, 1997; The Presidential Elections Act, 2000; The Parliamentary Election Act, 2005; The Local Government Act, 1997; Referendum Act, 1994; Access to Information Act, 2005 and the Electronic Media Act, 2005. (African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) 2008: pp.90-115; Odonga 2010: p.30). This was

then followed by the emphasis on a decentralised system of government. Thereafter followed the devolution of governmental functions and powers to the people at appropriate levels where they could manage and direct their own affairs, such as recruiting and disciplining employees by the district service commission on behalf of the district and the urban authorities (African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) 2008: pp.90-115; Kitembo 2006: pp.6-10).

But, irrespective of all the above initiatives, Uganda is still seen as a hybrid regime whereby democracy, by some, has been seen as a tricky subject due to the enigmatic nature of the existing political regime. There are questions on whether the NRM has created a novel form of popular democracy that is competitive and responsive; or whether NRM is an authoritarian one-party state in disguise; or whether it is a partial, hybrid political regime that is democratic in some sectors (like a free press) but undemocratic in others (like the party system) (Bratton et. al 2000: p.3). For example, participation is strongly factionalized and restricted by the NRM hegemonic regime. A regime that, to some, systematically represses obstructs and intimidates opposition activists. With regards to service delivery, despite almost two decades of macroeconomic stability, according to the World bank group (2011), Uganda at present remains in the lower tier of low-income developing countries carrying a large amount of substantial debt. Wherein local service delivery, especially services in education and health, that is lagging and characterised by: high levels of corruption; inequality and inadequate capacity for effective accountability of financial resources, persistent shortages in infrastructure implementation; and inadequate community support, limited communication amongst stakeholders (Ministry of Education and Sports, 2009: viii; UBOS, 2004: p.19; UBOS 2010: p.9; MOH, 2010).

For instance, the education service, according to Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) (2010: p.9), despite the fact that provision of adequate infrastructure for the children enrolled in primary schools is critical. Infrastructure provision still remains a challenge to the education sector such that about one in every three pupils enrolled for primary education lack adequate sitting and writing space.

The provision of water and sanitation services is alarming within the Ugandan populace, especially among children who are still succumbing to diseases associated with inadequate water supply, sanitation and hygiene. Access to clean water is still estimated at as low as 9% in some districts with an estimated 19% of improved water supply systems still not functioning (Ministry of Health, 2010: pp.33-57). Irrespective of the fact that primary health care service is provided within the sub-county level per district, i.e. at Village Health Teams, Health Centre II, Health Centre III, and Health Centre IV. Service delivery in the health system remains poor with the majority of the Ugandan populace seeking treatment from private hospitals. This is reflected in the high number of maternal deaths in public hospitals with an average 9 maternal deaths per public hospital. An acute shortage of health workers, to match with the increasing number of patients resulting to a scenario where the work that would be done by a doctor is often done by either a clinical officer or even a nursing assistant, (Ministry of Health, 2010: p.116; The observer 2013).

Therefore, in light of the above, the problem is that although the arrays of necessary initiatives on which the foundation of democratic governance and exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens can be anchored exist in Uganda. There is still an outcry from the citizens that they have failed to meet the objectives they were meant to obtain especially the one to improve service delivery. Thus, it is against this background that this research intends to address the following research problem: **To what extent can the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens by citizens add value to the betterment of public service delivery in Uganda?**

Thus, in order to find answers to the above problem statement, the following subsidiary qualitative questions were considered:

- What are the realities and practices regarding the exercise of democratic rights and obligation of citizens/citizen participation?
- What is the knowledge of the citizens regarding these initiatives; and does the quality of public services relate to the understanding and practice of democratic rights and obligations of citizens in Uganda?
- What are the perceptions of top-level civil servants and citizens towards citizen participation?
- What is the level of citizen participation in the Rational Policy Making process in the Ugandan government?
- What has the Ugandan government done to promote citizen participation and how relevant have these initiatives been to the actual involvement and participation of citizens in prioritising, planning, and decision-making on issues affecting the citizens?
- Have these initiatives promoted citizen participation that is capable to demand quality service delivery?
- What is the procedure for giving feedback after the citizens have participated and is it effective to encourage more citizen participation?
- What can be done to enhance the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens so as to improve service delivery in Uganda?

1.4 HYPOTHESIS

Based on literature, public expenditure systems play a primary role in service delivery and for these public expenditure systems to qualify as good systems, they must pass the test of monitoring, accounting, auditing and evaluation on a continued basis. Therefore, assuming that if the citizens exercise their democratic rights and obligations can assist in the betterment of targeting, allocation and tracking of public funds. The hypothesis of this study is;

The exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens by citizens has a positive implication towards service delivery.

1.5 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THIS STUDY

Prearranged that the primary focus of any research project is usually expressed in terms of aims and objectives, the next section will unravel the aims and objectives of the study.

1.5.1 Aim of this study

The aim of this study is:

- To assess the impact of exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens in enhancing public service delivery in Uganda.

1.5.2 Objectives

The main objectives of this study are:

- To document the concepts ~~democracy~~ ~~democratic rights~~ ~~citizen responsibility~~ and ~~democratic consolidation~~
- To realise whether and how fundamental notions of democratic citizenship and democratic participation either undermine or advance public service delivery;
- To explore the current state of democratic rights and obligations of citizens in Uganda;
- To conduct empirical research on the realities and practices regarding the exercise of democratic rights and obligation of citizens as well as assess its implications towards service delivery in Uganda; and
- To propose a comprehensive participatory framework for exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens to improve public service delivery in Uganda.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

The significance of the research could be outlined as follows:

- Comprehend the political conditions under which public service delivery is most effective;
- Identify areas of weaknesses in the government approach towards embracing democracy;

- Reflect the value of particular democratic interpretations and strategies for active citizen participation in the delivery of services to the Ugandans; and
- Envisage a comprehensive participatory framework for exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens to improve public service delivery in Uganda. This serving as an original contribution of this study to the present body of knowledge on citizen participation and well as the new public administration focus on citizen-centred service.

1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Sometimes identified as approaches, according to literature on research (Rajasekar et.al (2006: p.6), there are two commonly used basic approaches to research, viz., **quantitative (positivistic) approach** and **the qualitative (phenomenological) approach**. The former, quantitative approach involves collecting and analysing numerical data, concentrates on measuring the scale, range, and frequency of phenomena. This type of research approach, although harder to design initially, is usually highly detailed and structured and results can be easily collated and presented statistically (Branford University School of Management 2007: p.3). The latter, qualitative (phenomenological) approach is more subjective in nature than quantitative research and involves examining and reflecting on the less tangible aspects of a research subject, e.g. values, attitudes, perceptions. Although this type of research can be easier to start with, it can be often be more difficult to interpret and to present the findings. The findings of qualitative research can also be more easily challenged (Branford University School of Management 2007: p.3).

Looking at the definitions of the above approaches, it is clear that both approaches are concerned with the investigation of an individual's point of view. That is to say they present differences in the nature of data, the methods used for data collection, and the analysis process. However, it does not mean that one is superior to the other. In practice both approaches are valid and contribute to social research. This implies that the decision of which methodology one uses lies within the essence of research question/-problem. For example, if the research seeks to verify an existing set of defined variables of an established theory, then quantitative research would provide the appropriate methodology. Whereas if the aim of research is exploratory

in nature, and the study is attempting to understand the experience of a group of individuals of a particular situation, or a social or human problem from multiple perspectives, then qualitative methodology is found to be more suitable.

Therefore, with the above arguments in mind, and the fact that the research sought to assess the role of exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens in enhancing public service delivery in Uganda, a mixed approach was chosen as the ideal approach for the study. See Chapter 5 in which the exact nature of the empirical component is outlined.

1.7.1 Research techniques

With the aim of reaching the research objectives, the following qualitative research techniques will be used:

1.7.1.1 Interviews (structured interviews)

According to Creswell (2007: p.89), interviews are two-way conversations in which the interviewer asks the participants questions in order to gather information and learn about their ideas, beliefs, views, opinions and behaviours regarding the question in point. Kumar (2005: p.123), defines interviews as any person-to-person interaction between two or more individuals with a specific purpose in mind (Kumar 2005: p.123). The research was carried out using in-depth interviews since they involve a face-to-face interaction between the informant and the researcher and seek to understand the informant's perspectives, especially those who have actively participated in the area of focus. All with an aim of obtaining rich descriptive data in order to understand the participant's construction of knowledge and social reality of the subject matter. The reason for the choice of this research technique rests mostly on the fact that interviews;

- cover a wide population irrespective of the location, disability and gender;
- lead to the formulation of questions as they come to mind about the research problem;
- interviewees are less likely to be misunderstood because of repetition; and

- last but not least, more information can be extracted based on the fact that interviews give room for probe responses which in turn can lead the researcher into gaining more information that may have been left out while designing the interview schedule (Kumar 2005: pp.123-124).

1.7.1.2 Questionnaire

Given the nature of this research study, in addition to the above data collection techniques, this research also made use of a structured questionnaire. A structured questionnaire was used, referring specifically to the type of questionnaire in which the questions asked are precise and pre-decided upon.

The rationale behind this choice of technique being that questionnaires are easily standardised, that there is low drain on time and finances, and lastly, that there is very little training of researchers needed (Bless, Higson. Smith and Kagee 2006: p.137). The questionnaires offer the engagement of as many citizens as possible. Furthermore, different types of questions and themes were able to be addressed with ease, and descriptive and explanatory closed and open-ended questions could be employed (McMillan & Schumacher 2006: p.233).

1.7.1.3 Documentary reviews

According to Creswell *et al* (2007: p.82), this technique focuses on all types of written communications that may shed light on the research topic being investigated comprising of both secondary and primary sources. These sources include published and unpublished documents, company reports, letters, memoranda, agendas, faxes and newspaper articles. Trochim & Donnelly (2007: p.146) refer to documentary reviews as instruments of data collection involving a critical assessment and summary of the range of past and contemporary literature in a given area of knowledge. For the purpose of this research, documentary reviews were used by consulting both primary and secondary sources to obtain past and contemporary literature on democracy and service delivery.

Given the fact that there are already existing arguments related to the research problem, publications from different writers, books and unpublished documents. The primary sources consulted for this study included official government documents

such as codes of conduct, presidential pronouncements, government websites of various departments and parliament, government regulatory frameworks (Acts of Parliament, the constitution), and published reports. Moreover the secondary sources to be consulted for the study included: academic journals, articles, and books . all focusing on democracy and citizen participation.

Nonetheless, given the pitfalls associated with the use of this technique like the problem of retrieval, the failure to display authors subjectively, as well as accessibility issues, documents were read hermeneutically, i.e. critically and contextually.

1.7.2 Research population

Based on involvement and the roles played by the various stakeholders towards the strengthening of a democracy, the population of this research mainly encompassed:

- Representatives from the executive directorates of administration at Kampala City Council Authority viz. notably Administration and Human Resources, Engineering and Technical Services, Treasury Services, Public Health and Environment, Education and Social Services, Legal Affairs, Revenue Collection, Gender, Community Services and Production, Internal Audit, and Physical Planning;
- KCCA political representatives (district councillors at the authority), and
- Citizens from three randomly selected divisions of Kampala City, namely: Kawempe Division, Makindye Division and Kampala Central Division.

1.7.3 Ethical considerations

According to De Vos *et al.* (2005: p.58), protecting respondents against harm goes beyond mere efforts to repair, or attempt to minimize harm afterwards. Citing that subjects can be harmed both physically and emotionally with emotional harm is even more difficult to predict and determine. Thus, for this reason, and given the sensitivity of the research topic, to protect the respondents, approval from the government institutions will be obtained as well as from the respondents and ethical considerations will be taken care of during the research. This will be done by informing the respondents in writing about the objectives of the study and request

them to participate as interviewees. In addition, the identities of the respondents will not be disclosed and for those that wish to verify the correctness of their input/citation, the particular sections where the respondents are quoted will be forwarded to them for perusal consideration.

1.8 CONCEPT DEFINITION

Similar concepts are defined differently and provide different meanings depending on the context in which they are used. It is therefore critical that key concepts used in this research are clarified.

1.8.1 Service delivery

According to the South African Management Development Institute (SAMDI) (2002: p.5), service delivery is the ~~by~~ systematic arrangement for satisfactory fulfilment of the various demands for services by undertaking purposeful activities with optimum resource use to delivering effective, efficient and economic services resulting in measurable and acceptable benefits of the customer. In other words, service delivery entails the activities of public officials, to know exactly what the public needs and how best to fulfil these needs, i.e. education, medical facilities, water and sanitation, and shelter+.

1.8.2 Democracy

Classically, democracy is derived from two Greek words: *demos* and *kratis*, meaning ~~people~~ and ~~rule~~ respectively. It can thus be understood to literally mean rule by the people. Like other concepts, democracy is a contested concept with various definitions. For instance, according to Abraham Lincoln in his Gettysburg address, democracy is seen as a government of the people, by the people and for the people. While in the ancient Athens, democracy referred to a practice where all male citizens, (excluding women, children, slaves and foreigners) meet freely on a frequent basis to deliberate on issues bordering on their lives. To date, many have defined democracy and further classified democracy as having both thin and thick definitions. For instance, the International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance 2008 states that democracy has three definitions. These are the procedural definitions focusing on contestation and participation; the liberal definitions consisting of the procedural definitions with emphasis on human rights;

and lastly, the social definitions of democracy comprising of both the earlier definitions with reference to a wider set of human rights as well as the social and economic rights (International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance 2008: .p20). While Morlino (2004: p.12), refers to democracy as a political system that presents stable institutional structures, realises the liberty of and equality of citizens through legitimate and correct functioning of its institutions and mechanisms.

1.8.3 Civic education

According to Boyer E, civic education entails helping people develop responsible ways of thinking and believing. Whilst the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) (2002: p.7) refer to civic education as a course of action that seeks to jump-start democratic socialization through promoting support for democratic behaviours and values amongst ordinary citizens. This through introducing citizens to the basic roles and institutional features and democratic political systems through provision of knowledge about democratic rights; conveying specific values essential to democratic citizenship, i.e. political tolerance, trust in the democratic process, respect for the rule of law and compromise; and lastly encouraging responsible and informed political participation such as voting.

1.8.4 Efficiency

According to Pauw et al., (2002:p139), efficiency refers to achieving maximum output from a given amount of resources used.

1.8.5 Obligations of citizens

Often used synonymously with the words responsibility, according to Self (2012: p.1), civic obligation has existed for centuries in society but was officially sanctioned as a blueprint for democracy in 1789 at the ratification of the United States constitution. These obligations referring to the actions and attitudes associated with democratic governance and social participation such as participation in government, society and in voluntary activities by citizens.

1.8.6 Citizens rights

Reveloson (2008: p.4), asserts that rights are much more than mere components of a democracy but represent the *sine qua non* requirements of well-performing democratic systems. They are inherited to the individuality of each person in terms of protection against any inclination of state to human beings; individuals are born with them and not even the state can withdraw them from individuals; and they form the very core of human relations that guide life in society at all levels.

1.9 CHAPTER OUTLINE

This section of the study will provide for the detailed explanations of the chapters as they serve to present the objectives and findings of the study.

Chapter 1 of the study addresses the motivation of the research, the problem statement, hypothesis, and the objectives of the research. The research methodology is also outlined. This then followed by the elaboration of concepts that were used throughout the study, such as: Democracy, Service Delivery, Citizen Obligation and citizen rights.

Chapter 2 investigates the concepts of democracy, democratic rights and obligations, and democratic maturity, as well as their impact on service delivery.

Chapter 3 focuses on the international perspectives that underpin exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens and service delivery. This chapter reviews the fundamental notions of democratic citizenship and democratic participation, which have become international catchphrases associated with democratic rights and obligation as well as crucial for public sector performance. The chapter subsequently examines the extent to which citizen participation supports the ideals of a democracy while reflecting on a few case highlights in the sub-Saharan region and the developed world.

Through the use of empirical research, **Chapter 4** explores the current state of democratic rights and obligations of citizens in Uganda as well as the quality of the public services delivered to the people of Uganda. This chapter thus soliciting

whether the quality of the public services relates to the understanding and practice of democratic values in Uganda.

Chapter 5 discusses the aspects related to the research designs and methods by providing a discussion on how data is collected in order to ensure its validity and reliability.

Chapter 6 argues in favour of the link between democratic rights and obligations of citizens and service delivery by conducting empirical research on the realities and practices regarding democracy and the exercise of democratic rights and the obligation of citizens as well as their implications towards service delivery in Uganda.

Last but not least, based on the findings of the research, **Chapter 7** provides a summary and a conclusion of the study. A comprehensive participatory framework for exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens to improve public service delivery in Uganda also proposed.

1.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter outlines the problem statement, motivation, as well as goals and objectives of the research. It also provides definitions of the concepts that are used throughout the study. This chapter also stresses the notion that a mixed methodology of research was used using various avenues, including interviews with the head of KCCA directorates, the administrative body of Kampala district, and a questionnaire survey for the local residents of Kampala from three divisions. The findings are supplemented by documentary reviews.

The following chapter investigates the concepts of democracy, democratic rights and obligations, and democratic maturity as well as their impact on service delivery.

CHAPTER TWO: DEMOCRACY, DEMOCRATIC RIGHTS AND OBLIGATIONS, DEMOCRATIC MATURITY AND SERVICE DELIVERY: A CONCEPTUAL AND PRACTICAL INFERENCE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Since the collapse of state socialism in the 1990s, the world has witnessed globalisation of the concept of democratisation, world-wide be it in the smallest cities deep in Africa. This has made it almost impossible to talk about people, power and politics without also discussing the concepts democracy, human rights and citizen responsibilities. However, although there is familiarity with the word democracy, to many, the concept is still highly misunderstood and often misused by the leaders in dictatorships, single party regimes, and military coups when asserting popular support after or during elections claiming the mantle of democracy. It is thus against this background that this chapter will attempt to shade some light on the concepts democracy, democratic rights, democratic obligations/responsibilities, as well as democratic consolidation. This will be done with the aim of providing the background needed for the critical assessment of the impact of these concepts on service delivery.

2.2 DEFINING DEMOCRACY

Democracy as a concept is a classic example of a contested concept. Although there is consensus on certain features and principles of democracy in addition to the classic examples of democratic practices, the concept democracy is still essentially contested (Landman 2012: p.19).

According to Hague and Harrop (2004: p.30), democracy dates back to the ancient world, followed by its re-emergence in the 17th century when economic growth resulted into the redistribution of wealth in England. Thereafter, democracy expanded beyond its core of Western Europe and former settler colonies to embrace Southern Europe, Latin America, Asia and some parts of Africa. Democracy's expansion was then accelerated by the collapse of communism. For Wicherit (2007), the earliest instances of democracy were witnessed in the republic in ancient India established before the 6th century BC although its birth place is widely recognised to be Athens, the leading *polis* (city state) in ancient Greece.

In concurrence with Wicherit (2007), Becker and Ravelson (2008: p.4) state that in Greek the concept democracy is made up of two words that are: *Demos* meaning the people and *kratein* meaning to govern or rule. Literally translated as government of the people or government of the majority. Democracy is further summarised in the memorable phrase of former USA President Abraham Lincoln who defined democracy as a government by the people and for the people with the view that that democracy is a form of governance whose legitimacy derives from the principle of popular sovereignty (Heywood 2010: p.68).

In addition to the above, according to Diamond, Linz and Lipset (1995: pp.2-3), democracy is a system of government that complies with three important conditions, i.e. the meaningful and extensive competition among individuals and organised groups; highly inclusive level of political participation in elections of leaders; and the formulation of policies as well as in the level of civil and political liberties.

By the same token, Unan (1993: p.4) defines democracy as the state with unlimited opportunities for adult participation in political life. Schumpeter (2003: p.269) defines democracy as an institutional arrangement necessary for arriving at political decisions in which individuals acquire the power to make decisions by means of a competitive struggle for the people's vote.

For Aristotle in Hegue and Harrop (2010: p.85), democracy entails:

- *“All to rule over each and each in his turn over all;*
- *Appointment to all offices, except those requiring experience and skill by lot;*
- *No property qualifications for office-holding, or only a very low one;*
- *Tenure of office should be brief and no man should hold the same office twice except military positions;*
- *Juries selected from all citizens should judge all major causes;*
- *The assembly should be supreme over all causes; and*
- *Those attending the assembly and serving as jurors and magistrates should be paid for their services”.*

Landman on the other hand (2012: p.19) asserts that the concept democracy is best described in three different ways. These are:

- Procedural definitions of democracy which looks at democracy in two dimensions, namely *contestation* and *participation*
- Liberal definitions retaining consensus over contestation and participation but adding more explicit references to the protection of human rights, captures the idea of popular sovereignty, includes notions of accountability, constraints of leaders, representation of citizens and universal participation; and
- Social definition of democracy which entails the maintenance of institutional and rights dimensions found in liberal definitions of democracy but expands the rights to include social and economic rights.

Contrary to the above definitions, according to the Bureau of International Information Programs (2012: p.3), democracy is more than just a set of specific government institutions but rests upon well-understood groups of values, attitudes and practices all of which may take different forms and expressions among cultures and societies around the world. Such that in not so many words democracy referring to: (Bureau of International Information Programs 2012: p.3):

- A government in which power and civic responsibilities are exercised by all citizens directly or through elected representatives;
- The principles of majority rule and individual rights with all levels of government accessible and responsible to the people;
- The prime function to protect basic rights, like the freedom of speech; religion and right to equal protection;
- Conducting regular free and fair elections;
- Citizens with the responsibility to participate in the political system that in turn protects their rights; and
- A commitment to the values of tolerance, cooperation and compromise.

Taking everything into account, one can argue that democracy has both narrow and broader definitions. In the narrow sense, such definitions refer to democracy as a form of government while in the broader sense, taking democracy to stand for a form of society that entails a long list of prerequisites before it can be set in action and also regarded as the ideal form of governance compared to the non-democratic forms (Obaidullah 2001: p.15). This deduction confirming Bernard Cricks's assertion that democracy is the most promiscuous word in the realm of public affairs that has meaning to some and is in danger of meaning nothing to others (Cricks 1993 in Heywood 2007: p.72).

Therefore, keeping in mind the above denotations and the hypothesis that the exercising of democratic rights and obligations of citizens in Uganda could contribute positively to improved service delivery, for the purpose of this thesis, the following broad definition of the concept of democracy will be adopted:

“...democracy as system government that is limited within the framework of the constitution; proscribes powers and prescribes the procedures of exercising these powers; ensures equal treatment and protections of law; guarantees protection against arbitrators of government and excess administration of powers; ensures accountability in the exercise of power and formulation of policies to the people and representatives of the people, ensures procedural transparency and exercising of all administrative powers; provides remedies against any kind of maladministration or injustices done to aggrieved citizens, provides institutional mechanisms to redress grievances and promotes citizen participation...” (Obaidullah 2001: p.17)

2.2.1 Forms of democracy

At the most basic level, democracy could be described as ~~the~~ the rule of the people by the people and for the people+. but this well-known definition by Abraham Lincoln has proved to be vague. Therefore, to deeper probe the complex of ideas that make up what is called democracy; one must try and understand the various forms taken by democracy in today's world. According to Heywood (2007: p.74), and Hague and Harrop (2010: p.84) there are two forms of democracy, namely ~~a~~ direct democracy and ~~a~~ representative democracy.

2.2.1.1 Direct democracy

According to Longley (2012), direct democracy, also referred to as "pure democracy", is a form of democracy in which the people themselves, rather than elected representatives, determine the laws and policies by which they are to be governed. Additionally, for Hague and Harrop (2010: p.84), direct democracy was born in ancient Athens between 461 and 322 BC. Commonly tied to the Athenian "ekklesia" (people's assembly that was sovereign and unconstrained by any piece of legislation); and designates to a form of democracy where citizens themselves assemble to debate and make decisions on matters of common interest.

For Heywood (2007: p.74), direct democracy is the form of democracy based on direct, unmediated and continuous participation of citizens in the tasks of governments. Direct democracy eliminates the distinction between government and the governed and between the state and civil society. It is a system of popular self-government and its common modern indicator is based on the use of referendums to determine the views of citizens. In agreement with this definition, Rohmann (2000: p.96) views direct democracy as the form of government in which the citizenry itself makes decisions instead of delegating the power to elected representatives. It is considered as the purest form of democracy and can be identified in its constant use of referendums and petitions in which all voters can participate.

According to Heywood (2007: p.74) the advantages of direct democracy are the following:

- It highlights the control that citizens can exercise over their own destinies as it is the only form of pure democracy;
- It creates better-informed and more politically sophisticated citizenry, thus has educational benefits;
- It enables the public to express their own views and interests without having to rely on self-serving politicians, and
- It ensures legitimacy of the law in the sense that people are more likely to accept decisions that they have made themselves.

2.2.1.2 Representative democracy

In contrast to direct democracy, representative democracy is the form of government in which legislation is enacted by those who are elected by the citizens to represent them. In short, the majority delegate power to a minority nominated to act on their behalf (Rohmann 2000: p.98). To Hague and Harrop (2010: p.84), this form of democracy entails citizens electing a parliament and in a presidential system a chief executive to represent them . these representatives are held accountable. All-in-all, implying that in this form of democracy, the citizens poses the power. This power is that they can vote for whomever they see fit to present them and to choose another in the next election if not satisfied with their previous choice. Although deemed as both a limited and indirect form of democracy, i.e. the popular participation in government is infrequent with voting after every few years; and the public does not exercise power themselves but rather select those who rule on their behalf (Heywood 2007: p.74). Just like direct democracy, ideally the representative form of democracy possesses some attributes. These are (Heywood 2007: p.74):

- Just like direct democracy, representative democracy offers, to certain degree, a practicable form of democracy by giving the power back to the citizens often seen in the citizens engagement on choosing who they want to represent them at the legislative and executive levels of government;
- Relieves ordinary citizens the burden of decision-making where the citizens let those that they have chosen to represent them deal with the decision-making process;
- Ideally allows government to be placed in the hands of those with better education, experience and knowledge; and
- Maintains stability by distancing ordinary citizens from politics, thereby encouraging them to accept compromise.

2.2.2 Elements of democracy

Despite the differences highlighted in the conceptualization of democracy and the different forms of democracy, what makes the concept worth understanding are its silent and universal essential elements. For instance, according to Meyer (2011:

p.5), democracy is not only having elections, a multiparty system, a vibrant civil society, a constitution, or even courts of law. Democracy is much more than this with various elements attached to it. As an example, various internationally agreed-upon documents . some of them hard, legally binding international law, and others soft law . outline the core components of what a democracy should obligate. ~~Hard law~~ referring to laws with a higher degree of legal obligation and precision enforcing delegate interpretation by international courts or courts of law, and ~~soft law~~ referring to those laws that have weak or no legal obligation and keep the interpretation of these laws within parties.

The essential features that distinguish democracy from other non-democratic forms of government are:

2.2.2.1 Separation and balance of power

This means that the power of the three branches of government, that is the legislature, executive and the judiciary, must be separated and balanced rather than concentrated in only one branch of government. This also means that each branch of government is able to carry out its functions independently with the competences of these branches of government clearly delimited and defined (Meyer 2011: p.8; Becker and Ravelson 2008: p.10).

2.2.2.2 Independence of the judiciary

Adopted by the Seventh United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders held at Milan from 26 August to 6 September 1985 and endorsed by General Assembly resolutions 40/32 of 29 November 1985 and 40/146 of 13 December 1985, the independence of the judiciary is critical for democratic governments (UNOHCHR 2012: p.1). This is mainly because the independence of judiciary ensures everyone has the right to be trailed by ordinary courts or tribunals using established legal procedures. Furthermore, the principle of the independence of judiciary entitles and requires the judiciary to ensure that judicial proceedings are conducted fairly and that the rights of the parties are respected all of which are critical elements for a democracy to thrive (Meyer 2011: p.10; UNOHCHR 2012: p.1).

2.2.2.3 Adherence to the rule of law

According to Narayan (2003: p.11), the rule of law refers to the existence of a legal system where laws are acknowledged, clear in meaning, applied equally without any attributions, and adhered to by the society. This implies that the rule of law obliges all public authorities to adhere to all independently and impartially administered legal and justice systems in order for the government to make a continuous effort with assurance that no one is above the law and that all citizens are equal in front of the law (Meyer 2011: p.12).

2.2.2.4 A pluralist system of political parties and organisations

In order for a country to qualify as a democracy, pluralism should be considered and applied as a form of social order and policy. That is to say the country must have a large number of interest groupings, political parties and associations that get together freely and are mutually in a situation of competition to win as well as have an impact on social and political settings of that country. Also with support from government in the form of legislation that is binding; interest groups, political parties and associations must be respected, accepted and recognised no matter how different or diverging they turn out to be and their enforcement should not be faced with any obstacle. This, in a nutshell, implies that democratic states should not hinder the development of political parties but instead have an obligation to favour political pluralism based on parties. Implying also that states must ensure a legal framework for the operation of political parties; restrictions to the rights to register a political party must be narrowly constructed and political party membership should not be mandatory. On the whole, coming to a conclusion that a political system that has a mere façade of a multiparty system, but in reality masking a pattern of state sponsored domination of a one system or dominant party system, falls short of this core element of democracy (Meyer 2011: p.11; Becker and Raveloson 2008: p.12).

2.2.2.5 Transparency and Accountability

Transparency and accountability in public administration are essential to democracy, seeing that the two concepts apply to all those with government and public authority as well as all bodies of government and public authority. Accountability is the extent to which service providers are answerable to the public and institutional stakeholders for their actions and the means by which awareness is manifested. Whereas

transparency is the level of free flow of information to those concerned in a manner in which they understand (Graham, Amos & Plumptre, 2003: p.3).

Accountability and transparency are interrelated concepts and one complements the other. That is, without transparency there cannot be accountability as accountability cannot be done in secrecy. The concept of transparency is underpinned by freedom of expression, which is closely related to freedom of information, which are all relevant factors to a democracy (Meyer 2011: p.13). Taking, for instance, if there arises a scenario where there is lack of access to information about a given required service, it becomes difficult to find a solution to make the service available. Then again, it is difficult to identify those that need the service more; service delivery may thus become fragmented. This suggests that the only way out is to make information available in order to guide people's actions and decisions at all levels for better, more effective and more efficient planning to make the required service available.

Additionally, the World Development Report (WDR) (2004) urges that accountability between the people and their leaders is a critical asset to all governments if they are to effectively deliver services. Thus, the link between service delivery and accountability lies within the chain of how citizens and their political leaders exercise their roles and responsibilities. That is, citizens are supposed to elect leaders who are assessed based on their political mandates towards the delivery of services. It is the same people who decide on what service is needed, where it is needed, how is it delivered and when is it delivered. This pattern of questions is important to service delivery because they highlight who is accountable to whom (OECD, 2008: p.16).

As follows from the above, accountability is also linked to service delivery in such a way that if there is effective and efficient measures of promoting accountability; corruption through outright bribery, theft of public property or embezzlement, and patronage and bestowing favours to relatives and friends is minimized. According to Pauw et al. (2002), this is the leading cause of poor service delivery in this century. For instance, undermines the allocation and frugal use of the scarce resources as well as reduces the opportunity to provide social services to the poor. Both of these are episodes that can only aggravate the poor levels of accountability . thus,

justifying the link between accountability and service delivery (Pauw et al., 2002: p.334).

2.2.2.6 Freedom of the media

Freedom of the media is a pivotal element for any democracy to thrive. To illustrate, freedom of the media comes with creating a pluralistic, open society that is accountable, a transparent government as well as the safeguard of human rights and fundamental rights. All said and done, freedom of the media plays an essential role in warranting the freedom of expression and freedom of information, both of which are requisites for facilitating citizen participation in a democracy (Becker and Ravelson 2008: p.15; Mayer 2011: p.14).

2.3 DEMOCRATIC RIGHTS AND OBLIGATIONS

Like democracy, democratic rights and obligations are not without their own ills. For example, according to Metcalfe (2007: pp.1-2), the link between rights and responsibilities (obligations) has swung out of balance with more talk about citizens' rights and the ignoring of citizens' responsibilities. This, according to Blair (2006), creating leaders holding the liberal view of a pessimistic society, totally divorcing rights from personal responsibility despite the fact that with rights and opportunities, their rises citizens' responsibilities/obligations. Given the role played by citizens, government . and the current struggle over rights and responsibilities . in what is known as *identity politics* the meanings of rights and responsibilities have been subject to change. For instance, in current society we have seen new rights emerge such as the right to a clean environment and the right to reproductive health being introduced by the United Nations, supported by many environmentalists and health fanatics (Power Cube 2013:34). Therefore, the fact that this research intends to assess the impact of exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens in enhancing public service delivery in Uganda, based on the views above, the following section will try and establish the different meanings of the concepts of *democratic rights* and *democratic responsibilities*

2.3.1 Democratic rights

Reveloson (2008: p.4) asserts that rights are much more than mere components of a democracy but represent the *sine qua non* requirements of well-performing democratic systems. They are inherited to the individuality of each person in terms of protection against any inclination of state to human beings; individuals are born with them and not even the state can withdraw them from individuals; and they form the very core of human relations that guide life in society at all levels.

Furthermore, Ravelson (2008: p.4) recognises that rights evolve in four different fields namely:

- a) Individual personality rights . constituting of the core human rights such as the right to life and the right to free personality developments;
- b) Political civil rights . entailing those rights ensure that each citizen is able to participate without any restrictions to the political life of his/her community, i.e. freedom of speech, freedom of the press, holding meetings, and also being able to set up associations;
- c) Social economic rights . emphasizing all rights in relation to the minimum standard wage for survival, i.e. right to education; and
- d) Last but not least, the generation rights . demonstrating that human rights can evolve and are not fixed at the starting point, i.e. right to development aimed at reducing the gap between the right and power, and the environmental rights.

Likewise, in the words of Thomas Jefferson (1776), rights cannot be legislated away nor should they be subject to the whim of an electoral majority. But for any democratic government worthy to name must at least uphold fundamental rights such as freedom of speech and expression, freedom of religion and conscience, freedom of assembly and the right to equal protection before the law (Bureau of International Information programs 2012: p.12).

For Torney-Puta 1998 in Sifuna (2002: p.17), rights are those entitlements which are basic to being human and are not connected to the accident of being born in a

certain country or having a different skin colour. Rights include: basic rights that deal with the dignity and worth of a person; civil and political rights; and social, economic and cultural rights that emphasise matters such as the right to work, the right to maintain one's culture and language, and the right to receive adequate education.

With the above definitions of democratic rights in mind, it can be deduced that different individuals and scholars define rights in terms of their own historical experiences, value systems, economic and political realities. But regardless of these debatable definitions, the definition of rights adopted from the Universal Declaration Of Human Rights still meets the criteria for being considered part of the customary law of nations and as such is still binding on all states, individuals and scholars with regards to that which is considered rights. Stipulated in articles 1-30, these rights are (United Nations 1948)

- *“Everyone is free and we should all be treated in the same way; Everyone is equal despite differences in skin colour, sex, religion, language for example:*
 - *Everyone has the right to life and to live in freedom and safety.*
 - *No one has the right to treat you as a slave nor should you make anyone your slave.*
 - *No one has the right to hurt you or to torture you.*
 - *Everyone has the right to be treated equally by the law.*
 - *The law is the same for everyone, it should be applied in the same way to all.*
 - *Everyone has the right to ask for legal help when their rights are not respected.*
 - *No one has the right to imprison you unjustly or expel you from your own country.*
 - *Everyone has the right to a fair and public trial.*
 - *Everyone should be considered innocent until guilt is proved.*
 - *Everyone has the right to ask for help if someone tries to harm you, but no-one can enter your home, open your letters or bother you or your family without a good reason.*
 - *Everyone has the right to travel as they wish.*

- *Everyone has the right to go to another country and ask for protection if they are being persecuted or are in danger of being persecuted.*
- *Everyone has the right to belong to a country. No one has the right to prevent you from belonging to another country if you wish to.*
- *Everyone has the right to marry and have a family.*
- *Everyone has the right to own property and possessions.*
- *Everyone has the right to practise and observe all aspects of their own religion and change their religion if they want to.*
- *Everyone has the right to say what they think and to give and receive information.*
- *Everyone has the right to take part in meetings and to join associations in a peaceful way.*
- *Everyone has the right to help choose and take part in the government of their country.*
- *Everyone has the right to social security and to opportunities to develop their skills.*
- *Everyone has the right to work for a fair wage in a safe environment and to join a trade union.*
- *Everyone has the right to rest and leisure.*
- *Everyone has the right to an adequate standard of living and medical help if they are ill.*
- *Everyone has the right to go to school.*
- *Everyone has the right to share in their community's cultural life.*
- *Everyone must respect the 'social order' that is necessary for all these rights to be available.*
- *Everyone must respect the rights of others, the community and public property.*
- *No one has the right to take away any of the rights in this declaration”.*

2.3.2 Democratic obligations/responsibilities

Barber in his famous book *A passion for Democracy* (1998: p.195) states that the core of democracy assumes that our rights and liberties do not come for free . it is

until we assume our responsibilities as citizens that we will be able to preserve our rights. According to Barber, democracy is often understood as the majority rule and rights as private possessions of individuals which he believes is a misinterpretation of the two concepts.

For him, the success of democracy depends on the active participation of citizens and not their lack of participation. This is because, at the end of it all, the success or failure of their governments lies strongly in the hands of the citizens which they govern, and is dependent on their active involvement in the day-to-day running of the government and not anyone else. In concurrence with Barber, Sifuna (2000: p.216) asserts that this is mainly because the citizens have a working knowledge of the aim and purpose of government, how it is constituted and maintained, how government policies are formulated and implemented, the nature and scope of government institutions, and how government functions overall.

According to Kobia 1991 in Sifuna (2000: p.216), democracy is sustained by the people who care to find out, investigate and explore problems and issues in society with the willingness to develop a plan of action for resolutions. Whilst Hileman (2006: p.2) asserts that just as democracy gives us certain unalienable rights, so too does it bestow upon us certain responsibilities. What Hileman asserts is clearly embedded in Abraham Lincoln's concept democracy as the rule by the people for the people; with the prior recognising our rights and abilities to govern ourselves as individuals and the latter assuming our willingness to do so by participating actively in the government we establish ourselves.

Nonetheless, irrespective of the above notions, the utmost fact in the contemporary political discourse today is the ignorance of many about the centrality of the concept of democratic obligations or responsibilities as many refer to them. For instance, since the 1970s, with the utmost emphasis on the free market economy, most liberals have traded the language of civic duties and responsibilities/obligations for the language of rights. That is to say, that those more inclined towards the liberal ideology are now fronting the need to recognise and respect individual human rights as opposed to the need to promote these civic rights together with civic obligations and responsibilities (Kloppenber 2012: p.12). Therefore, it is against this argument

that the following section will try and unravel the concept at hand, democratic obligations.

Often used synonymously with the words obligations, according to Self (2012: p.1), civic responsibility has existed for centuries in society but was officially sanctioned as a blueprint for democracy in 1789 at the ratification of the United States constitution. These responsibilities refer to the actions and attitudes associated with democratic governance and social participation such as participation in government, society and in voluntary activities by citizens.

No different from the above, the Bureau of International Information Programs (2012: Online) argues that democratic responsibilities entail citizens committing themselves towards the government i.e. through giving mandatory military or civilian national service. Respecting the law, paying one's fair share of taxes, accepting the authority of the elected government and respecting the rights of those with differing points of views.

Additionally, according to the Democracy Journal (2012: p.10), democratic responsibilities and obligations include:

- The need to contribute to one's community and country;
- Understand that one's rights must exist in balance with the prerogatives to commit oneself to the idea that political disputes should be resolved more or less amicably; and
- Lastly, pledge loyalty to the ideals of a reasoned debate, and accept majority rule and protection of minority rights.

So, in light of the above definitions, it can be deduced that in a democracy citizens should assume their responsibilities fully . both in politics and in civil society . if they expect their rights to be preserved. This is so because with rights comes obligations and the success of a democracy depends on citizen participation. However, this may require efforts by civil society organizations and government institutions to educate citizens about their democratic rights and responsibilities, improve their political skills, represent their common interests, and involve them in political life.

Thus, based on Barber's (1998: p.26) assertion that democracy may be established by a fundamental logic but its sustainability is solely dependent on the logic of citizenship, it can be deduced that by citizens exercising their democratic rights and obligations in Uganda, could contribute to enhancing public service delivery. The next section will examine the concept democratic consolidation . also referred to as democratic maturity.

2.4 DEMOCRATIC CONSOLIDATION

Although originally cut out to promote democracy as the only game in town, countless other tasks have been added to the original task of democratic consolidation. As a result, there has been an introduction of new challenges and conditions for democratic consolidation and in turn calling for new definitions making the misconception and contestation of democratic consolidation inevitable. As an illustration, according to Schedler (1998: p.91), if it were a fact that no scientific field could advance when its participants failed to share a common interpretation of a key concept, then the current state of conceptual confusion around democratic consolidation would consider the field of democratic consolidation stagnant. To Orozco (1997: p.58) democratic consolidation is a fashionable term just like many other concepts suffering from the disease of abuse, distortion and underestimation. Whilst according to Valenzuela (1990: p.1), despite the growing literature to address the difficulties in attaining democratic consolidation, there is little clarity over the meaning of the concept and ways in which it can be achieved.

Irrespective of the above, various authors and scholars have addressed the concept democratic consolidation.

Bratton, Mattes and Gyimah-Baodi (2005: p.65), for instance, assert that democratic consolidation occurs when a high portion of citizens demands democracy and also believe that there is an adequate supply of democracy from their political regime.

Merkel (2008: p.12) contends that democratic consolidation is a political system where the elite have come to regard the entire system as legitimate without alternatives, and the citizenry's patterns of attitudes, values and behaviours reflect a stable belief in the legitimacy of the democracy.

According to O'Donnell (1996) in Mottiar (2002: p.1), democratic consolidation is a system where power is alternated between rivals. Support for the system is continued even during times of economic hardships, rebels are defeated and punished. Moreover the government remains stable even in the face of restructuring of the party system, and there is no significant political anti-system. Bunbongkarn (2001: p.140) states that democratic consolidation refers to a system where the reversal to authoritarianism is impossible. Whilst, according to Lee (2007: p.103), democratic consolidation is the process of transforming the accidental arrangements, prudential norms, and contingent solutions that have emerged during the transition into relations of cooperation and competition that are reliably known, regularly practiced, and voluntarily accepted by those persons or collectives that participate in democratic governance.

Nevertheless, irrespective of the above definitions, for the purpose of this thesis, the following interpretation is adopted by Linz and Stepan (1996: pp.5-9), who assert that democracies become consolidated when they become internalised behaviourally, attitudinally and constitutionally.

- **Behaviourally** meaning there is no significant national, social, economic, and political institutional actors spending significant resources attempting to achieve their own agendas, i.e. forming a non-democratic regime;
- **Attitudinally** referring to a strong majority of public opinion even amidst economic hardships believing that democratic procedures are the most appropriate ways to govern; and
- While **constitutionally** referring to a scenario where government and non-governmental forces alike become subject and habituated to the resolution of conflict within the bounds of the specific laws, procedures and institutions sanctioned by new democratic process.

All said and done, according to literature, various factors are required for democratic consolidation to prevail in emerging democracies. Therefore, the next section will embark on discussing these factors.

2.4.1 Factors that contribute to democratic consolidation

According to Bunbongkrn (2001: pp.140-141), democratic consolidation necessitates three fundamentals, viz. Firstly, there should be ample commitment to democracy from the elite, that is decision makers, organisational leaders, politicians, government officials, intellectuals, private sector leaders, and opinion shapers upholding democratic principles and behaving in accordance with the democratic norms. This is mainly because once these groups of people have opposing beliefs with some in favour of authoritarian rule; the reversal to authoritarianism is possible. Secondly, there must be a firm rooted belief amongst the majority of the citizens that democracy is indeed the best suitable form of government. Thirdly, there must be firm commitment to democracy from various non-state actors, i.e. political parties, social movements, civil society organisations, and interest groups. Seeing that they serve as platforms for political participation and mobilization and it is they that disseminate democratic principles (Bunbongkrn 2001: p.141).

In addition to the above, for Linz and Stepan 1996 in Mottiar (2002: pp.1-2), democratic consolidation demands five specific conditions. These conditions are:

- Conducive conditions must exist for the development of a free and lively civil society;
- There must be an autonomous political society where the political actors compete for the legitimate right to exercise control over political power;
- All major political actors . especially the government and the state apparatus . must be subjected to a rule of law that protects individual freedoms;
- There must be a state bureaucracy to protect the rights of citizens and deliver basic services; and
- Lastly, there should be an institutionalized economic society that can sustain a mixed economy.

At any rate, looking at the above discussions as well as the various connotation of the concept, it can be deduced that democratic consolidation is indeed a complex process and contested concept. However, it is also a critical for a democracy to

thrive. The next section will explore the relationship between democracy and service delivery.

2.5 SERVICE DELIVERY

In order to comprehend the link between democracy and service delivery, it is prudent to clarify what service delivery entails. Therefore, this section will unravel the concept service delivery.

2.5.1 Service delivery defined

Prior to the 1990s, the concept of public service delivery was associated with the discipline political science and, more specifically, its public administration component (Kanyane 2010: p.78). But to date, service delivery is much more underpinned by the public administration theory and contemporary public management school of thought known as New Public Management (NPM) with the beneficiaries of service delivery known as clientele or citizenry (Kanyane 2010: p.78; Ferlie, Pettigrew, Ashburner and Fitzgerald 1996: p.19). This explains the influence of the philosophy of NPM on many of the definitions of service delivery as will be discussed below.

According to the South African Management Development Institute (SAMDI) now the National School of Government (NSG) (2002: p.5), service delivery is the systematic arrangement for satisfactory fulfilment of the various demands for services by undertaking purposeful activities with optimum resource-use to delivering effective, efficient economic services resulting in measurable and acceptable benefits of the customer. In other words, service delivery entails the activities of public officials, i.e. activities that require public officials to know exactly what the public wants, and how best to fulfil these needs.

Fox & Meyer (1995: p.118) define service delivery as the provision of public activities, benefits, or satisfactions to citizen. That is the provision of a service or product by the government to the citizens as expected by the citizens and mandated by Acts of Parliament. Implying that service delivery can either be tangible (products) or intangible (services). According to Flynn (1997: p.170), the term service delivery implies that the user of the service is a passive recipient who has the services delivered to him.

For the purposes of the research and to contribute to the methodology of linking democracy and service delivery, this study will adopt the definition of service delivery as the provision of a service or product by the government, to the citizens as expected by the citizens and mandated by Acts of Parliament (Fox & Meyer 1995: p.118).

2.5.1.1 Service delivery Models

Due to the complexity of service delivery, various scholars have identified different models that could be used by practitioners to deliver efficient and effective social/welfare services. Few amongst these models are: the **voice**, **choice**, **trust** and **mistrust** models.

- **Voice model**, implying that the users express their dissatisfaction or satisfaction by some form of direct communication with the service providers with the argument that high-quality public service requires that service providers listen to the users and adhere to their needs (Le Grand, 2010: p.64).
- The **choice model** involves the individual users' freedom of choice between different public service providers.
- The **trust model** providers of the services (Knights), e.g. general practitioners, school-teachers, or nursery teachers, are trusted to spend the budget professionally. That is to say they allocate the budget so that public service provision is efficient, responsive, accountable, equitable, and of high quality with no rewards linked to their performance (Le Grand 2010: p.58).
- Whereas with the **mistrust model** . or **command and control** as it is also called based on a hierarchy of control, top-steering, and coupled with external rewards or penalties for compliance or failure to comply with central directives. The employees are seen as **naïves**, and they are not trusted to do their jobs properly without intervention. Financial incentives, promotion, and **blaming and shaming** are used to control the supposedly self-interested employees (Le Grand 2010: p.60).

In contrast is the Public-Private Partnership (PPP), conceptually collaboration between public and private sector organizations in public service delivery. The PPP specifically involves models such as (Idris, Kura and Bashir 2013: p.66; Ngowi 2013: p.2):

- *Contracting-Out Model*: Involves contracts with for-profits or non-profits, governments also contract out with other governments to deliver a given service;
- *Franchising/Concession*: A private partnership takes over responsibility for operating a service and collecting charges and possibly for funding new investments in fixed assets;
- *Affermage*: Public authority controls construction and owns the fixed assets but contracts out operations, maintenance and collecting service charges;
- *Leasing*: Making use of equipment/assets without purchasing but by paying a lease;
- *Privatization*: Public service is entirely sold to a private partner;
- *Management contract*: Private organization takes over responsibility for managing a service to a specified standard by using staff, equipment etc. of public authority;
- *Build Own and Operate (BOO)*: Partnership between public and private sectors whereby the private firm may build, own and operate the asset/service;
- *Build Operate and Transfer (BOT)*: Same as BOO but the asset/service will be transferred to the public sector after a period of time;
- *Management Buyout (MBO)*: The management of well-run internal functions negotiate the purchase of that function and becomes a private venture; and
- *Co-operatives*: Self-governing, voluntary organizations designed to serve the interest of their members, working in partnership with public authorities.

In light of the above models, the fact that this study intends to address the extent to which the exercise of democratic rights and obligations influences the quality of

services in Uganda then becomes imperative that the service delivery models are taken into consideration . especially the **voice model** as explained above.

2.5.1.2 Service delivery Indicators

According to literature, service delivery is measured in a number of ways . notably through Public Expenditure Tracking Survey (PETS), Quantitative Service Delivery Survey (QSDS), Staff Absence Survey (SAS), and other observational studies. Whereby PETS trace the flow of public resources from the budget to the intended end-users through the administrative structure as a means of ascertaining the extent to which the actual spending on services is consistent with budget allocations.

QSDS examines inputs, outputs, and incentives at the facility level. QSDS also examines provider behaviour to assess performance and efficiency of service delivery. SAS focuses on the availability of teachers and health practitioners on the frontline and identify problems with their incentives. Observational studies aim to measure the quality of services proxies for by the level of effort exerted by service providers (African Economic Research Consortium 2011: p.2; Dehn, Reinikka, and Svensson 2003: p.192). Last but not least, the current Service Delivery Indicators: Pilot in Education and Health Care in Africa focusing predominantly on measures that capture the outcome of these efforts both by the frontline service providers and by higher level authorities entrusted with the task of ensuring that schools and clinics are receiving proper support (African Economic Research Consortium 2011: p.2).

Nevertheless, for the purposes of this study, the state of service delivery in Uganda will be assessed by using the renowned PETS model since it has been already tried and tested in the country focusing on six core elements (Dehn, Reinikka, and Svensson 2003: p.192), namely:

- The Characteristics of the facility (service provider, i.e. schools and hospitals) . focusing on the size of the hospitals or schools providing the service, ownership, years of operation, hours of operation, competition from other service providers, access to the infrastructure, utilities and other services, and range of services provided;
- Inputs . referring to how much is budgeted for in terms of wages and allowances for labour;

- Outputs . that is the numbers of in-patients and out-patients treated, enrolment rates, and numbers of pupils completing final exams;
- Quality . focusing on different aspects of quality such as observed practice, staff behaviour and composition, availability of crucial inputs, and provision of certain services such as water, education, and health;
- Financing . focusing on sources of finance (government, donors, and user charges), amounts, and type (in-kind versus financial support); and
- Institutional mechanisms and accountability put in place to ensure efficient and effective delivery of services.

2.6 LINK BETWEEN DEMOCRACY AND SERVICE DELIVERY

According to De la Harpe *et al.* (2008: p.8), it is worthwhile to note that various aspects such as economic, social and political environments contribute to the wellbeing of citizens. These include aspects such as access to basic education, health services, infrastructure, as well as water and sanitation, under which principles of good governance play an important role. For example, according to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) (2013: p.1), basic education is a fundamental human right whereby every individual is entitled to education, especially at the fundamental stages. The major concern of this section is how this service, along with other basic services, is provided in order to reach those that need them most and in good quality. In order to acquire such basic services, De la Harpe *et al.* (2008: p.8) assert that various principles must exist.

But, according to literature (van de Walle: 2000: p.1; IDEA 2008: p.6; Hasnain 2008: p.129), the link between democracy and service delivery is one of the most enduring puzzles in development. For instance, despite the increased emphasis on democratic governance in Africa, there have not been many improvements in the delivery of services to those that need them the most. Instead, it appears that many democracies are embracing democratic governance through the adoption of democratic institutions, but adopting or setting up policies that are hurting the poor and not meeting the requisite of providing services to the poor people.

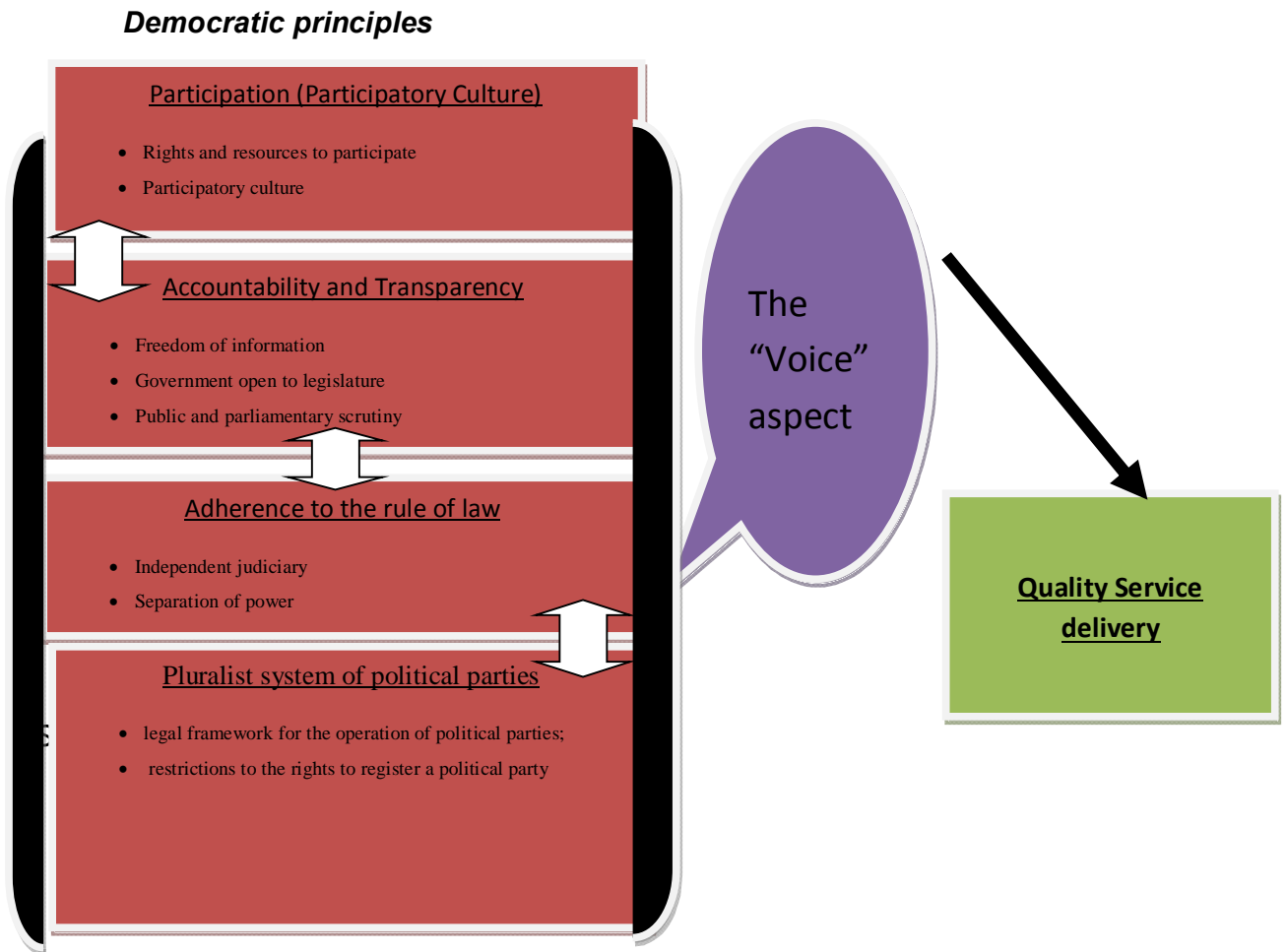
The experiences in Africa bear testimony to this problem. For instance, although many African countries have to date experienced longer period of democracy, many

have also had a decline in their social indicators particularly in health, education, infrastructure and water and sanitation.

So, given that many countries are governed under democratic rule, why then do services remain poor and not reaching those that needs them the most? Assuming that democracy promotes good service delivery, the question then is: How does democracy influence service delivery? In analysing this puzzle, building on substantial and growing literature on democracy and service delivery, an assessment will be made of the link between democracy and service delivery from a broader perspective, based on worldly identifiable principles of democracy namely: participation; accountability and transparency; adherence to the rule of law; and pluralist system of political parties. The aforementioned will be the focus in this section. Of which one can assert that with these democratic principles in place and properly adhered to by both government and citizens, citizens can reach the 'voice+' aspect (the voice aspect denoting citizens exercising their democratic rights and obligations with the state that is not just consultation but embroils to more direct forms of influence over public policy decisions, public leadership, and public financial management), which is an essential element in the delivery of services.

For instance, with accountability and transparency, participatory culture, rule of law and a pluralist system of political parties, citizens have a 'voice+' to make their own decisions as active agents of change, and can bring the state to account through evaluating state actions in terms of their effectiveness in delivering services to those that need those services most. See **Figure 1** for the outline of the argument.

FIGURE 1: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEMOCRACY AND SERVICE DELIVERY



2.6.1 Participation

Participation has been conceptualized as the manner in which citizens are involved in the formulation and implementation of decisions pertaining to their wellbeing, regardless of race, gender, political affiliation, or tribe in the political and administrative process of decision-making and implementation of matters regarding the citizens themselves (UNESCAP 2010: p.1; Odi 2010). The inclusion of citizens in public service development and delivery process, in which citizens do not only contribute directly to the service outlets, but the participation has impact on better public services, quality assessment, and satisfaction with public service (Stumbrait - Vilkizien 2013: p.4).

Participation is regarded as the core principle upon which good governance is formed, and thus plays a critical role in service delivery. Participation can be seen as key to solving service delivery issues given that it acknowledges the differences in society, regardless of how it is measured. According to the theory of social capital, the incorporation of citizens into public affairs strengthens the social capital, because the citizens are involved in the adoption and implementation of new relevant decisions, which will directly influence the community (Stumbrait -Vilkizien 2013: p.4). While for Ebdon (2002), if a government is not aware of who its clients are and what services they want and how they evaluate the relevant services, it is unlikely that such a government will meet the needs of the citizens. In addition, the author points out that the most important is not how many citizens participate, but whether all of the citizens' opinion is represented (Ebdon, 2002).

Nonetheless, although it is imperative to note that different groups in society may participate with different visions about what makes good service delivery? For instance, clients (parents and students) in the education sector may participate in anticipation of low-cost accessibility to schools, safety, and sanitation, as well as quality education that improves their children's life chances, or their own. Policy-makers, who happen to be the political leaders, may be motivated by their wish to deliver social benefits at low cost, whilst the service providers (the teachers and head teachers) participation may be aimed at focusing on the technical side, such as the development of sound curricula, high salaries, respect, and safety (OECD/DAC 2008: p.16).

Participation boosts transparency, which exposes the weaknesses in accountability of the local government officials to the elected representatives (horizontal accountability); the elected representatives to the citizens (upward accountability) and that of the local government to the central government (upward accountability) all-in-all setting impacting on the service delivery.

Additionally, participation sets in motion a process of empowerment that goes far beyond the provision of basic services towards enabling the poor to become agents of their own development, in turn leading to better service delivery (Asia-Pacific MDG study series, 2007: p.33).

2.6.2 Accountability and Transparency

Accountability initiatives in service delivery are more difficult to define, although by now accountability is somewhat an accepted key dependent variable to service delivery. For instance, only a limited number of empirical studies have explored the links between democratic mechanisms and public services, especially when it comes to the roles played by representative political institutions such as political parties and parliaments. According to (Joshi 2010: p.1), the importance of accountability and related transparency emanates from two ideological streams, i.e.:

- New Public Management (NPM): emerged in the 1990s emphasising the use of market mechanisms in the public sector to make managers and service providers responsive and accountable; and
- The failures of democratic institutions to deliver services to the poor (Fox 2007 in Joshi 2010: p.1).

However, what is important to note is that the introduction of accountability took root as a central theme in service delivery in 2004 when the World Development Report (WDR) identified service delivery failures as accountability failures. Showing how the long route to accountability . via elected politicians and public officials through to providers . was failing the poor, advocating for strengthening the short route . direct accountability relationships between users and service providers (World Development Report 2004; Joshi: 2010: p.2; OECD/ DAC, 2008: p.16). From then this has procreated many innovations, ranging from more institutionalised forms of co-governance based on public expenditure tracking surveys, assumptions based on analytical research all trying to link accountability and service delivery.

Jelmin (2012: p.6) argues that accountability is generally defined as using the broadly accepted principal-agent model. In terms of this model, person A is accountable to person B if person A has to explain and justify his/her actions to person B and person B is able to sanction person A in the case of misconduct. Thus defined, accountability can also be seen as a relationship of power, where the less powerful principal has the right to ask the more powerful agent to explain his/her actions, and has the capacity to impose penalties for poor performance (Jelmin

2012: p.6). For Speijcken (2012: p.8), public accountability refers to the complex contextual social process between citizens and the state that is: (a) the use of public resources such as finances and natural resources; (b) the way policy decisions are taken and how they perform with regard to serving the wider public interest in a resource efficient, effective and fair manner; and (c) the way in which it acts and executes its public roles within the law, in a fair, non-corrupt and legitimate manner (Speijcken 2012: p.8). While according to Joshi (2010: p.3), the clearest and most basic exposition of the concept of accountability is that provided by Schedler (1999: pp.14-29) in which public accountability comprises of a relationship between the power holder (account-provider) and delegator (account-demander). There are four elements to this accountability relationship, namely: the setting of standards, getting information about actions, making judgments about appropriateness, and sanctioning unsatisfactory performance.

Accountability is the extent to which service providers are answerable to the public and institutional stakeholders for their actions, and the means by which awareness is manifested. Transparency refers to the level of free flow of information to those concerned in a manner in which they understand (Graham, Amos & Plumptre, 2003: p.3). It also refers to the attempts by governments to place information or processes that were previously opaque in the public domain, accessible for the use by citizen groups, providers or even policy makers (Joshi 2010: p.2).

By analysing the definitions above, it can be deduced that accountability and transparency are interrelated concepts and that one complements the other. That is, without transparency there cannot be accountability and *vice versa* (Fox 2007: p.663). Thus raising the question, what is the link between transparency and accountability and service delivery? Therefore, the section below will unravel the link between transparency, accountability and service delivery.

According to the Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA), transparency exposes the weakness in accountability whereby the lack of transparency in budgetary procedures makes it difficult for the electorate to judge government spending, and exhibits better oversight all of which are important in service delivery (IDEA 2013). Dessy (2007: p.5) states that by establishing a direct accountability relationship between clients and providers while limiting state

responsibility to the financing of these services. This improves pro-poor outcomes, including maternal and child mortality rates, the rate of connectivity to safe water and modern sanitation, and illiteracy.

In concurrence with Dessy (2007: p.5), accountability between the people and their leaders is a critical asset to all governments if they are to effectively deliver services. Thus, the link between service delivery and accountability lies in how citizens and their political leaders exercise their roles and responsibilities. That is, citizens elect leaders who are assessed based on their political mandates towards the delivery of services, and it is the same people who decide on what services are needed, where they are needed, how they are delivered, and when they are delivered. This pattern of questions is important to service delivery as they highlight who is accountable to whom (OECD/DAC, 2008: p.16). Not far from this argument, according to Hasnain (2008: p.2), accountability is linked to service delivery through three strong accountability relationships with the different actors in the service delivery chain. That is:

- The poor being able to hold policy makers accountable;
- Policy makers able to hold service providers accountable; and
- Intergovernmental frameworks between the national and local policy makers that are irrefutable on improving service delivery.

As follows from the above, based on the intuitive logic that secrecy breeds corruption and sunlight is the best disinfectant (Hubbard 2007: p.3). Accountability is linked to service delivery in such a way that where there is effective and efficient measures of promoting accountability forged through the three strong accountability relationships with the different actors in the service delivery chain. Corruption through outright bribery, theft of public property or embezzlement, patronage, and the bestowing of favours to relatives and friends would be minimized. For instance, the lack of transparency in the budgetary procedures makes it harder for the electorate to query government spending, inhibits better oversight, access to credit and policy choices, and also hinders the constructive engagement of citizens and service providers about potential reforms (Devas & Grant 2003: p.310).

Furthermore, according to Joshi (2010: p.5) under the assumption that the exposure of poor performance leads to greater responsiveness, the failures in service delivery are due to poor motivation on the part of public officials. Transparency and accountability lead to increased responsiveness on the part of service providers; and improved access and quality of services and consequently better developmental outcomes. Similarly to the greater empowerment of the people, awareness of the rights by users and greater engagement in service delivery through the practice of citizenship.

2.6.3 Adherence to the rule of law

According to Narayan (2003: p.11), the rule of law refers to the existence of a legal system where laws are acknowledged, are clear in meaning, are applied equally without any attributions, and are adhered to by the society. The United Nations defines the rule of law as a principle of governance in which all persons, institutions and entities, public and private, including the State itself, are accountable to laws that are publicly promulgated, equally enforced and independently adjudicated, and which are consistent with international human rights norms and standards.

The rule of law requires measures to ensure adherence to the principles of supremacy of law, equality before the law, accountability to the law, fairness in the application of the law, separation of powers, participation in decision-making, legal certainty, avoidance of arbitrariness and procedural and legal transparency (UN General Assembly 2012: p.2).

From the above definitions, it can be deduced that this principle of democracy is linked to service delivery in the way the rules and regulations are structured, amended and ensured. For instance, often at the heart of each country, the rule of law guarantees the protection of the full range of human rights, brings citizens and non-citizens alike legitimate avenues of recourse in cases of abuses of power, and allows for the peaceful and fair resolution of disputes (UN General Assembly 2012: p.3). Strengthening the rule of law fosters an environment that facilitates sustainable human development and may foster improvements in service delivery.

For example, the rule of law in a country extends to include how rules are subject to collective stewardship, especially in countries characterized by multiple cultures or nationalities, clearly indicating a shift from the government realm to the realm of the people. This is indicative of the rules (formal and informal) government puts in place to meet popular expectations of freedom from fear, and the desire that no other institution but government has ultimate responsibility. That is, making decisions that at times go against other people's interests but is justified as necessary in order to protect what members view as of matters national interest. This not only results to the formulation, amendments and implementation of policies that recognise the needs of the society and economy, but it makes it easier for the poor to claim their rights and for service providers to reach out to the poor (Hayden *et al.*, 2003: p.3). This is clearly articulated by the North African countries (Libya and Egypt) in 2011 where dissatisfaction with the rule of law pushed the people to claim their rights.

Furthermore, the rule of law is by nature linked to service delivery according to the United Nations international norms and standards. For example, a strong rule of law relies on effective and equitable delivery of public services such as: policing, criminal justice, corrections, civil and administrative justice, legal aid assistance and law-making to all individuals within a jurisdiction, without discrimination; and ensuring equitable access to these services also requires the rule of law (UN General Assembly 2012: p.3). It can therefore be deduced that the rule of law infuses every aspect of society and without it; the interference with service delivery is unavoidable.

2.6.4 Pluralist system of political parties

As mentioned earlier, for a country to be regarded as a democracy, the country should not hinder the development of political parties but instead have an obligation to favour political pluralism based on parties. Inferring that states must ensure a legal framework for the operation of political parties; restrictions to the rights to register a political party must be narrowly constructed and political party membership should not be mandatory. However, how does this impact on service delivery? According to Hasnain 2008: p.129), political parties influence service delivery under three features. These are:

- The degree of fragmentation of the party system;

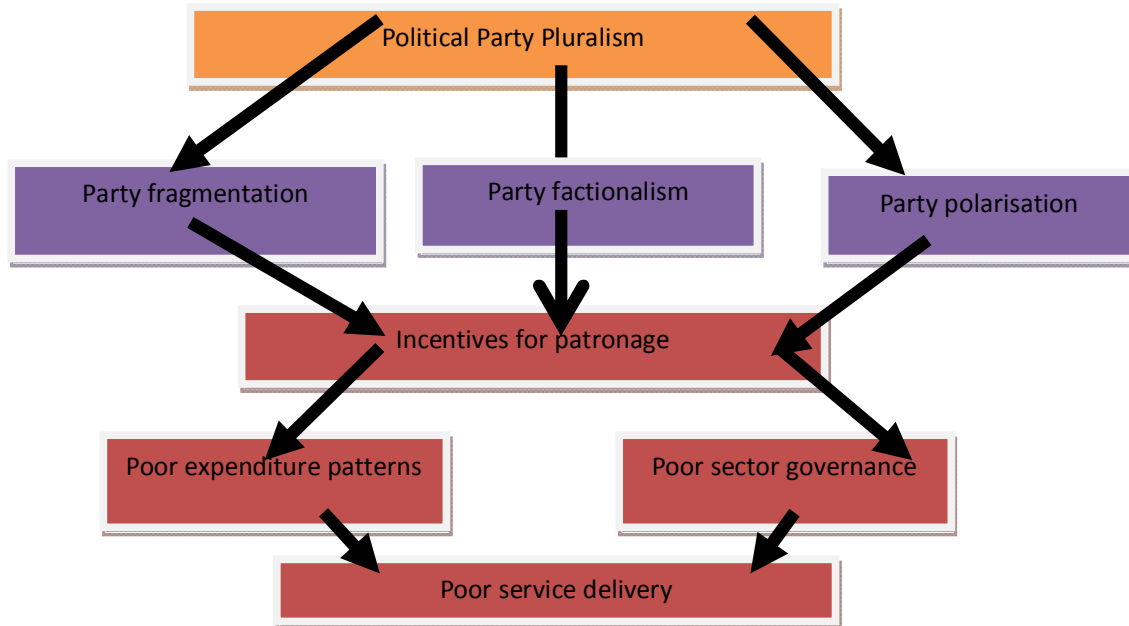
- The internal cohesion or degree of factionalism of political parties; and
- The degree of ethnic divide or polarization among political parties.

Hasnain (2008: pp.130-146) asserts that the higher the levels of party fragmentation, factionalism and polarization, the greater the incentives for patronage and the poorer the quality of service delivery. For instance, the existence of party fragmentation increases the number of political party candidates, leading to an increase in informational demand on voters, creating a scenario where voters have to evaluate countless messages conveyed by all the political party candidates during election time. This increase in the number of candidates provides the incumbent with higher incentives to focus on particularized benefits that he/she can more easily take credit for, which is a viable electoral strategy.

In-turn, this increase in candidates influences the choice of the voters as well as the electoral outcome leading to the re-enforcement of non-performing governments negatively impacting on the services to be rendered.

Furthermore, Hasnain asserts that when political parties are highly factionalised, they do not provide their members with stable career prospects. Politicians have a relatively greater incentive to focus on the targeted goods by the citizens to build a personal reputation that they can carry across party lines. This in itself is influencing service delivery in terms of decision-making whereby the in-fighting makes it hard to come to a collective decision and also creates a gap for individualism as well as corruption. Finally, in highly polarised party systems, the provisioning of public goods provides less political benefits as different ethnic groups have different preferences over, and cannot agree on the public goods to be provided, which is a major influence on service delivery (Hasnain 2008: pp.130-146). See **Figure 2** for the outline of the influence of political party pluralism on service delivery.

FIGURE 2: INFLUENCE OF POLITICAL PARTY PLURALISM ON SERVICE DELIVERY



Source: Self-Modified based on works of Hasnain (2008: p.131).

In **Figure 2** above, based on the hypothesis that political parties have an impact on the way citizens cast their votes, political parties are always caught between patronage and service delivery. As a result, the number of political parties or degree of fragmentation; the degree of factionalism in political parties; as well as the degree of polarisation (ethnic divide) turns out to be incentives of patronage. All of which in turn result in poor expenditure patterns in government and poor sector governance. This is mainly due to the fact that what those in power care for most is patronage or support of the citizens, and in the name of gaining support, they are willing to do anything . even spend unnecessarily, or formulate or implement ambiguous policies focusing on targeted programs such as government jobs and infrastructure investment, among others; hence the result in poor service delivery. This clearly portrayed in Uganda, especially looking at the new anti-homosexual Act.

In concurrence with Hasnain, Speijcken (2012: p.6) suggests that political parties are also prime actors in society and that they have essential roles to play in a democracy as well as in the process of democratic consolidation. An instance of this includes

acting as intermediates between the state and citizens. Political parties are in a unique position to contribute to the different aspects of public accountability which is a critical element in the provision of services.

2.7 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, critical key concepts with regard to the research topic have been articulated. These concepts include: democracy, democratic elements, democratic rights and obligations, and democratic consolidation. Attention was cast towards unravelling the link between democracy and service delivery. Based on the above arguments, it can be concluded that there is a link between democracy and service delivery. This is established through democratic elements, namely: transparency and accountability, adherence to the rule of law, existence of a pluralist system of political parties, and citizen participation, among others. All the same, given that in the context of the research, the major concern is to investigate the role of exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens in enhancing public service delivery in Uganda. The next Chapter reviews the fundamental notions of democratic citizenship and democratic participation, which have become international catchphrases associated with democratic rights and obligation as well as crucial for public sector performance. The chapter subsequently examines the extent to which citizen participation supports the ideals of a democracy while reflecting on a few case highlights in the sub-Saharan region and the developed world.

CHAPTER 3: EXERCISE OF DEMOCRATIC RIGHTS AND OBLIGATIONS AS MECHANISM FOR IMPROVED PUBLIC SERVICE DELIVERY: INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Empirical research exploring how the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens impacts on service delivery remains limited and fragmented, leaving little scope for methodical analysis or policy endorsement. Comparative studies of the factors that account for deviation in service outcomes, either across sectors within a country or across regions, are also somewhat rare. Therefore the fact that the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens is an important constraint and represents at the same time enabling conditions of policy choices, influences good performance, and better outcomes at the point of delivery. Attention in this chapter is directed to some fundamental catchphrases associated with the notion of exercising democratic rights and obligations, which at the same time underpin the ideals of good service delivery. These catchwords include: **democratic citizenship** and **citizen participation (public participation)** which are at the epicentre of democracy. These catchwords also reinforce the imperatives of exercising democratic rights and obligation of citizens.

In particular, this chapter will highlight the significance of exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens as an essence of enabling good public service delivery across nations. International perspectives on promoting citizen participation will be articulated in light of recent development initiatives with the aim of making a case that exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens is viewed as an instrument of enhancing public service delivery. However, before engaging in a detailed analysis, the next section will contextualise citizen participation and democratic citizenship.

3.2 CONCEPTUALISING DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP AND CITIZEN PARTICIPATION

The founders of democratic nations believed in creating governments where the "common man" could have a voice in politics. However, for such an approach to work, according to the Brigham Young University (BYU) (2013), citizens must become aware of, knowledgeable about, and active in their communities and nations. Hence seeing that true democratic citizenship requires more than voting for representatives . this is to say one uses one's own mind, voice, and actions to contribute to decision-making processes. However, time and again, the public has failed to fully take advantage of democratic opportunities that have arisen in Uganda per se, which is the focus of this study. In the past two presidential elections, Uganda has had declining political participation and increasing political apathy whereby many citizens have preferred to stay home than head to the voting centres. Therefore, to try and understand the reasons underlying this problem, the section below will try and answer the question: What does democratic citizenship and citizen participation entail?

3.2.1 Citizenship and Democratic Citizenship

Just like democracy, democratic citizenship has been labelled as a contested concept with various meanings and interpretations (Requejo 1999: p.262; Lister 1998: p.228; Gaventa &Valderama 1999: p.4). At the core, however, is the concept of citizenship which one must first understand before hypothesising on democratic citizenship.

According to Gaventa and Valderama (1999: p.4), the concept of citizenship has long been a disputed and value-laden one in democratic theory. Such that to some citizenship implies a set of individual rights, while for others, like the communitarian and civic republicans, it is seen as a wider set of social and civic responsibilities. More recently, others like the democrats link citizenship to the right of participation in decision-making in social, economic, cultural and political life to the nexus of basic human rights.

All in all referring to citizenship as participation . that is to say, citizenship is the representation of an expression of human action in the political arena. Broadly defined, citizenship as rights enables people to act as agents of governments which govern them (Lister 1998: p.228).

According to Gaventa (2002: p.1), the concept citizenship emerged as an area of debate in the late 1990s during which several parallel shifts took place in development, along with the concepts ~~good governance~~ Interest in the concept citizenship was boosted by increased international migrations, heightened political awareness of ethnic and cultural differences within nation-states, and fragmentation of non-states on the basis of political differences. The concept citizenship is based on three theories, i.e.:

- The liberal theory which promotes the idea that citizenship is a status which entitles individuals to a specific set of universal rights granted by the state;
- The communitarian theory based on socially embedded citizens and community: and
- The civic republican theory, defining citizenship based on peoples political identities as active citizens apart from their identities in localised communities emphasising what binds citizens together in a common identity.

These theories provide the basis on which the various definitions of the concepts are linked. For example, according to Portelli and Solomon, citizenship is simply the legal status of citizens in a country. Whereas for Gaventa (2002: p.3), citizenship is a term used to refer to an act of any person taking part in public affairs.

Citizenship is always a matter of belonging to a community, which entrains politics and rights, and has a political dimension where citizens have the capacity to determine the law through voicing their concerns. Citizenship is most commonly experienced at local levels, but it also exists at supranational levels such as in European Union (Starkey 2002: p.7).

For Giroux, the concept is defined as a historical contract between individuals and the state. In the strict sense, it concerns the integration of the individual in the political framework and the participation of citizens in the institutions of law. It is furthermore expressed in the continuing participation of individuals in the co-management of public affairs (Giroux, 1995: p.7).

Unlike citizenship, **democratic** citizenship involves much more. It involves citizens looking beyond self-interest to the larger, public interest, thereby adopting a broader and longer-term perspective that requires knowledge of public affairs and also a sense of belonging, a concern for the whole and a moral bond with the community whose fate is at stake (Denhardt and Denhardt 2000: 552). In concurrence, citizenship also demands becoming informed about issues that affect individuals and participation with others in determining how society will resolve those issues (Portelli & Solomon, 2001: p.12).

Democratic citizenship is about inclusion rather than exclusion, participation rather than marginalisation, culture and values rather than simple procedural issues (such as voting), and is about being active in shaping understandings and practices of citizenship (Starkey 2002: p.7). In terms of the education for democratic citizenship, it boils down to all those practices and activities aimed at making young people and adults better equipped to participate actively in democratic life by assuming and exercising their rights and responsibilities in society (Forrester, 1999 in Starkey 2002: p.8). To Branson (2013) democratic citizenship has two dimensions. The first dimension emphasises political engagement that encompasses both the willingness and the capability of citizens to participate effectively in self-rule. The second dimension consists of an understanding of and a commitment to the fundamental principles and processes of democracy. This thus implying, that as much as willingness to participate is important, they the citizens must be capable of understanding the factors that lead to this right of participation.

3.2.1.1 Core competencies and skills associated with democratic citizenship

According to the Council of Europe's project on Education for Democratic Citizenship in Starkey (2001: p.16), there are various core competencies and skills associated

with democratic citizenship such as: cognitive competencies; affective competencies and those connected with the choice of values; and those connected with action. These core competencies and skills are described as follows:

- **Cognitive competencies** are those of a **legal and political nature**, such as knowledge concerning the rules of collective life; knowledge of the present world including a historical dimension and a cultural dimension. Cognitive competencies also include **competencies of a procedural nature** like the ability to speak and argue, i.e. be connected with the debate; the ability to reflect; and also the ability to have knowledge of the principles and values of human rights and democratic citizenship (Starkey 2001: p.16).
- **Affective competencies and choice of values** emphasising the fact that citizenship cannot be reduced to a catalogue of rights and duties. But instead it also entails belonging to a group or to groups, thus requiring a personal and collective affective dimension (Starkey 2001: p.16).
- **Social competencies (capacities for action)** referring to the capacity to live with others, to co-operate, to construct and implement joint projects. Capacity to take on responsibilities, resolve conflicts in accordance with the principles of democratic law and, last but not least, the capacity to take part in public debate, argue and have a choice in a real-life situations (Starkey 2001: p.16).

In light of the above core competencies and skills associated with democratic citizenship, it is important to note that for the realisation of exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens by citizens that can positively influence service delivery to take place, citizen participation initiatives must reflect on these core competencies.

3.2.1.2 Citizen participation

Although often aligned or even interchangeably used to refer to democratic citizenship, citizen participation is commonly viewed as attempts to influence the formulation of public policy (Whitaker 1980: p.240). Gaventa and Valderrama on the

other hand argue that citizen participation refers to political participation but distances from it at least in two ways. Firstly, it abstracts both participation mediated by political parties, as well as the one exercised by citizens when they elect political authorities. Secondly, although citizen participation has multiple meanings, it expresses the direct intervention of social agents in public activities. Thus, citizen participation involves direct ways in which citizens influence and exercise control in governance (Gaventa and Valderrama 1999:4).

Citizen participation has not always been seen in black and white, meaning that there is more to it than meets the eye and various typologies of citizen participation have sprung up as a result. Twyman (1998 in Rahman 2005: p.3) is of opinion that participation can take place in following ways:

- **Passive participation:** whereby people participate by only listening to one-sided views on decisions that have already been made by the administering body with the information being shared belonging to the professionals. A typical example observed during court trials, even though to a certain degree this kind of participation has been witnessed in many hybrid regimes and flawed democracies. In national budget allocations, and policy announcements, i.e. the Public Order Management Bill No 3 of 2011 in Uganda which gives overly broad discretionary power to the Ugandan police to permit or disallow any "public meeting" . defined as a gathering of more than three people in a public place . where, for example, the "failure of any government, political party or political organisation" is discussed (Republic of Uganda 2011: p.5).
- **Participation in information giving:** whereby the citizens participate as mere respondents through research methods such as interviews and questionnaires. But do not have the authority to influence proceedings, as the findings of the research to problems are neither shared nor checked for accuracy. This is often observed in research projects carried out by national and international organisations in Africa on development, democracy, poverty, and HIV/Aids issues. At the end of the research

projects, the reports and recommendations are tabulated and sent to the World Bank and later seen in publications on the internet.

- **Participation by consulting people:** is the type of participation where people participating are being consulted by internal and external agents. These agents listen to the people's views and define problems and solutions as they see fit under no obligation to take on board the people's views.
- **Participation for material incentives:** referring to a scenario where people participating in order to receive something in return, for example food, cash, or other material incentives. These forms of participation are common in many African countries. For example, in Africa today with the high levels of poverty, citizens are trapped in what is known as the patron-client relationship, i.e. a mutually obligatory arrangement between an individual who has authority, social status, wealth, or some other personal resource (the patron) and another person who benefits from his or her support or influence (the client). Therefore, the patron-client relationship is where the politicians (patron) in need of patronage more than anything and the citizens (clients) in need of money or incentives to go by. On the whole, this not only makes the citizens vulnerable in impoverished areas, but it also makes them easy targets to be manipulated by the politicians using money and other material incentives in order to get voted into power.
- **Functional participation:** people participate by forming groups to meet pre-determined objectives related to the project, which can involve the development or promotion of externally-initiated social organization. Such involvement tends not to occur at the early stages of project cycles or planning, rather, only after major discussions have been made. These institutions tend to be dependent on external structures, but may become independent in time.
- **Interactive participation:** people participate in joint analysis, which leads to action plans and the formation of new local groups or the strengthening of existing ones. It also involves interdisciplinary methods that seek multiple perspectives and makes use of systematic and structured

learning processes. People also have a stake in maintaining structures or practices. Examples of this kind of participation include the participatory budgeting processes which enable citizens to work with their governments to make the budget decisions that affect their lives.

- **Self-mobilisation/active participation:** people participate by taking initiatives independent of external institutions to change systems. Such self-initiated mobilisation and collective action may or may not challenge existing distributions of wealth and power. For example, the ~~w~~walk to work+ protest campaign in Uganda that was organised by the former president of the Forum for Democratic Change Dr Kiizza Besigye in 2011. The campaign was organised as an attempt to appeal to the mass anger over the deteriorating economic and social conditions in the country (Haywood 2011: p.1).

In light of the above types of participation and with the current move to a new public service that is focused on: (a) Serving rather than steering; (b) The public interest as the aim and not the by-product; (c) The view that policies and programs meeting public needs can be most effectively and responsibly achieved through collective efforts and collaborative efforts; and (d) Public interests are better advanced by public servants and citizens who are committed to making meaningful contributions to society rather than by entrepreneurs acting as if public money was their own (Denhardt and Denhardt 2000: p.553). It is clear that democratic citizenship and citizen participation are critical elements in the administration of governments. The realisation of exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens by citizens in a country could therefore immensely contribute to the improvement in service delivery. The subsequent section will highlight the significance of democratic citizenship and citizen participation.

3.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP AND CITIZEN PARTICIPATION

First and foremost, the utmost advantage of citizen participation is that it provides the vigour and vibrancy required for democracy to flourish. Citizenship promotes legitimacy, and strengthens the civil society which in turn promotes voter

participation in elections. It is furthermore essential for inclusive growth and national ownership. Mainly due to the fact that only a strong and capable civil society can play a collaborative rather than competitive role, citizenship can be an interlocutor with governments and other partners and also play a watchdog role on development (Gebrezghi 2013: p.1). As strappingly stated by Benjamin Barber in his work entitled *Strong Democracy* (1984), governments in democratic societies are legitimate only when they have the continued support of their citizens. Whilst a society with a population that is politically ignorant, alienated and disengaged is incapable of conferring authentic democratic legitimacy and is equally incapable of holding government to account (Barber 1984 in Poley 2007: p.10).

Additionally, citizen participation leads to fitting services more accurately to local conditions and recipient demands. It also impacts on how policy preferences are formed (Duarte and Azfar 2007: p.96). As put by Keefer and Khemani, (2005: p.6; Keefer 2006: p.69), the success or failure of service provision depends heavily on the private characteristics of the service recipients . i.e. how healthy they are or how academically astute. This is to say that citizen participation and democratic citizenship derives government awareness, which helps government and policy makers to know exactly who needs what, where and when. Citizen participation also helps policy makers learn which policies are likely to be explosive or unpopular and how to avoid such policy failures. All of which are critical elements in service delivery (Whitaker 1980: p.240; Denhardt & Denhardt 2000: p.552 and Irvin & Stansbury 2004: p.56).

More so, citizen participation . especially in multiparty democracies . can vastly improve social outcomes, as balanced inputs from citizen participation allows political parties to compromise and find solutions to previously intractable problems (Reich 1990 in Irvin and Stansbury 2004: p.57).

In-terms of the education and health sectors, according to literature (Nelson 2007: p.37; 2004: p.429), citizen participation may improve parentsq and communitiesq understanding and knowledge of education and health services, encouraging them to contribute time, money or labour to support local facilities and promote accountability and better performance by health directors and staff. Participation in

schools and/or clinics can also lead to more vigorous and better-informed pressure on bureaucrats, legislators, and political leaders at all levels to improve service delivery performance (Gershberg, 2004: p.429;Nelson 2007: p.37).

Furthermore, democratic citizenship and participation strengthens beneficiary control (service providers' accountability to citizen) a critical element in service provision. This is especially true in democratic states manifested with maladministration and corruption where the institutions assigned to monitor service providers are weak and malfunctioning, and act under an incentive system that provides little incentives to effectively monitor the service providers (Bjorkman and Svensson 2007: p.2).

Citizenship also encourages people to learn how to execute their democratic rights, even on a basic level, whereby people acquire the capacities of being citizens, participating in public life, developing trust; confidence; tolerance and acceptance. These citizens thus support the decentralization of power and the creation of solidarity among citizens (Paffenholz and Spurk 2006: p.8). Moreover, given the fact that diversity in society is inevitable, citizen participation helps to bridge societal cleavages, creates civil virtues, and fosters social cohesion also satisfying the needs of individuals to develop bonds and attachments amongst each other (Paffenholz and Spurk 2006: p.8).

Conversely, citizen participation encourages on-site participation by users of welfare services, based on the belief that citizens should personally engage in shaping the services they demand. It emphasizes multi-stakeholder organizations and requires that users become co-producers of the services they require. This upholding of what is now known as 'citizen-centred service' which helps highlight the challenge of access by positioning citizen satisfaction as the criterion for success and basis on which public sector service delivery can be measured+(Pestoff 2009: p.203; Institute for Citizen-Centred Service (ICCS) 2013: Online).

Citizen participation can also lead to the creation of new collective actors, which in turn encourages the construction of new political preconceptions (Cornwall 2010: p.8), which are relevant in public policy formulation . especially in the health and education sectors that are constantly evolving, and in need of new ideas.

On the face of it all, based on the assumption that informed and involved citizens become citizen-experts, understanding technically-difficult situations and seeing holistic community-wide solutions, in-depth citizen participation helps in surpassing the barriers to effective policy-implementation (Irvin and Stansbury 2004: p.56). Also that that people cannot realize their rights to health if they cannot exercise their democratic rights to participation in decision-making around health service provision (Ferguson 1999: p.7). Not forgetting Davanraj and Windlund (2007: p.2) view that the main insight of *"making services work for poor people"* is that the pro-vision of service delivery is much beyond resources and institutional engineering. It can be deduced that indeed exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens could be a contributing factor to the effective delivery of services.

3.4 BARRIERS TO DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP AND CITIZEN PARTICIPATION

Irrespective of the positive implications attributed to democratic citizenship and citizen participation in terms of policy formulation, governance and the like, there are various obstacles deterring citizens from participating or even becoming democratic citizens. These obstacles need to be looked at closely.

3.4.1 Power relations between the citizens and government

As strongly assumed by Gaventa (2000: p.7), whatever the origin, no new space of participation is neutral, it is simply shaped by the power relations of both those who enter and those who surround it. Therefore, based on this assumption, citizen participation entails power and it is exercised by different social actors in the spaces created for the interaction between citizens and public institutions. The fact that in most democratic settings, the control of the structure and processes for participation . i.e. defining spaces, actors, agendas, procedures . are in the hands of governmental institutions, in one way or another this power of government becomes a barrier for effective involvement of citizens. That is if government is in control of decisions about the nature and structure of participatory channels at the local government, then the influence of traditional decision-making bodies in the local affairs is restricted (Gaventa 2002: p.7).

3.4.2 Participatory Skills

Seeing that progress is made from lower to higher levels of participation (information, consultation, decision-making, and management); participatory processes become more complex and demand different types of skills, knowledge, experience, leadership and managerial capabilities. Therefore, the problem of weak participatory skills at different levels hinders citizen participation and democratic citizenship. Especially if those elected at the lower level cannot push through particular issues to the national government from the grassroots (Crook and Manor 1998: p.149).

3.4.3 Absence of strong political will in democracies

Public policies may structure political participation itself, influencing the extent of individual or group mobilization and the form that mass participation takes. Implicit from participation literature (Cornwall and Gaventa 2000: p.33), support from government is a critical element for citizens to participate. That is if there is a lack of government commitment to formulate and pass policy or legislation supporting citizen participation then the level of participation will be low or non-existent. For instance, public policies, may structure political participation itself, influencing the extent of individual or group mobilization and the form that mass-participation takes.

Most profoundly, policies define the universe of participants and demand policy makers, expanding or restricting the subset of individuals who are able to engage in particular types of political action. For example, policies that bar convicted felons from voting in some countries such as in the United States (Mettler and Soss 2004: p.64).

3.4.4 Insufficient financial resources at the local level

Given the fact that in many countries, especially those whose systems of administration are still strappingly centralised, financial resources to implement development activities come mainly from two sources, i.e. central allocations and local revenues. This in itself hindering citizen participation whereby in most cases decisions on how to spend the funds comes from the top (national government) leaving little to no room for input from the local government in decision-making.

3.4.5 Conflicting theories of democratic Citizenship

Just like the lack of finances and political will can impede citizen participation and democratic citizenship, these can also be hindered by the various conflicting theories of citizenship that the leaders of governments align with. An example of a conflicting theory is the **liberal minimalism or protective democracy**, which is tied to the political philosophy of John Locke. This regarding regards democracy primarily as an instrumental means of protecting individual citizens rights to life, liberty and property encouraging a minimal role for the average citizen in the day-to-day workings of democratic governance. The ideologies that link citizenship to **public democracy** . flaunted by Rousseau and Thomas Jefferson, who visualized democratic governments as providers for the citizens . through the active judgment and elevation of the broader public interest. This ideology asserts that the legitimacy of a democracy depends solely on the on-going and active participation by a citizenry that possesses both a capacity and a propensity for critical and reasoned engagement in the public sphere (Poley 2007: p.10).

Therefore, from the above obstacles, for the successful exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens to prevail, barriers to democratic citizenship and citizen participation as stated above need to be taken into consideration in Uganda.

3.5 INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES ON PROMOTING CITIZEN PARTICIPATION / DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP

According to Gaventa (2002: p.7), since the last decade of the twentieth century, many countries have pursued new mechanisms to promote more direct citizen engagement in the processes of governance. Mechanisms ranging from the creation of new decentralised institutions, to a wide variety of participatory and consultative processes both in national and global policy deliberations. Pretentiously at least all mechanisms, preaching the importance of using such mechanisms to support inclusion of the poorest social groups, to influence policy outcomes and societal decisions highlighting countries such as Brazil, India, and Mexico, among others, as being on the forefront in trying to institutionalise citizen participation. Therefore, certain that the importance and magnitude of citizen participation towards service

delivery are inevitable, and the fact that different democratic countries are at different levels of success on the emphasis of democratic citizenship and citizen participation. To come up with a concrete solution for the lack of citizen participation and democratic citizenship in Uganda as well as a means to an end of the delivery of quality services, selected international best practices emphasising democratic citizenship/citizen participation will be discussed.

3.5.1 Participatory Budgeting

Referred to as the process by which authorities and partners involve ordinary citizens in making decisions about how local budgets are spent (CFE 2013), participatory budgeting was first introduced in the late 1980s to strengthen citizen participation in Brazil. After which it spread rather vigilantly from 12 municipalities attempting by 1982. Participatory budgeting exploded in the mid-1990s with 36 municipalities eventually adopting it between 1993 and 1996. 70 more municipalities adopted the initiative between 1997 and 2000. About 180 more municipalities adopted this process in the year 2005.

Known as *Orçamento Participativo* (OP) too many Brazilians, participatory budgeting has over the years attracted the most international attention to date amid all Brazil's innovations in democratic governance. Consequently, spreading through Latin America in the cities of Argentina, Uruguay, Peru, Ecuador and Chile and most recently, cities in other parts of the world, like Ireland, Canada, India, Uganda, South Africa and the United Kingdom. All of these countries, with a view that participatory budgeting is a means to boost citizen participation as well overcome transparency and accountability issues. Over and above being the best practice mechanism that leads to the formulation and investment in pro-poor policies, greater social consensus, and support for difficult policy reforms (Rahman 2005: p.10; Cornwall 2010: p.5; Cornwall, Romano and Shankland 2008: p.19 & Yves 2004).

Conversantly implemented in many other countries, as previously mentioned, with some remarkable results and in other countries with less remarkable results, participatory budgeting is more or less implemented under the following guiding criteria (Shah 2007: p.3).

- *“The municipality is divided into regions to facilitate meetings and the distribution of resources.*
- *Government-sponsored meetings are held throughout the year, covering different aspects of the budgeting and policy-making cycles: distribution of information, policy proposals, debates on proposals, selection of policies, election of delegates, and oversight.*
- *A “Quality of Life Index” is created by the government to serve as the basis for the distribution of resources. Regions with higher poverty rates, denser populations, and less infrastructure or government services receive a higher proportion of resources than better-off and wealthier neighbour-hoods. Each municipality devises its own formula to guarantee the equitable distribution of resources.*
- *“Public deliberation and negotiation over resources and policies take place among participants and between participants and the government.*
- *A “bus caravan of priorities” is conducted, in which elected representatives visit all preapproved project sites before the final vote. The visits allow delegates to evaluate the social needs of proposed projects.*
- *Elected representatives vote on all final projects. Voting can be done by secret ballot or through a public showing of hands. The results become part of the public record.*
- *A municipal wide council is elected. All regions elect two representatives to this council, which oversees participatory budgeting and makes final budget recommendations.*
- *The council meets regularly with the municipal government to monitor the program.”*

With all said and done, as a result of participatory budgeting, according to UNESCO 2013: online), ~~Participatory~~ Participatory budgeting has provided thousands of Brazilians with a completely new way of engaging in municipal governance. The very process of coming together in groups to gain access to the budget process viewed as one of extending the possibilities of citizenship, creating new political subjects and subjectivities. At first sight, participatory budgeting offering a solution to a whole

range of democratic deficit.+For instance, using Porto Alegre in Brazil as a case in point, with the introduction of participatory budgeting, the city's sewer and water connections went from 75% of the total households in 1988 to 98% in 1997. The health and education budget increased from a mere 13% in 1985 to a whopping 40% in 1996. Whilst in terms of participation, the numbers of citizens engaging in the participatory budgeting grew from less than 1,000 per year in 1990 to more 16,000 in 1998 and to 40,000 in 1999. Additionally, the numbers of children enrolled in public school doubled, whereas 30 kilometres of roads were paved in the poorer neighbourhoods annually. Plus a further increase in municipal revenue by about 50 per cent due to transparency affecting motivation to pay taxes (Goncalves 2009:2; Social Development Notes 2003: p.3; Rahman 2005: p.11; UNESCO 2013; Novy and Leubolt 2005: p.206).

Elsewhere in Brazil for example in Recife city, the introduction of participatory budgeting in 1993 also contributed to high and increasing levels of popular participation. The number of people taking part in local OP meetings rose from 27,000 in 2001 to 42,000 in 2003. This observed in citizen preferences whereby the amounts invested in projects closely reflected the preferences of the voters, with many voting on local drainage activities, paving or improving roads, housing, securing hillsides against slippage, sewage and basic sanitation, health, education, sports, economic development or social services as main priorities (Goncalves 2009: p.19; Best, Brabender, Koop, Spink and Teixeira 2011: p.11).

Additionally, participatory budgeting in this Recife city also created a new platform for new actors in the city's political process by shifting the rules of representation that had initially been institutionalised (Cornwall, Romano and Shankland 2008: p.22; Cornwall 2010: p.5). Whilst, according to Best *et al.* (2011: p.11), participatory budgeting in Recife also led to a better distribution of public funds depicted in the increasing number of public works projects completed in the lower Human Development Index HDI areas than in the higher ones. Indicating a straight line-correlation in terms of funds deployed, as well as the investment budget as a whole contributing to reversing past trends of unequal territorial degradation and unequal opportunities for improvement.

Furthermore, with the introduction of participatory budgeting, Recife city was able to hit a landmark high in terms of inclusion whereby, with the total number of 1 560000 people occupying the city in 2009, the total number of territory-based delegates was 2,035 (an average of some 113 delegates per micro region), with 446 thematic delegates (approximately 50 per forum) all-in-all attaining the result of a 1-to-600 ratio of delegates-to-inhabitants (Best *et.al.* 2011: p.12).

Altogether, these achievements in one way or another boosting Brazil's human development dimensions between the years 1980q when participatory budgeting was first initiated, up to date.

To illustrate, according to the Human Development Index (HDI), Brazil in general based on the composite measure of three basic dimensions of human development: health, education and income: between 1980, the period when participatory budgeting was initiated, and 2012, Brazil's HDI value has risen by 1.2% annually from 0.522 to 0.730 today, giving the country a rank of 85 out of 187 countries (HDI 2013). See **Table 1** below for figures on Brazil's Human Development Index representing three dimensions (Health, Education and Income) from 1980 to 2012.

TABLE 1: BRAZIL'S HDI TRENDS 1980-2012

	Life expectancy at birth	Expected years of schooling	Mean years of schooling	GNI per capita (2005 PPP\$)	HDI value
1980	62.5	9.9	2.6	7,317	0.522
1985	64.4	11.1	3.2	6,756	0.557
1990	66.3	12.2	3.8	6,978	0.590
1995	68.3	13.3	4.6	7,608	0.633
2000	70.1	14.2	5.6	7,688	0.669
2005	71.6	14.2	6.6	8,270	0.699
2010	73.1	14.2	7.2	9,911	0.726
2011	73.5	14.2	7.2	10,086	0.728
2012	73.8	14.2	7.2	10,152	0.730

Source: *Human Development Report (2013: p.2)*

3.5.2 Citizen Councils

Seen as an international best practice, based on the successful mobilisation by the health reform movement (*movimento pela reforma sanitária*) that demanded for the insertion of the principles of *controle social* in the 1988 Constitution (Cornwall 2010: p.2). Brazil also initiated an extensive network of social policy management councils in the areas of health and education i.e. health councils, education councils and wealth councils. These structured in a unique way and mandated with various responsibilities. For instance according to literature (Coelho 2004: p.34 Coelho, Cornwall & Shankland 2013: p.1; Cornwall 2007: p.8 and Cornwall 2010: p.2), each of the councils was mandated responsibilities in formulating and managing policy for different areas such as education, health and welfare.

Set up at all levels, from local to federal, in accordance with a principle of parity between representatives of civil society (who occupy 50 per cent of the seats) on the one hand and on the other hand, representatives of government and service providers. Every single council comprised of people representing a spectrum of civic

associations, such as: churches, women-, black-, disabled- and lesbian-, gay-, bisexual- and transsexual- movements, unions, non-governmental organisations, neighbourhood associations and more. Responsible not only for taking government projects to the population, but also for taking suggestions from the population to the various levels of government: municipal, state and federal (Coelho 2004: p.34). Additionally, these councils were also mandated to make decisions; act as consultative bodies and exercise oversight functions; approve annual plans and budgets. Over and above assisting municipal departments with planning, establishing priorities and auditing accounts, plus, because the major proportion of the funds transferred by the Federal Government to municipalities is channelled through a fund-to-fund transfer system, the councils were also directed to verify the accounts and notify of any irregularities.

These councils not only boosted citizen participation in health . more precisely, the immense constantly active contingent of personnel who comprise the councils and attend municipal state and national health conferences. The councils also tremendously reshaped the entire health system (Modesto, Costa and Bahia 2013: p.10). For example, by 1990, as a result of the existence of the citizen councils, initiatives like the Family Health Program came to light spreading through Brazil and, by 2004, the program had been instigated in 82% of Brazil's 5561 municipalities, covering about 40% of the country's total national population (Aquino, de Olivera and Barreto 2009: p.88).

The program targeting the provision of basic healthcare services through the use of professional healthcare teams directly intervening at the family/community level. In addition to providing health counselling, and orientation related to recovery, and advice for fighting frequent diseases like diarrhoea and for overall health protection in the community (Roha and Soares 2009: p.5; Rocha and Soares 2009: p.5). All in all this explaining Brazil's tremendously improved sanitation infrastructure, where the improvements in the sanitation provision ranged from simple but protected pit latrines to flush toilets with a sewerage connection correctly constructed and properly maintained. Moreover within a period of 7 years (2003-2010) Brazil managed to suffice the world average percentage and above other countries like Uganda. Such that in the year 2010, Brazil was at 85.0%, above the world percentage of 79.2%; as

well as above countries like Peru (82%), Columbia (82%), Uganda (35%), China (74%) and India (58%) (World Bank Data Base 2013b: Online). See **Table 2** below reflecting the improvement in sanitation facilities in urban areas in Brazil from 2003 to 2010 as compared to other countries that have also recognised municipal councils as means of promoting citizen participation.

TABLE 2: Percentage of Urban Population with access to Improved Sanitation Facilities

Name	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Brazil	83	83	83	84	84	84	84	85
Uganda	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34
Peru	78	78	78	79	79	80	80	82
Colombia	81	81	81	81	82	82	82	82
India	56	56	56	57	57	57	58	58

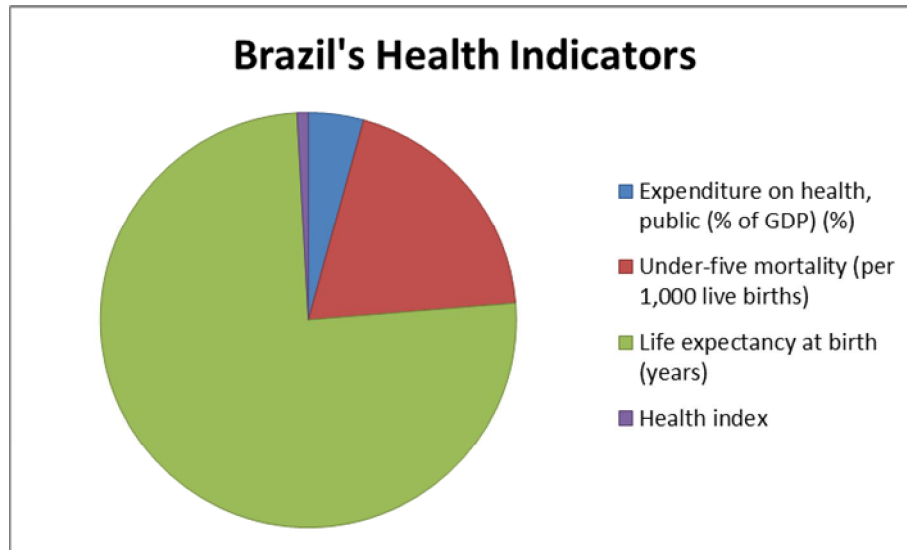
Source: Self-compiled using 2010 World Bank data base figures

Still with regards to health, the introduction of municipal councils especially in an area like Cabo de Santo Agostinho city in Brazil. Irrespective of the fact that the city is one of the most poverty stricken areas in Brazil, the city's successes in administration through the help of health councils, in the area of primary health care also improved tremendously. Case in point, since inception of the health municipal councils, the Cabo de Santo Agostinho city was able to reduce its infant mortality rates from 42 per 1000 live births to just over 10 per 1000 live births. A reduction less than half the national average of 20 per 1000 live births and two thirds below the rate of the North East as a whole between 1996 and 2006 (Cornwall, Romano & Shankland 2008: p.26).

This not only benefitting the city of Cabo de Santo Agostinho but also contributed positively to Brazil's health indicators as a whole . especially in the under-five

mortality (per 1,000 live births) which stood at 19 with life expectancy at birth standing at 73 and health index standing on 0.847 altogether by the year 2012. See illustration in **figure 3**

FIGURE 3: BRAZIL'S HEALTH INDICATORS 2012



Source: Human Development Indicators (2012) Database

Elsewhere, in the Latin American cities such as Peru where the municipal councils were implemented locally referred to as Local Coordination Councils (CCL), and Local Auto-government Council. According to the Evidence and Lessons from Latin America (ELLA) (2013: p.5), in 2007, the Local Self-government Council in the Peruvian city of Santa Rosa, Puno, composed of 93% of civil society representatives. The Local self-government council participated in the implementation of a capacity development plan that led to the creation of the Decent Housing Programme (DHP), this initiative benefiting 25,000 families and creating 15 virtual classrooms clearly depicting the increased levels of citizen engagement or citizen participation at its most elaborate.

Furthermore, in Bolivia, where the councils are known as the Local Economic Development Commission (CODEL), remarkable results were observed in areas of health and education service delivery (Evidence and lessons from Latin America (ELLA) 2013: p.2). For instance, according to literature on citizen involvement in Latin America, the towns of San Ignacio and La Guardia were also regarded as

success stories in the areas of administration and boasting local development. For example, under the umbrella of the Local Economic Development Plan, the La Guardia municipality increased the number of its companies enabling the municipality to obtain resources necessary for implementation of social programmes. The municipality gained 100% of the budgeted programmes within its borders that originally relied on funding from the central government. Additionally, with the help of the councils, the municipality was also able to completely take on the originally-national Service to Children Programme (Programa de Atención a los Niños y Niñas . PAN) and establish 21 Children Centres by year 2011.

On the whole, the above clearly depicting the importance of increased levels of citizen engagement in Peru, Brazil and Bolivia. This justified by in the increase in figures on the level of citizen confidence in municipalities as compared to other low- and high-income countries illustrated by the United Nations International Human Development Index. An element that is clearly indicative that the level of emphasizing and formulation of citizen councils is indeed one, amongst others, a stepping stone for exercising democratic rights and obligations, besides being a vital element to bottom-up policy development.

3.5.3 Citizen report cards

Citizen report cards (CRCs), referred to as public accountability mechanisms based on citizen surveys of the performance and quality of government services that allow citizens to monitor state performance (World Bank 2013), characterised by:

- Providing quantitative information from the perspective of public service users that can help government agencies make changes and improve service;
- Assisting in prioritizing reform efforts and allocating public resources;
- Aggregating and communicating poor people's realities to government officials, decision-makers, and the public; and
- Fostering voice, discussion, and debate; and building demand for reform by treating users of public services as clients or customers whose voices matter in the design, delivery, and assessment of government services.

Correspondingly also referred to by Reinikka, Svensson and Winter (2006: p.4) as tools used to collect feedback from the users and potential users of public services for dissemination of information back to the citizens/users. Citizen report cards ensure that reliable information about how neighbourhood/community at large view the quality and efficacy of service delivery is communicated so that comparisons can be made on service delivery in their neighbourhood vis-à-vis other neighbourhoods in their city, larger metropolitan area, or across other cities or municipalities, or even in the country at large. Citizen report cards are made up of three components (Reinikka *et.al* 2006:4), namely:

- collecting quantitative information from users (citizens) and service providers, using micro survey techniques;
- assembling this information in ~~easy~~ easy access/comprehensible report cards; disseminating the report cards to users and providers and providing them with practical information on how best to use this information; and
- implementing repeat user and provider surveys to assess impact on service delivery outcomes.

For example according to the Water and Sanitation Programme (WSP) 2010, citizen report cards are simple but powerful tools that provide public agencies with systematic feedback from users. Such that for citizen report cards to be successful, eight stages must be followed these notably:

- one must first and foremost assess the applicability of the CRCs by looking at general environment of the country or setting;
- determine the scope and the plan of procedures through identification of the sectors to be included in the survey;
- design the questionnaire putting in mind the focus group;
- determine the appropriate type of sampling design;
- execute the survey, first by training the survey personnel, performing a random spot-monitoring of question sessions, and, upon completion of each interview, critically analyse information collected for inconsistency;
- analyse data;
- determine results; and the findings can then be used in an advocacy program that seeks to increase public pressure.

First pioneered by a citizen group called the Public Affairs Centre, the citizen report card was implemented in Bangalore, India in 1993 in response to concerns about the quality of public services. Since then, the so called citizen report card has spread and is currently being used countrywide in India as well as in other countries, including Ukraine, the Philippines, Canada, Denmark, Ghana, Sweden, the United Kingdom, as well as the United States to assess the performance of agencies (World Bank Website 2013; UN 2007: pp.87-88; Joshin 2010: p.9; Paul 2005b: p.9; Paul 2005b: p.1).

Although citizen report cards have over the years been implemented in other countries, different results have been recorded. For example, in Bangalore where this initiative emanated from, according to a UN report, not only did public satisfaction with services improve, but the incidences of reported corruption declined tremendously (UN 2007: pp.87-88). For instance, according to Thampi (2005: p.13), the introduction of citizen report cards placed pressure on service providers by availing information on their performance from the citizen's perspective on top of the naming and shaming of poor performers. This not only improved performances in the various public sector service providers, but also created a platform for competition permitting inter-agency comparisons. But also allowed for situations where apathetic public agencies listen and react to citizen concerns.

For instance, the once worst-rated agency in Bangalore, known as the Bangalore Development Agency, after the release of the citizen report cards survey, it was forced to hold public forums, review its internal systems for service delivery, and introduced reforms to solve high-priority problems. While the Bangalore Water Supply and Sewerage Board and the Bangalore Electrical Company formalized periodic dialogues with household consumer associations and NGOs such as Public Affairs Centre to redress grievances (World Bank 2003: p.3). The problems in the bill and collection system were revised with the agencies extending their working hours and even opening their office over weekends. Likewise, to lessen cases linked to over-billing and incorrect billing, the Bangalore Water Supply and Sewerage Board set up the water "adats" courts in all the 17 divisions of Bangalore Water Supply and Sewerage Board in the City of Bangalore (Thampi 2005: p.15).

Needless to mention, according to the World Bank Report, for the first time in the city's history, the chief minister started responding to persistent citizen demands expressed through the CRCs, the media and the NGOs to make service providers perform better (more efficiently with less corruption) and be more accountable (through citizen charters). The new Chief Minister of Karnataka formed the Bangalore Agenda Task Force (BATF) in 1999 consisting of prominent city residents tasked to come up with suggestions for improving the city's quality of services and infrastructure, and, thus, rejuvenating the city. This led to the introduction of a system to self-assess property taxes bringing about transparency, speed and simplicity to an otherwise corrupt and arbitrary process (World Bank 2003: p.5; Paul 2005a: p.4).

Furthermore, with the introduction of citizen report cards, the City of Bangalore also experienced an increase in the number of public advocacy groups. That is from 20 advocacy groups in the period when the first report card was initiated in 1994 to over 200 in the year 2000. Advocacy groups such as; the neighbourhood groups (resident associations) focusing on one part of the city with direct interest in the agencies performances and the city-wide NGOs dealing with specific service-related issues (Thampi 2005: p.14; World Bank 2003: p.4). Similarly to the neighbourhood group was the establishment of one of the prominent ventures . the Swabhimana Initiative (Self-esteem) . A Citizen-State Forum for a Clean, Green, and Safe Bangalore consisting of informal network of city officials and nongovernmental groups who met on a periodic basis to resolve priority problems, conducting several consultations with municipal corporation officials and resident groups on a range of issues (World Bank 2003: p.6; Paul 2005b: p.10; Ahmand 2008: p.15; Kurigan, Bailure, Gigler and Park 2013: p.24).

3.5.4 The Public Expenditure Tracking Survey (PETS)

Referred to a quantitative survey of the supply side of public services, initiated to collect information on Health facility characteristics, financial flows, outputs (services delivered), and accountability arrangements. The study had the aim of using the results to serve as a powerful, simple diagnostic tool in areas where reliable data is non-existent. By tracing the flow of resources from origin to destination and by

determining the location and scale of inconsistencies in order to highlight not only the use and abuse of public money, but also giving insights into cost efficiency, decentralization and accountability. The public expenditure tracking survey (PETS), initiative was first introduced in Uganda in 1996 to track the expenditure and use of funds budgeted for schools and clinics (Dehn, Renikka & Severson 2003: p.194; World Bank Website 2013). Thereafter, the system was implemented by other countries, including Ghana, Honduras, Papua New Guinea, Peru, Rwanda, Tanzania and Zambia (Dehn, Renikka & Severson 2003: p.201).

However, like other micro-level surveys, such as the citizen report cards (CRCs), PETS also requires careful design and implementation with at least one member on the team with proper experience on the PETS. Therefore, for the PETS to be successfully implemented, according to Dehn, Reinikka and Severson (2003: p.196), the following steps below have to be followed:

- The survey team needs to extensively consult with the country stakeholders such as the government departments/ministries (at all spheres), donor funding agencies, NGOs and civil society organisations amongst others to choose available survey tool;
- Promptly assess data to find out the availability of records at the various spheres of government and in the private sector;
- Design a suitable questionnaire that is cross-cutting through sectors keeping in mind six core elements (the characteristics of the facility, inputs and outputs, quality, financing, institutional mechanisms, and accountability) to ensure that the data collected can be comparable to data collected by other sources;
- Pilot the questionnaire and then train the enumerators as well as their supervisors;
- Compile data and verify results; and
- Analyse, report and widely disseminate results to encourage debate and discussion to facilitate the alleviation of the problems highlighted in the survey.

Like the other best practices discussed earlier, the PETS initiative was a success in Uganda . especially in the area of basic education. According to literature (Dehn, Renikka & Severson 2003: p.202), after the initiation of the PETS survey in 1996, between 1996 and 2001, primary school enrolment in Uganda rose from 3.6 million students to 6.9 million; whilst the share of funds reaching schools increased from 20% in 1995 to 80% in 2001. The initiative also created some form of awareness through the media, as well as schools (who self-instigated some form of awareness) in turn increasing parent participation. Especially during the period when the central government launched a mass information campaign requiring newspapers and radio stations to publish data on monthly transfers of grants to districts, in addition to urging primary schools and district authorities to post notices on all inflows of funds (Dehn, Renikka & Severson 2003: p.202).

Away from Uganda were the PETS initiative was carried out for example in Zambia. After the PETS introduction, more than 90% of all schools received their rule-based non-wage allocations, and 95% of teachers received their salaries as compared to the years before the PETS survey was initiated (Dehn, Renikka & Severson 2003: p.203). This clearly depicted the relevance of awareness and citizen participation . especially when it came to the allocation and use of public funds.

In line with the best practices above, it can be deduced that community and civil society support and involvement are indispensable when it comes to planning, managing, and building up an attractive and efficient service delivery system. However, it should be born in mind that for participation of citizens to take place, they, the citizens, must have all the adequate information required for participation, they must be willing to participate, they must be active in society, and they must be effective in society. Therefore, given that most of the above discussed international best practices bare critical elements for citizen participation or democratic citizenship, it can be hypothesised that for successful service delivery to prevail in Uganda, in a transparent and corruption-free environment focusing on the delivery of services to those that need them most. The government then should not only re-adopt the above best practices, but should also educate the citizens in order for them to be able to actively, willingly and effectively exercise their democratic rights and obligations for better service delivery.

3.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, what this chapter reveals clearly is that irrespective of the level of poverty, income and Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The delivery of quality services requires efficient and effective community engagement through exercising democratic rights and citizen participation in the planning and formulation of public policies; development of community strategies and plans; administration of government agencies; formulation of organisations and networks that enable more inclusive and empowered forms of participation; and, lastly, citizens who are aware of the fact that with citizenship comes obligations. As demonstrated by countries like India, Brazil, Peru and Bolivia, the delivery of services to those that need them most is not impossible, although it is not an easy task. Therefore, with this in mind, it can be inferred that for effective service delivery to be realized in Uganda, the country must consider adopting the above best practices only after the citizens have been educated and trained on what exactly it means to be a democratic citizen as a way of equipping the citizens with the knowledge and capacity to participate. The following chapter will highlight the state of democracy, service delivery and citizen participation in Uganda.

CHAPTER 4: DEMOCRACY, CITIZEN PARTICIPATION AND SERVICE DELIVERY IN UGANDA

4. INTRODUCTION

Democracy, the exercising of democratic rights and obligations of citizens (citizen participation) and service delivery are three thought-provoking notions . especially in the current global setting. According to the democratic governance and development advocates, it is widely hypothesised that citizen participation translates into effective representation and empowerment, in turn positively boosting service delivery and rural development (Blair 2000: p.23; Narayan 2002: p.14; Fox and Meyer 1995: p.20). Similarly, by engaging citizens and civil society in monitoring government performance, can be expected to enhance and complement government's performance monitoring systems, improve service delivery, improve programme effectiveness, improve public expenditure efficiency, and strengthen institutions, processes and systems (Republic of South Africa 2013: p.2). Moreover, if citizens become actively involved as participants in their democracies it is hypothesised that the governance that emerges from the process will be more democratic and more effective (Irvin and Stansbury 2004: p.55).

So, although the truthfulness of all the above mentioned inferences may be beyond this chapter, the truth of the matter is citizen participation is indeed an integral component in public policy formulation, implementation and monitoring and evaluation. Given the fact that the overall aim of the study is to investigate the role of exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens in enhancing public service delivery in Uganda, this chapter will probe into the current state of democracy, citizen participation and public service delivery in Uganda.

4.1 DEMOCRACY IN UGANDA: AN OVERVIEW

Situated in East Africa, Uganda is bordered on the east by Kenya, on the north by Southern Sudan, on the west by the Democratic Republic of Congo, on the southwest by Rwanda and on the south by Tanzania. The southern part of the country is covered by a substantial portion of Lake Victoria, which is also shared between Kenya, and Tanzania.

With an estimated population of over 34,260,000, Uganda takes its name from the Buganda kingdom, which is the largest kingdom in Uganda covering a large portion in the south of the country including the capital city Kampala.

Operating in a unitary system of governance with a presidential political system, Uganda also has a typical decentralised local government. Facilitated by a five-tier pyramidal system of local councils and, administratively, with 132 districts including one city sharing a common structure. Each district divided into 151 counties, 911 sub-counties, 5,500 parishes and 45, 5000 villages. The local government structure, districts and sub-counties form the rural local governments, while the municipalities, municipal divisions and town councils constitute what is known as the urban local governments. The local government system is organized in five tiers with the top-most Local Council (LC) providing a link between local and central government authorities. The five-tier LC system made up of (Local Government Act of 1997):

- District . LC5;
- County . LC4;
- Sub-county . LC3;
- Parish . LC2; and
- Village . LC1.

Such that at the Local Council 1(village level), the body is constituted by all Uganda citizens of 18-years-old residing in that area. Hence, at this level, every citizen in the village is a councillor, and, through village meetings, people are able to maintain contact with their locally elected leaders. At the very top . that is the Local Council 5 (District council) . is where all councillors meet that is councillors drawn from the respective lower local governments. It is also at this level that all issues of local importance within a particular district are discussed. Currently, there are over 81 district councils, each with its own composition of lower local councils as well as administrative councils. Memberships to these councils, varies from district to district because the number of councillors is linked to the number of electoral areas (JARD 2004).

Furthermore, according to article 179 of the Constitution and the Local Government Act of 1997, Local Government Councils are categorized into two. Those which are corporate legal entities (LC5 and LC3), and can sue and be sued; and those that are purely administrative (LC4, LC2 and LC1) (Makerere Institute of Research 2008: p.14).

Nonetheless, despite the well-articulated decentralised structure, unlike other African countries, democracy deficit is more clearly illustrated in Uganda . especially during most of the post-colonial period. For instance, in the run-up to independence, the colonial government legislative council elections organised in 1958 were boycotted by the Buganda kingdom demanding special recognition within the state. The 1967 elections never materialised due to the 1967 coup d'état where the first prime minister of independent Uganda, Milton Obote, attacked the royal palace of Buganda and declared himself executive president. Later in 1971, the voting that was scheduled was also disrupted by the military coup of General Idi Amin Dada who overthrew Milton Obote's first regime. This taking Uganda to a total dictatorial phase where Idi Amin ruled as blood was shed and the economy was being shattered. Moreover as he tightened his grip on power, the intellectuals fled, and the army was converted into desolate beasts unleashed on the people. Over and above, the decapitated bodies found all over the place with rumours that Amin addressed the heads of his victims in a bid to keep the ghosts at bay.

In 1972, as if the terror was not enough, Uganda witnessed the worst kind of human rights injustice where the Asians that were residing in Uganda at the time were given 72 hours to leave the country by Idi Amin. This going on until Amin's reign was terminated by the invasion of The People's Defence Forces (TPDF), in alliance with Ugandan exiles (Kiiza, Makara and Rakner 2008: p.2; Ssewakiryanga 2013: p.1).

To further deter democracy in Uganda, between 1979 and 1985, after Amin's reign, although many had hoped for democracy, it was still not the case. For example, the proposed 1980 elections by Milton Obote's second reign (Obote II) not only neglected the principles of democracy but also ruled out the possibility of political change by peaceful means. In that the seats in parliament were taken unopposed by the Uganda People's Congress (UPC) led by Obote through manipulation,

intimidation and arrests to stop opponents from registering their nominations. Moreover the electoral commission was made up of self-confessed UPC supporters. This plunged Uganda's democracy into more chaos and by 1985, as Tito Okello took over parts of the country overthrowing the then Obote II government, he instead turned Uganda into a merely Hobbesian state where life became short, nasty, ruthless and cheap (Kabwegyere 2000: p.22).

Nonetheless, amidst all these hindrances to democracy, Uganda raised back from the ashes and by 1986, under the rule of the National Resistance Movement (NRM), talk about democracy resurfaced. For instance, the 10-point programme was introduced, also known as the NRM mandate with the first initiative urging for the restoration of democracy at all levels of government . from the villages up to national level . through elections of members to parliament as shown in Chapter 1.

Following this landmark return of democracy to Uganda, by 1994, the Constituent Assembly promulgated a new constitution for the Republic of Uganda identifying, among other provisions (Kabwegyere 2000: p.23):

- The limits, authority and responsibilities of the various organs of the state;
- The rights and responsibilities of individuals;
- Inter-relations and interdependence; and
- The provision for key democracy-promotion institutions, i.e. the inspector General of government (IGG), the Auditor General, and the Electoral Commission.

In 2005, the NRM government, after passing a referendum, re-introduced a multi-party democratic system in 2006. This multi-party democratic system guided by various pieces of legislation such as the Electoral Commission Act, 1997; The Presidential Elections Act, 2000; The Parliamentary Election Act, 2005; The Local Government Act, 1997; Referendum Act, 1994; Access to Information Act, 2005; and the Electronic Media Act, 2005 (African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) 2008: pp.90-115; Odonga 2010: p.30). This then followed by the emphasis of a decentralised system of government.

Thereafter was the devolution of governmental functions and powers to the people at appropriate levels where they could manage and direct their own affairs, such as recruiting and disciplining employees by the district service commission on behalf of the district and the urban authorities (African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) 2008: pp.90-115; Kisembo 2006: pp.16-10).

Nevertheless, irrespective of the above initiatives, Uganda is still seen as a hybrid regime whereby democracy, to some has been seen as a tricky subject due to the enigmatic nature of the existing political regime. Many individuals with questions on whether NRM government has created a novel form of popular democracy that is competitive and responsive enough, whether NRM is an authoritarian one-party state in disguise, or whether it is a partially hybrid political regime that is democratic in some sectors (like a free press) but undemocratic in others (like the party system) (Bratton *et al.* 2000: p.3). For example, the removal of presidential term limits in every perspective has had very grave implications for democracy and good governance. This removal of presidential term limit has gone on to be described as a sanction of executive dictatorship and the creation of a life presidency. As we as a process of incremental despotism, with the rulers keen at concentrating power in the presidency with imposing trappings violating the doctrine of separation of powers as a safeguard against authoritarianism (Mbazira 2008: p.29).

As stated in **Chapter 2**, democracies are not just anything that goes forms of government. This implying democracy is not just having elections, a constitution or even courts of law. Democracy is much more than the few above mentioned elements. Democracy is with various elements attached to it and is also a cornerstone on which citizen participation can take place. Therefore, in light of this argument, to examine the current state of democracy in Uganda, the essential features that distinguish democracy from other non-democratic forms of government will be used. These essential features are: Electoral processes and pluralism, separation of powers, transparency and accountability, political culture and civil liberties.

4.1.1 Electoral processes and pluralism

Elections are one of the ways through which citizens are able to participate in the decision-making that governs them and citizen participation is one of the facets of a free democratic society (HURINET 2011). Furthermore, electoral freedom is the ability of the people to freely express their will, determine their political status, and choose their representatives without coercive pressure (Sekagya 2010: p.4). In Uganda, the right to vote and to be voted for is guaranteed under articles 38 and 59 of the Uganda Constitution (1995) which provides for universal suffrage for all citizens over the age of 18 (Sekagya 2010: p.4).

Uganda has had regular elections from the grassroots to the highest office (presidency) with high levels of contestation (Mattes *et al.* 2010: p.10). However, like many other African countries, Uganda has been faced by a number of electoral challenges. In that, according to the AFRO Barometer survey, there is a tremendously low trust in the Electoral Commission with only 42% of the populace trusting the electoral commission. The majority of Ugandans have considerable reservations about political parties with 64% believing that multi-party competition can lead to violent conflict and a majority (61%) thinking that opposition parties or supporters are silenced by government (AFRO Barometer 2012: p.1).

For authors like Sekagya (2010: p.6), the practical application of Uganda's electoral laws does not comply with the legislative mandate . especially when it comes to the media freedom; and the freedoms of assembly, association and participation. This, for one, attributed to the legislation process and the laws passed by government, i.e. the amendment of Article (105)2 of the Constitution approving a no-term limit for the presidency stating that: "a person may be elected under the constitution to hold office as president for one or more terms" (Republic of Uganda 1995). The Public Order Management Bill No 3 of 2011 now Public Order Management Act of 2013. The same Act which gives overly broad discretionary power to the Ugandan police to permit or disallow any "public meeting" . defined as a gathering of more than three people in a public place . where, for example, the "failure of any government, political party or political organisation" is discussed (Republic of Uganda 2011: p.5; Republic of Uganda 2013:p.6).

4.1.2 Separation of powers

Referring to the organising of government where the power of the three branches of government, i.e. the legislature, executive and the judiciary, is separated and balanced rather than concentrated in only one branch of government as discussed in **Chapter 2**. In Uganda, this element of democracy is clearly provided for in Chapters 6, 7 and 8 of the 1995 Constitution. Whereby article 128(1 and 2), in particular, states that in the exercise of judicial power, the courts shall be independent and shall not be subject to the control or direction of any person or authority. No person or authority shall interfere with the courts or judicial officers in the exercise of their judicial functions. But then again, like many other countries in Africa and the world, the practice of this doctrine in Uganda has been more of a myth than a reality with a tendency to concentrate the three powers of government in the hands of the executive. This is prevalent in some of the government's laws that have passed over the years without a clear regard for the rights and obligations of the opposition political parties, civil society and the citizens. These namely: the Public Order Management Bill No. 3 of 2011 in Uganda now the Public Order management Act of 2013, and the Regulation of Interception of Communications Act of 2007, which authorises the tapping of telephones and other private communication for security purposes to many known as the Phone Tapping Act (Olum 2010: p.64; New Vision 2011: Online).

Added to this is the appointment of judges . also known as ~~political judges~~ in the high courts and constitutional courts appointed by the government to ensure that decisions are supportive of the ruling party literally going against article 128(2) of the Constitution of Uganda. Furthermore, the influence of the regime into the affairs of independent institutions, where on the 16 November 2005 the High Court was invaded by gun-wielding security agents known as the Joint Anti-Terrorist Team (JATT), a unit formed to fight terrorism. Who invaded the court with the intention to re-arrest and deliver to the Court Martial suspected rebels facing treason charges if and when released on bail (Mbazira 2008: p.36).

What is more, some MPs in Uganda are also cabinet ministers, which are clearly remnants of fusion of roles of the executive (cabinet) and parliament, whilst, the president is also the head of the state, the government, and the armed forces . all in all refuting the principles of separation of powers of government (Olum 2010: p.64;

APRM 2009: p.41; Ruger 2013). Moreover, although article 208(2) bars the army from participating in politics with a caveat that men-in-uniform shall be non-partisan, nationalistic in character, patriotic, professional, and subordinate to civilian authority. The same Constitution allows the UPDF (The Uganda Peoples Defence Force) to elect army representatives to Parliament (Republic of Uganda 1995:136).

4.1.3 Civil liberties

According to the Africa Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) (2009: xxxvii), there has been undeniable progress in civil liberties since the NRM came to power in 1986 under the leadership of Yoweri Museveni. For instance, the regime change which was hailed across the globe, brought peace and security across Uganda, except in some areas in the North, by reconstituting a failing and fragile state. It rejuvenated an economy that had withered and to a large extent safeguarded the true principles of human rights by promoting press freedom and putting an end to the human rights abuses of earlier governments. This entrenched in the constitution of the Republic of Uganda, spelling out a number of freedoms to the people and obligations that ought to be performed by the citizens. Over and above the governments signatory to a number of international and regional instruments that protect and promote civil rights like the International Covenant on Economic Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) and the African Charter of Human and Peoples Rights (ACHPR) (2009: p.72).

Nevertheless, just like the separation of powers and the electoral process, Uganda continues to receive a number of criticisms in relation to civil liberties . especially in instances where the government is continuously denying citizens some of the freedoms that have been provided for in the constitution. For example, despite the fact that articles 29(d) and 38 of the 1995 Uganda Constitution uphold the right to form and join associations and influence policy through civic organisation. On June 6, 2002 the President of Uganda assented to the Political Parties and Organisation Act (PPOA) of 2002, which regulates political party activities and restricts free and fair political participation.

Furthermore, in 2011, the government acquiesced to the Public Order Management Bill No 3 of 2011 now the Public Order Management Act of 2013, giving power to the

police to permit or disallow any "public meeting" . defined as a gathering of more than three people in a public place. This shrinking the democratic space for expression of divergent views denying the citizens the right to freedom of assembly (HURINET-U 2011; Republic of Uganda 2011: p.5).

Adding to this, on June 18, 2012, with orders from the Minister of Ethics, police in Uganda raided and broke up a three-day meeting organised by the Eastern Horn Human Rights Defender's project specifically for the gay community in the East African region. This followed by the 2009 anti-homosexuality bill now the Anti-Homosexuality Act of 2014 that seeks to criminalise same-sex relationships proposing stiff penalties for homosexuals from 14 years to life in jail (All-Africa.com 2012). Likewise, on the June 22, 2013, the Ugandan Police raided the Kampala offices of the *Daily Monitor* . an independent, daily newspaper with the motto %Truth Everyday+ . and *Red Pepper*, a tabloid popular with many Ugandans. Two radio stations were also taken off the air. All this was to retrieve a letter written by General David Sejusa (a former comrade of the president), claiming that President Yoweri Museveni is grooming his son, Brigadier Kainerugaba Muhoozi, to take over from him when his term ends in 2016, and investigations were underway into attempts "to assassinate people who disagree with this so-called family project of holding on to power in perpetuity" (Miesen 2013: Online).

4.1.4 Political culture

Political culture refers to the broad pattern of values and attitudes that individuals and societies hold towards political institutions, branches of governments, political parties and pressure groups. It shapes the political system and creates norms . beliefs about how people should behave, and how the ideal government should function.

According to *The Economist* (2010: p.31), a democratic political culture is crucial for the legitimacy, smooth functioning and ultimately the sustainability of democracy. And a culture of passivity and dispiritedness, an obedient and docile citizenry, are not consistent with democracy. In Uganda, despite the above elucidated challenges towards democracy. In reference to electoral processes and pluralism, civil liberties

and separation of powers, political culture of the populace is somewhat sub-standard characterised by a culture of passivity, dispiritedness and unassuming citizenry tied up in a ~~wait~~ wait and see+status quo. To date, many of the rich/upper classes of the population are silent towards Uganda's dysfunctional government while those in the private sector have been brought into the fold through state contracts, tenders, land give-aways, backdoor cash payments, and tax exemptions, amongst others (Muwenda 2011: Online). The majority of the population believes Uganda is a full democracy with minor problems. This is clearly depicted in the 2012 AFRO barometer survey whereby 52% of Ugandans think that Uganda is a full democracy or a democracy with minor problems. A slight majority (51%) of Ugandans are also satisfied with the way democracy works in their country. Looking at specific components of democracy, 64% of Ugandans feel that the previous (2011) elections were largely free and fair. An overwhelming majority (86%) feel free to join a political party or organisation of their choice. In addition, to the fact that most Ugandans demonstrate high levels of support for the observance of human rights, including freedom of speech, freedom to join a political party, and freedom of the press (Afro Barometer 2012: p.1).

4.1.5 Accountability and Transparency

Accountability, as earlier defined to denote the extent to which service providers are answerable to the public, and institutional stakeholders answerable for their actions, and the means by which awareness is manifested. Moreover transparency is simply the level of free flow of information to those concerned in a manner in which they understand (Graham, Amos & Plumptre, 2003: p.3). Transparency and accountability in public administration are essential to democracy and apply to all those with governmental and public authority . over and above all bodies of government and public authority.

But, just like the other aforementioned principles of democracy, pursuing accountability and transparency as a principle of democracy has, to a certain extent, been adhered too. The Government of Uganda made efforts to combat corruption and promote transparency and accountability, focusing heavily on the establishment of a legal framework, regulations and institutions as early as 1970. This showed in

the various legislations endorsed over the years such as, the Prevention of Corruption Act, which has now been superseded by the Anti-Corruption Act of 2009. In 1988 the Inspectorate of Government statute established the Inspectorate of Government's Office a statute that has since been superseded by the Inspector of Government Act, an independent constitutional body tasked with eliminating corruption and abuse of office. Notably, this body is referred to as the ombudsman in other countries (Inspectorate of Government 2013: p.7).

Adding to this is the Enforcement of the Leadership Code of Conduct Act (2002); the Public Accounts Committee (PAC) of Parliament with the mandate to audit government accounts; and the Public Procurement and Disposal of Public Assets Act of 2003 (PPDPA): responsible for regulating the procurement and disposal of public assets were also put in place (Matembe 2010; Uganda Governance Monitoring Project 2004: p.41). Likewise, the government initiated the decentralisation system of governance and incorporated it in the 1995 Constitution and the subsequent Local Government Act of 1997. In 2002, the cabinet approved the Fiscal Decentralisation Strategy (FDS) and then the Local Government Development Programme approach to ensue transfer of funds to the local government and transparency (Uganda governance and monitoring project 2004: p.47).

Even so, irrespective of the presence of these institutions, just like the other elements of democracy, the country is presently faced with numerous accountability and transparency incongruities. First and foremost, according to the Uganda Governance and Monitoring Project Report (2004: p.42), parts of the legal framework for strengthening transparency and accountability in Uganda is obsolete and scattered into different pieces of legislation making it cumbersome for the responsible agencies to enforce and implement. Moreover, other pieces of legislation do not offer effective deterrence against those committing fraud, corruption and mismanagement of funds.

At present, the country is facing an alarming loss of public funds, as well as donor aid support to corruption due to lack of transparency and accountability in many government institutions. Corruption that to the onlookers is more so, fuelling a culture

of waste and inefficiency causing enormous financial loss. This kind of corruption has been witnessed in various cases, such as the one in which almost Shs2 billion in development aid meant for post-war recovery efforts in northern Uganda and Karamoja sub-region was used to purchase luxury vehicles for ministers in the Premier's office, according to information before the Public Accounts Committee (Mugerwa 2012). Similarly, up until now, according to Atuyanbe (2013), the net bilateral aid flows from DAC donors that is also known as the net disbursements of Official Development Assistance (ODA) or official aid from the members of the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) was last reported at 1161980000 in 2010.

Furthermore, in 2012 while serving as minister of state for Health (General Duties), Mike Mukula allegedly requisitioned and signed for Shs 263million on behalf of the First Lady, Janet Museveni, money that was part of the Global Alliance for Vaccines and Immunisation (GAVI) funds donated to Uganda for treatment of children infected with HIV/Aids, malaria and tuberculosis. In addition to this, Shs 1.6billion of the fund that was allegedly misappropriated (The Observer 2013).

All in all, the fact that for democracy to be meaningful it has to give expression to both political and socio-economic rights of the citizens whereby the rights are not to be defined in a hollow sense in order to constitute mere %objective principles of state policy+, but should be made enforceable, and justice should enable rights of the citizens. Also, transparency and accountability in public administration are essential to democracy and the two concepts apply to all those with governmental and public authority, as well as all bodies of government and public authority. Looking at the scale of civil liberties in Uganda, the practice of the doctrine of separation of powers, the political culture, the electoral processes and pluralism, the current state of democracy is a contentious phenomenon.

Therefore, the fact that democracy forms an integral part of participation, for the successful exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens that may add value to the betterment of public service delivery in Uganda to prevail. The abovementioned democratic elements have to be taken into consideration as this may be the first step towards the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens, which may yield quality service delivery in Uganda.

4.2 THE NATURE OF SERVICE DELIVERY IN UGANDA AT PRESENT

Denoted as the provision of a service or product by the government to the citizens as expected by the citizens and mandated by Acts of Parliament (Fox & Meyer 1995: p.118) service delivery in Uganda, just like in any other country in the world, has been an utmost priority of the government. In that large amounts in the financial year budget are normally allocated to the education, infrastructure and health sectors. This justified in numerous budget allocations as shown below.

For example, in FY2011/12, the Ministry of Finance in Uganda allocated Shs. 115.9 billion to the Education sector. This allocated with emphasis placed on building on the successes of Universal Primary and Secondary Education giving priority to numerous interventions in the preceding financial year such as;

- The extension of free Universal education to A-level and Business, Technical, Vocational and Education Training (BTJET) beginning in January 2012, allocating Shs. 58.8 billion;
- Scaling up of Universal Secondary Education with an additional allocation of Shs. 20.3 billion for the capitation grant;
- The provision of Shs. 9.2 billion for the necessary physical infrastructure and Shs. 12.9 billion for personnel cost to address quality constraints at all levels of the education sector as well as Shs. 1.8billion for enhanced inspection of schools;
- Support private sector vocational institutions with equipment, key staff and salaries as well as enhanced inspection of schools; and development; and
- Retention of a pool of national expertise in the emerging mining, oil and gas industries (Government of Uganda 2013).

In FY2012/13, out of a total of Shs. 11.15 trillion, Shs. 1.669 trillion was given to the Ministry of Education, representing 17% of the total budget. Out of which Shs. 290 billion was budgeted for funding salary enhancement for primary teachers and science teachers in secondary schools. Moreover in the health sector, in the FY2011/12, a total amount of Shs. 804.7bn was approved. Whist in the FY2011/12, the overall budget for the water and environment sector was Shs. 489.3 billion

comprising Shs. 281.57 billion (57.5%) on-budget and Shs. 207.77billion (42.5%) off-budget.

Adding to this, is the government commitment in the form of the prevailing legislative framework, i.e. the Second National Health Policy (NHP II) and National Development Plan (NDP) 2010/11 . 2014/15. Also known as the overarching national policy and strategic framework governing the health, education, water, environment and sanitation sectors amongst others; the Education Sector Strategic Plan 2004/2015; the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP 2004-2008); the Decentralisation policy; and the constitution of 1995 to mention but a few. Arguably, the above initiatives indicating that service delivery has indeed been a priority in Uganda.

Nevertheless, irrespective of the above initiatives, service delivery in Uganda remains in disarray (Ministry of Education and Sports, 2009; Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), 2010; 2011; 2012; The parliament of Uganda 2012; Annual Health sector performance report 2010/2011; Government Annual Performance report 2010/11; 2011/12; Ministry of Water and Environment 2012; Economic Policy Research Centre 2010) characterized by:

- a high level of corruption,
- inequality,
- inadequate capacity for effective accountability of financial resources, persistent shortages in infrastructure implementation,
- inadequate community support, and
- limited communication amongst stakeholders, among others

For example, in the case of education, despite the fact that classroom construction and rehabilitation and adequate infrastructure are key essential interventions in improving equitable access to education at all levels as highlighted in the National Development Plan education priorities. According to Uganda Bureau of Statistics UBOS (2010: p.9) provision for adequate infrastructure for the children enrolled in primary schools remains a challenge to the education sector with approximately one in every three pupils enrolled in primary schools not having adequate sitting and

writing space. This is clearly depicted in the government's annual performance reports 2010/11-2011/12. Reports stating that: even after factoring in the reduced release of 79% for the vote-function covering rehabilitation and construction, in the FY2010/11. There was under-performance in classroom construction and rehabilitation at primary level with only four classrooms rehabilitated against a target of thirty two classrooms.

What is more, despite the aforementioned challenges shown in 2010/11 performance reports, in the FY2011/12 there was under-performance in classroom rehabilitation with only 24 classrooms rehabilitated against a target of 84 classrooms. While the number of curriculum materials procured was also below the target, with 100,000 curriculum materials procured against the set target of 176,400 (Government Annual performance Report 2010/11: p.78; 2012/12: p.92). All in all, the above indicating the disarray in the education service sector.

Away from the education sector, the service delivery situation in the water and sanitation sector is also alarming within the Ugandan populace . especially among children. Whereby, on average, access to safe water is estimated at as low as 9% in some districts, while an estimated 19% of the improved water supply systems are still not functioning. This leading to an increase in infant mortality that is resultant of diseases associated with inadequate water supply, sanitation and hygiene (UBOS, 2010: pp.33-57).

In addition, as per the Ministry of Water and Environment (MWE) (2010: VIII), many Ugandans in rural areas are still dependent on spring water, with only a few having access to hand washing water facilities after visiting the toilet. This depicted in the 2010 and 2012 Ministry of Water and Environment reports (2010: IX) stating that: %access to hand-washing facilities is estimated at a stance ratio of 208:1 in community schools+ (that is, 208 students share one hand-washing facility within community schools). While in 2012, access to hand-washing facilities in rural areas was estimated at 27%, and in primary schools at 35% and according to data availed by the districts, the pupil-stance ratio was at 69:1 (that is 69 students sharing one hand-washing facility) (Ministry of Water and Environment 2012: VI).

What is more, in line with sanitation, 10% of the population in Uganda practices open defecation, which is estimated to cost the country USD 41 million per year (Ministry of Water and Environment 2012: v). Such that as a result, according to the Ministry of Health, 10,528 cases of hepatitis E (a disease transmitted by human waste and oral contamination with drinking water) had been reported in various districts not-forgetting cholera that has become a recurrent problem. For example, in Kitgum district in 2010 alone, 168 deaths caused by Hepatitis E were registered. Whereas, during the 2009/2010 financial year alone, 3,048 cases of cholera were registered in various districts of which 205 individuals died. Within the same year, 36 cases of bacillary dysentery were recorded resulting in two deaths, whilst 974 cases of Typhoid were reported resulting in 29 deaths. Over and above, Viral Haemorrhagic fever that claimed 38% of the 13 cases that were reported (UBOS, 2010: pp.33-57).

More over in 2011 alone, according to the International federation of the Red Cross Crescent Societies (IFRC) (2012: p1) an outbreak of cholera that was first reported in one community of Kayanja Village . Nyakiyumbu Sub County in Kasese District on 21 October 2011. Later spread to two other sub-counties of Mpondwe . Lhubiriha Town Council and Karambi in Bukonzo West Health Sub-District (HSD) and Maliba and Kitswamba in Busongora North HSD. This resulting into the cumulative number of affected people of 366 cases and 10 deaths with a Case Fatality Rate (CFR) of 2.7%.

More so, despite the development of the 10-year Improved Sanitation and Hygiene (ISH) strategy specifically for small towns in 2010, which was partly initiated in 2011, in the towns such as Kayunga, Kamdini Yumbe, Kitgum and Agwata towns with private operators appointed to manage public toilets. According to the Ministry of Water and Environment sector performance report of 2012, out of the 30 towns under the National Water and Sewerage Cooperation jurisdiction, only 14 towns operate centralised sewerage systems. Besides this, during the FY2011/12, out of the 294 final sewage points checked for Biochemical Oxygen Demand (BOD5), only 29.3% of all the samples complied with the National Standard for Sewage Discharge for BOD5. This mainly attributed to design inadequacy, operation and maintenance inadequacy, storm water ingress into sewers, disposal/dumping of waste water from

industries and other non-domestic origin to National Water and Sewerage Cooperation sewerage systems Ministry of Water and environment 2012: VII).

In line with the health service, despite the fact that primary healthcare services are provided within the sub-county level per district, also commonly referred to as a referral system. This composed of various levels as per the decentralized structure. That is: the HC (I) a health facility with no definite physical structure focusing on prevention and health education; HC (II) at parish level delivering a minimum health package at parish level; HC (III) a facility that delivers the intermediate referral activity package at sub-county level and; HC (IV), which is a mini hospital, delivering complementary activity packages at the district level. Over and above regional referral hospitals, as well as national referral hospitals, on HC (V) typically covering 2 million people, providing select specialty care and outreach services, in addition to the functions provided by the institutions previously mentioned. The delivery of health services has remained poor and the majority of people have turned to private hospitals. This attributed to staff shortages that are further compounded by absenteeism and the inability to retain critical specialists. For example, according to the report by the Parliamentary Committee on Health, in 2012, the statistics of doctor-to-patient ratio is 1:24,725 and nurse/midwife-to-patient ratio is 1:11,000. Whereby as per the 2011 with respect to the national level staffing, the Human Resources for Health Audit Report, states that out of 55,063 approved positions for health workers in public facilities, only 31,797 positions are filled, leaving 23,321 vacant positions. A situation that has worsened at the level of Health Centres where, out of 4,905 posts in 1321 health centre HC(II)s in the whole country, only 2,197 (45%) are filled (The Parliament of Uganda 2012: p.5).

Additionally, there is the problem of deteriorating access to drugs/medicines in health units coupled with poor management at health unit levels as well as underfunding of the health sector. This reflected in the high number of maternal deaths ranking Uganda maternal health as one of the worst in Africa. Where, maternal mortality rate stands at 438 deaths per 100,000 live births, making the targeted 131 deaths per 100,000 by 2015 . yet again . a distant dream (UBOS, 2010: p.116; Mugisha 2013: Online).

Adding to this, is the lack of transportation of patients to healthcare centres where in some rural areas, small motorcycles are being used as ambulances in a bid to make emergency healthcare accessible to those in need (Think Africa Press 2013: Online).

Consecutively, although community roads are the nearest type of road to the majority of households, as per the national service delivery survey, these roads are characterized by poor maintenance. For instance, in rural areas where the majority of the country's agricultural production takes place, access to roads is very low with only 10% of communities having access to roads noted to be in good- to-fair condition (UBOS 2010: XVI; Magidu et al., 2010: p.5). Yet in the Kampala city centre alone, the road network covers approximately 1,100km of which only 340km is tarred. Meanwhile only 15% of the roads that are tarred are regarded to be in a suitable state, and the remaining 85% is in a dilapidated state.

4.3 EXERCISING DEMOCRATIC RIGHTS AND OBLIGATIONS OF CITIZENS IN UGANDA: A HISTORICAL CONTEXT

The opportunity of citizen participation (exercising democratic rights and obligation) has evidently transpired in phases in Uganda. From colonialism (1894-1962), where the leading decisions in society were made without the people's mandate. A state machinery that was only created to serve the foreign interest, the so-called pro-independence period (1962-1986) that gave birth to dictators like Obote and Idi Amin, who clearly chose administrative convenience over popular support speaking the language of bureaucrats abusing power and manipulating the populace. To the so-called democratic retro (1986-to-date) dominated largely by officials who avoid being held to account, elite capture of the decentralisation process and lack of information being made available to the constituents. All these phases justified by expressions like the suspension and abrogation of the independence constitution, as well as the change of the constitution without a renewed mandate (Kabwejere 2000; Gaventa 2002; Chibita 2006; and Kateshumbwa 2012).

The introduction the Local Government (Amendment) Act of 1962), that stripped the local governments of most of their powers and autonomy. An amendment giving the

minister of regional administration powers to approve the appointment of chiefs, leaving the district council with no power at all over the recruitment of chiefs or administrative officials (Makerere institute of Local research 2008: p.7). Signing of the Public Order Management Act of 2013, giving power to the police to permit or disallow any "public meeting" . defined as a gathering of more than three people in a public place. This shrinking the democratic space for expression of divergent views denying the citizens the right to freedom of assembly (HURINET-U 2011; Republic of Uganda 2011: p.5). As well as the 2009 anti-homosexuality bill now the Anti-Homosexuality Act of 2014 that seeks to criminalise same-sex relationships proposing stiff penalties for homosexuals from 14 years to life in jail amongst others.

Nevertheless, irrespective of the above, in the Ugandan context traces of exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens by the citizen $\text{\$}$ date back as early as the pre-colonial era. That is an era where many societies had relatively simple political organisational set-ups with the ruling ethos inclined towards communalism as opposed to individualism. With the decisions taken by community consensus while household heads, clans, elders and chiefs were responsible to and for the community.

Although this was evoked by the post-colonial governments through a system of chiefs, according to literature, many chiefs were nominated whenever possible and not selected by the people. Thus curtailing participation until independence in 1962 under the post-independence constitution that contained the Bill of Rights, provided for multi-party democracy and an unchanged local government structure where Local Councils (LCs) were elected through a one-person-one-vote secret ballot system. This was short, and by 1967, president Obote introduced a single-party rule and a central state-dominated system of local government in which all councillors were nominated by the minister of local government (Tidemand 1994: p.24). In addition, all appointments . including those of provincial commissions . were occupied, in most cases, by military officers with far-reaching powers (Makerere institute of Local research 2008: p.8). In consequence, bringing about a culture of participation in form struggle dubbed as the guerrilla struggle with the aim of bringing about change. Advancing until 1986 when efforts by the post-1986 regime, endeavouring to

promote participatory democracy and democratic development policies were introduced as discussed below (Kabwegyere 2005: p.54).

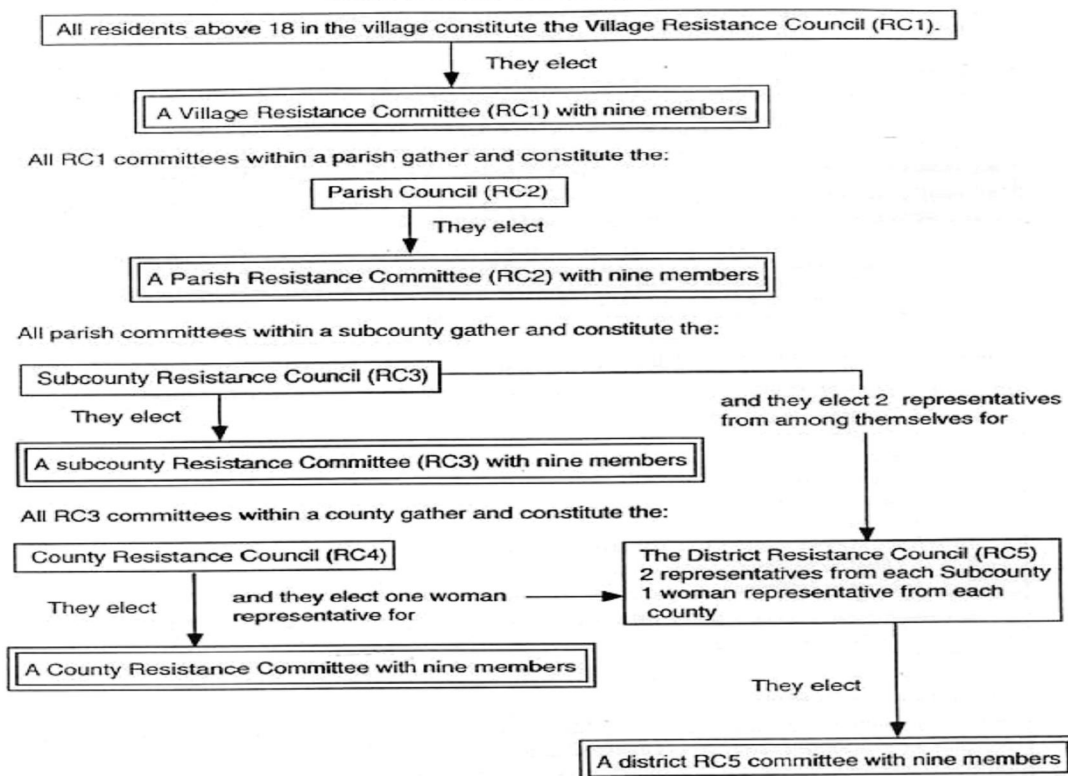
4.3.1 FRAMEWORKS FOR CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN UGANDA

Starting from 1986 when the NRM government came into power, there have been different initiatives established to promote citizen participation, involving plans, policies, strategies and legislation. Among these are those that will be discussed below.

4.3.1.1 Community-based Resistance Councils (RCs)

Comprising of all adult members of the village, to promote the exercise of democratic rights government introduced Community-based Resistance Councils (RCs) in 1986. These were made up of the RC1 council mandated to elect a nine-member RC1 committee between the council members; The RC2 council at the parish level; the RC3 council at sub-county level; the RC4 council at the county level; and the RC5 council at the district level. See **Figure 4** below.

**The Structure of Resistance Councils and Committees .
From Village to District Level.**



Source: Tidemand 1994: p.24

This five-tier system of Resistance Councils was the first initiative of the 1986 government to bring back citizen participation in Uganda and today forms the current local government system. Legalised by the NRC Resistance Council Statute of 1987, the RC framework represented the factual image of the exercise of democratic rights of citizens in Uganda. All this reflected in the ideas of the commune of a pyramid structure of elected committees that had revocable members; the accountability of civil servants; the election of magistrates; the merging of the executive and legislative as well as an extensive degree of local autonomy with all adults at village level participating as members of the council in electing the committee of nine (Tidemand 1994:24, Kabwegyere 2005; Gaventa 2002).

In addition, according to NRC Resistance Council Statute No 9 of 1987, Resistance Councils were mandated to perform various prescribed roles such as:

- *“Assisting the police and chiefs in the maintenance of Law and order;*
- *Maintaining security in the area;*
- *Encouraging support and participate in self-help projects and mobilising the people, material and technical assistance in relation thereto;*
- *Recommend persons in the area who should be recruited into armed forces including the police and prisons;*
- *Save as the communication channel between the government and the people in the area;*
- *Oversee government policy in the area;*
- *Elect where necessary ad hoc and other subcommittees; and*
- *Elect members of the tax assessment committee at sub-county level and generally monitor the administration in its area and report to the appropriate authority any incidents of corruption, maladministration and misuse of government property”.*

The above indicating the commitment of government to promoting citizen participation at the local level.

4.3.1.2 The constitution of the Republic of Uganda

Uganda’s Constitution provides for participation in various sections, which is particularly apparent in Section II of the Constitution that states that:

- The state shall be based on democratic principles that empower and encourage active citizenship at all levels of governance;
- All Ugandans shall have access to leadership positions at all levels as subject to the constitution;
- The state shall be guided by the principles of decentralization and devolution of government functions and powers to the people at all appropriate levels where they can best manage and direct their own affairs; and
- Civic organizations shall retain their autonomy in pursuit of their declared objectives.

Additionally, participation is accorded as a right where Article 36 of the Constitution stipulates that every citizen has the right to participate in the affairs of government, individually or through his or her representatives. Also, every Ugandan has a right to participate in peaceful activities to influence the policies of government through civic organisations. Moreover, schedule (x) of Uganda's constitution states that people must be involved in the formulation and implementation of a development plan.

What is more, Uganda's constitution also provides for minority representation at the national level in Articles 32, 36 and 78. Whereby Article 32(2) of the Constitution acknowledges affirmative action. Article 36 of the constitution states that minorities (Alur, Bakonzo, Karamajong, Nubians, Batwa pygmies and the Ugandan Asians) have a right to participate in decision-making processes and views and interests taken into account in the formulation of national plans and programmes. Whilst Article 78 of Uganda's Constitution guarantees one parliamentary seat per district for women, and allows the parliament to provide representation for people with disabilities, youth and other disadvantaged groups.

Adding to the above, the 1995 Ugandan Constitution also provides for a fertile legal framework on the basis of which the participation of CSOs in the decentralization process could be based. For instance, the National Objectives and Directive Principles of State Policy II (VI) states that, "Civic Organisations shall retain their autonomy in pursuit of their declared objectives." Then Article 38(2) states that, "Every Ugandan has a right to participate in peaceful activities to influence the policies of Government through Civic Organisations." At that time, Article 42 of the Constitution goes further to state that, "(a) any person appearing before any administrative official or body has a right to be treated fairly and shall have a right to apply to a court of law in respect of any administrative decision taken against him or her."

4.3.1.3 Local Government Act of 1997 (as amended) in 2001

In Uganda, apart from the Constitution, Section (36) of the Local Government Act of 1997 provides for main frameworks for citizen participation at the governance at local level. Whereby it acknowledges the district local government as the main planning

authority authorised to prepare an integrated development plan (IDP) through assimilating the plans of lower local councils. Local councils represent their communities in policy decision-making with regard to the approval of development plans and allocation of resources in their areas of jurisdiction (LGA, 1997: ss36-40).

Furthermore, the Local Government Act also sets conditions for the bottom-up approach in the development planning beginning at the village or community level. Where the districts plans are conditioned to be developed using a bottom-up approach, with each village making its community action plan, that are incorporated into the parish plans and thereafter sent to the division. These are in turn submitted to the District Technical Planning Committees to produce an integrated plan for discussion by different stakeholders before approval by the District Council (Kakumba 2013: p.178; Gaventa 2002: p.26).

In addition, the first objective of the Local Government Act of 1997 provides for a full effect to the decentralisation of functions, powers, responsibilities and services at all levels of local government. Thus paving the way for an administrative hierarchy that promotes channels of communication between local levels of institutions on the one pointer, and higher and central government leaders on the other pointer. This is also clearly illustrated under the tenets of Uganda's decentralization in Article 178 of the Constitution stipulating that:

- The state shall be guided by the principle of decentralization and devolution of governmental functions and powers to the people at appropriate levels where they can best manage and direct their own affairs;
- The system shall be such as to ensure that functions, powers and responsibilities are devolved and transferred to local government units in a coordinated manner;
- Decentralization shall be a principle applying to all levels of local government and, in particular, from higher to lower local government units to ensure people's participation and democratic control in decision-making;

- The system shall be such as to ensure the full realization of democratic governance at all local government levels;
- Establish a sound financial base with reliable sources of revenue for each local government unit;
- Appropriate measures shall be taken to enable local government units to plan, initiate and execute policies in respect of all matters affecting the people within their jurisdiction;
- Persons in the service of local government shall be employed by the local government; and
- The local government shall oversee the performance of persons employed by national government to provide services in their areas and monitor the provision of government services or the implementation of projects in their areas of jurisdiction.

The Local Government Act of 1997 also gives effect to the affirmative action principle that is aimed at elevating participation of the marginalized groups such as women, the disabled, and the youth. This by laying emphasis on the provision of a quota system of reserving 30% seats in local councils for women and two seats (female and male) for youth, elders and persons with disabilities (Development Network of Indigenous Voluntary Associations 2011: p.16). Adding to this, the Local Government Act also provides for schemes like the Local Government Development Programme (LGDP). This is a funding scheme that applies at all local government levels, offering real choices from within a menu of types of local infrastructure which match national priority areas (such as education, health, roads, water, and production). Each district is allocated a specified amount of LGDP resources for projects appropriate to their scale of operation. Citizens are thus able to participate at various levels in choices about the allocation of resources (Devas & Grant 2003: p.312).

4.3.1.5 District Budget Conferences

In addition to the above participatory initiatives, the government also adopted district budget conference processes. This is referred to as an annual event that brings together stakeholders, including private sector, CSOs, development partners and the

wider public . including grassroots people . organised by the district soon after the first Regional Local Government Budget Framework Paper (LGBFP) workshops in October. That is centred on discussion and presentation to identify key priorities, involving each level, as per the local government structure, to come up with a plan that forms the consolidated rolling out District Development Plan. All in all, to specifically capture the voices of the poor to ensure incorporation of their views and priorities in the district plans and, subsequently, the national plan (Gaventa 2002: p.26; Odero 2004: p.2).

4.3.1.6 Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) (2004/2005-2007/2008)

Like the abovementioned participatory initiatives, to further participation at the grassroots-level, harnessing both local and national levels in decision-making. In 1997, after consultation with a wide range of stakeholders, the government introduced the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) as a national planning framework to guide detailed medium-term sector plans, district plans, and the budget process. This plan comprising four pillars, namely: fast and sustainable economic growth and structural transformation; good governance and security; increased ability of the poor to raise their incomes; and increased quality of life of the poor. These with an aim of guiding public action to eradicate poverty through boosting partnerships with the CSOs which act as intermediaries in filtering information relating to the poor and helping to implement or supervise public programs. In addition, providing a poverty monitoring system through the biannual poverty status reports and the annual PEAP progress reports, which augment policy implementation (Kakumba 2010: p.183; Odero 2004).

Furthermore, the PEAP substantiates participation in its on-going revision process that takes place every two years. This by drawing results of the Poverty Status Report, which is also prepared every two years, in which an initial "discussion draft" is circulated to a wide range of stakeholders in order to stimulate dialogue and debate. Moreover to ensure reasonable levels of participation in preparation of the revised PEAP, the editorial team prepares a Participatory Action Plan. This includes consultations at the central government level as well as with local government level. It furthermore includes discussions with donors, with parliamentarians, as well as with civil society. Adequate feedback mechanisms are in place to ensure that all

stakeholders have contributed effectively to the drafting process (International Monetary Fund (IMF) 2000: p.5; PEAP2004/08: p.158; Gaventa 2002: p.27).

As seen from the above, it is clear that there is presence of legal instruments for citizen participation, such as the 1987 National Resistance Council and Committees Statute; the 1993 Local Government Statute and the resultant Decentralization policy; the 1995 Constitution; and the 1997 Local Government Act. All of which have established new formal participatory local government institutions and structures. Devolved powers and responsibility to local governments with the aim of empowering local governments and communities to control, influence, direct, develop and manage local political and development programs as well as improving service delivery.

Hence, coming from a history of an almost failed state, one can assert that government has tried to acknowledge various elements of democracy as discussed earlier. But then again, irrespective of these initiatives, researchers like Senfuka (2011), and Francis and James (2003: p.330) state that although the central government decentralized the responsibilities and duties to Local Governments (LGs), it has failed to match these responsibilities and duties with financial resources in order to execute their mandates. This depicted in the budget releases whereby 90% of LGs funding comes from the central government in form of conditional grants forcing the districts to cover wage bills leaving a paltry amount of unconditional grants for activities.

Additionally, according to Kakumba (2010: p.183), although initiatives like PEAP are good interventions, they remain central government's handmaiden policies where the local governments merely participate in their implementation and there is a relatively low engagement of the citizens.

Conversely, even with the fact that the decentralization process has gone as far as accommodating everyone in the decision-making process as seen in the budget process and planning. According to findings by Uganda Debt Network (2006: p.15), these budget conferences are often hijacked and dominated by politicians. Such that to some CSOs, the process is seen as a mere presentation of papers with

limited dialogue among participants, no feedback or even follow-up on the outcomes. Likewise, there is still limitation to participation of children in government. The traditional notion that children are to be seen and not heard is also still strong with a few government institutions seeking children's opinions regarding decision-making (Uganda Government Monitoring Project 2004: p.21).

Furthermore, according to DENIVA (2006: p.49), although the number of CSOs has increased over the years, their participation does not necessarily mean active involvement. Neither does it automatically strengthen their influence over the state actions and programmes to qualify as the sole citizen representatives . especially in the case of Uganda. For instance, with the introduction of contradictory legislation, i.e. the Non-government Organisation Registration (Amendment) Act of 2006 that is premised on very narrow objectives such as: introduction of a periodic permit streamlining registration and clarifying corporate legal identity; and expanding the powers of the Minister to regulate winding up of NGOs. In addition to stipulating that no registration will be granted to organizations whose constitution mandate is contradictory to the Law of Uganda (NGO Registration (Amendment) Act, 2006).

At first glance, this piece of legislation alone raises the presumption that NGOs are wrong elements whose operations and activities should be rigorously monitored and controlled. In addition, it can also be deduced based on the same legislation that NGOs are congruently undermining the rare opportunity for a more mutually beneficial partnership between Government and NGOs as stipulated both in the constitution of 1995, and the decentralization policy of 1997 as amended in 2006. Therefore, the fact that organised CSOs have important roles to play in supporting citizen-based monitoring. This particularly through active and meaningful participation in capacitating citizens to articulate their needs and experiences, any unfair regulation towards their functioning is a disservice to citizen participation.

Thus based on the argument that good citizen participation frameworks play a primary role in service delivery . especially if they have passed the test of monitoring, accounting, auditing, and evaluation on a continued basis carried out by citizens through citizen participation. Looking at the current state of service delivery and democracy in Uganda, even with the relevant participatory frameworks in place, it can be deduced that the actual involvement and participation of citizens in

prioritising, planning, decision-making and the knowledge and understanding of these initiatives is debatable. This, beseeching the questions:

- How relevant have the participatory initiatives been to the actual involvement and participation of citizens in prioritising, planning, and decision-making on issues affecting the citizens?
- Similarly, what is the knowledge and understanding of these initiatives by the citizens?
- Have these initiatives promoted citizen participation that is strong to demand quality service delivery?

4.4 CONCLUSION

Although widely hypothesised that democracy provides bedrock for participation . and participation translates into effective representation and empowerment . in turn positively boosting service delivery and rural development. It can be concluded that in Uganda this is yet to be seen. For instance, irrespective of a two decade-plus long prevalence of several democratic frameworks and excellent legal and policy frameworks for citizen participation. That is: the Constitution of 1995, Resistance Councils (RCs) now Local Councils (LCs), Local Government Act of 1997, and budget conferences, amongst others. Conversely, democracy and the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens in Uganda is far from the reality if rated by looking at the above discussions. Simultaneously, the electorate is still prone to hand-outs and is easily manipulated; and nepotism and corruption are still increasingly staining politics and political institutions. There is to a certain extent censorship of the press, there seems to be no separation of powers, and, worst of all, the image of service delivery is still tainted. Thus, this not only attests to the statement that democratic participatory initiatives in Uganda are more like wish lists than substantive statements that are guaranteed in practice. But also raises questions on how relevant these initiatives have been to the actual involvement and participation of citizens in prioritising, planning, and decision-making on issues affecting the citizens. Similarly, what is the knowledge and understanding of these initiatives by the citizens; and have these initiatives promoted citizen participation that is strong to demand quality service delivery.

Therefore, to try and answer these questions with aim of soliciting whether the quality of the public services relates to the understanding and practice of democratic rights and obligations of citizens in Uganda. The next chapters will be directed at conducting empirical research on the realities and practices regarding the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens as well as their implications towards service delivery in Uganda.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

According to De Beer (1999: p.32), research methodology signifies all those research decisions taken within the framework of specific determinants unique to the research study. Therefore, based on this definition and keeping in mind the main focus of the study as encapsulated in the objectives, which are:

- To document the concepts *democracy*, *democratic rights*, *citizen responsibility* and *democratic consolidation*
- To realise whether and how fundamental notions of democratic citizenship and democratic participation either undermine or advance public service delivery;
- To explore the current state of democratic rights and obligations of citizens in Uganda;
- To conduct empirical research on the realities and practices regarding the exercise of democratic rights and obligation of citizens as well as assess its implications towards service delivery in Uganda; and
- To propose a comprehensive participatory framework for exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens to improve public service delivery in Uganda.

This chapter presents the research methodology, substantiates the research design, introduces the location of study, and explores the sampling techniques and methods of data collection and analysis. Over and above the ethical considerations and limitations faced in this research study are also discussed.

5.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

According to Rajasekar, Philominathan and Chinnathambi (2006: p.3), research methodology denotes the systematic way to solve a problem, or a science of studying how research is to be carried out through describing, explaining and predicting phenomena. Research methodology also aims to give the work plan of research and also is concerned with providing answers to questions such as:

- Why is a particular research study undertaken?
- How did one formulate the research problem?
- What types of data were collected?
- What particular methods have been used?
- Why was a particular technique of data analysis used?

Thus departing from the above definition, the following sections will attempt to introduce the methodology used to achieve the research purpose.

5.2.1 Types of Research Methodology

Sometimes identified as approaches, according to literature on research (Rajasekar *et al.* (2006: p.6), there are two commonly used basic approaches to research, viz. **quantitative (positivistic) approach** and **the qualitative (phenomenological) approach**. The former, quantitative (positivistic) approach involves collecting and analysing numerical data, concentrating on measuring the scale, range, and frequency of phenomena. This type of research approach, although harder to design initially, is usually highly detailed and structured and results can be easily collated and presented statistically (Branford University School of Management 2007: p.3). The latter, qualitative (phenomenological) approach is more subjective in nature than quantitative research, and involves examining and reflecting on the less tangible aspects of a research subject, e.g. values, attitudes and perceptions. Although this type of research can be easier to commence with, it can be often difficult to interpret and present the findings; the findings can also be challenged more easily (Branford University School of Management 2007: p.3).

Looking at the definitions of the above approaches, it is clear that both approaches are concerned with the investigation of an individual's point of view; they present differences in the nature of data, the methods used for data collection, and in the analysis process. However, it does not mean that one is superior to the other. In practice, both approaches are valid and contribute to social research. This implies that the decision of which methodology one uses lies within the essence of the research question/problem. For example, if the research seeks to verify an existing set of defined variables of an established theory then quantitative research would

provide the appropriate methodology. Whereas, if the aim of research is exploratory in nature, and the study is attempting to understand the experience of a group of individuals of a particular situation or human problem from multiple perspectives, then qualitative methodology is found to be more suitable.

Therefore, with the above arguments in mind . and the fact that the research sought to assess the role of exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens in enhancing public service delivery in Uganda. A mixed method research approach was applied (systematic combination of quantitative and qualitative methodologies).

5.2.1.1 Rationale for Choice of the Mixed Method Research Approach

The reason for this choice is because according to Creswell (2013: p.12), a mixed methods research provides:

- Strengths that offset the weaknesses of both quantitative and qualitative research;
- Provides more evidence for studying a research problem than either quantitative or qualitative research alone;
- Helps answer questions that cannot be answered by quantitative or qualitative approaches alone;
- Is practical in the sense that the researcher is free to use all methods possible to address a research problem; and
- Is also practical because individuals tend to solve problems using numbers and words, thus combining induction and deduction thinking.

In line with the above advantages, the fact that qualitative research methodology is concerned with the in-depth understanding of social processes, deemed from the above definitions, such as that of Creswell (1998: p.47) qualitative methods provide for exploration of a dynamic reality. It does not claim that what is discovered in the process is universal and, thus, replicable or able to be generalised. Qualitative methods can help unearth problems, generate hypotheses and explicate why and how phenomena occur. Moreover they examine the narrative, meaning, and behaviours in social context.

Also, it is within qualitative research that the multiple meanings that lie beneath various behavioural patterns are concurrent with investigating the ~~why~~ questions of the research. As it is inductive and not deductive, qualitative research provides for the exploration of people-driven systems by coming close to the participants and observing them in their lived environments. Focusing more on the meanings and interpretations they act within, and how they in turn reproduce, transform or resist such meanings and interpretations (Creswell, Ebersohn, Eloff, Ferreira, Ivankova, Jansen, Nieuwenhuis, Pietersen, Plano Clark and Westhuizen 2007: p.51).

On the other hand, quantitative research methods provide results that are usually numerical (quantifiable) and hence considered more ~~objective~~. The data collected using quantitative methods is considered quantifiable and usually generalizable to a larger population . especially seeing that in this case results represent a large population. Helps in testing and validating already constructed theories about the how and why, as well as is useful in testing the hypothesis. It is also relatively quick and ideal in large samples.

5.2.2 RESEARCH TECHNIQUES

Research methods/techniques are the various procedures, schemes, algorithms, etc. used in research. All the methods used by a researcher during a research study are termed as **research methods**. They are essentially planned, scientific and value-neutral. They include theoretical procedures, experimental studies, numerical schemes, statistical approaches, etc. Research methods help us collect samples, data and find a solution to a problem.

Particularly, scientific research methods call for explanations based on collected facts, measurements and observations and not on reasoning alone (Rajasekar *et al.* 2006: p.6). Although it is important for a researcher to know the research methodology, a researcher must also to know which is a suitable method for the chosen problem; what is the order of accuracy of the result of a method; and what is the efficiency of the method (Rajasekar *et al.* 2006: p.6). Thus based on this argument, with the aim of reaching the research objectives, putting in mind that a mixed method research approach was followed, both quantitative and qualitative the data collection techniques were used. The data collection techniques used for this

study included: (1) documentary reviews; (2) structured interviews; and (3) structured questionnaire as discussed in the sub-sections that follow.

5.2.2.1 Documentary Reviews

According to Creswell *et al* (2007: p.82), documentary reviews focuses on all types of written communications that may shed light on the incident being investigated comprising of both primary and secondary sources. Such as: published and unpublished documents, company reports, letters, memoranda, agendas, faxes and newspaper articles. Moreover for Trochim & Donnelly (2007: p.146) documentary reviews are instruments of data collection involving a critical assessment and summary of the range of past and contemporary literature in a given area of knowledge. Help sharpen the problem, reformulates the problem, defines other closely related problems, provides for proper understanding of the problem chosen, helps one acquire proper theoretical and practical knowledge to investigate the problem, and shows how the problem under study relates to the previous research studies (Morrel 2013: p.1; Welman, Kruger and Mitchell 2005: p.151; Mogalakwe 2006: pp.221-230).

Emanating from the above definitions, for the purpose of this research, documentary reviews where used as both primary and secondary sources to obtain past and contemporary literature on democracy and service delivery. The primary sources consulted for this study including: official government documents such as Codes of Conduct, presidential pronouncements, government websites of various departments as well as parliament, government regulatory frameworks (i.e. Acts of Parliament and the Constitution), and published reports. While the secondary sources involved academic journals, articles, and books on democracy; citizen participation; and service delivery. But given the pitfalls associated with the use of documentary reviews . like the problem of retrieval, the failure to display authors subjectively as well as accessibility issues. The documents used in this research were read hermeneutically, i.e. critically and contextually.

Documentary reviews for this study provided a foundation for the context of the research especially in **Chapters 1, 2, 3** and **4**. Such that, in **Chapter 2**, with the use

of this technique, the researcher presented a conceptual and practical inference of democracy, democratic rights and obligations, democratic maturity and service delivery. As such from this technique, the researcher drew a conclusion that there is a link between all the concepts that are established through democratic elements, namely: transparency and accountability, adherence to the rule of law, existence of a pluralist system of political parties, and citizen participation, amongst others.

In **Chapter 3**, using the same qualitative technique, the researcher introduced the international perspectives that underpin exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens as well as service delivery. The researcher was also able review the fundamental notions of democratic citizenship and democratic participation, which have become international catchphrases associated with the exercise of democratic rights and obligation crucial for public sector performance. As well as examining the extent to which citizen participation supports the ideals of a democracy while reflecting on a few case highlights in the sub-Saharan region and the developed countries.

Last but not least, documentary reviews were also used in **Chapter 4** to explore the current state of democracy, the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens as well as the quality of the public services delivered to the people of Uganda. This contributing to the identification of the key indicators that where used to assess the impact of the role of exercising democratic rights and obligations on citizens in enhancing service delivery in Uganda.

5.2.2.2 Interviews

According to Creswell (2007: p.89), interviews are two-way conversations in which the interviewer asks the interviewees questions to gather information and learn about their ideas, beliefs, views, opinions and behaviours regarding the question in point. Kumar (2005: p.123) defines interviews as any person-to-person interaction between two or more individuals with a specific purpose in mind (Kumar 2005: p.123). According to Lephoto (2011: p.118), interviews can be categorised into two ways, viz. structured and unstructured. The former referring to interviews where one person asks another person a list of predetermined questions about a selected topic. The

latter referring to a scenario where one asks the other questions as they come to mind.

Based on the above categories, this research was carried out using semi-structured interviews that is a combination of structured and unstructured questions that involve a face-to-face interaction between the informant and the researcher. This seeking to understand the informant's perspectives . especially those who have actively participated in the focus area, with an aim of obtaining rich, descriptive data in order to understand the participant's construction of knowledge and social reality of the subject matter.

The reason for the choice of this research technique was largely based on the fact that interviews cover a wider population needed, irrespective of the location, disability or gender. Lead to the formulation of questions as they come to mind about the research problem. Interviewers are less likely to be misunderstood because of repetition; and last but not least, more information can be extracted based on the fact that interviews give room for probe responses, which in turn can lead the researcher into gaining more information that may have been left out while designing the interview schedule (Kumar 2005: pp.123-124).

Adding to this, using this type of interviews, the interviewer was able to adapt questions according to each respondent's level of comprehension, and to understand that when respondents replied to a certain question, they also provided answers to a question that would be asked later. Also very often, the free conversation between the researcher and the respondent permitted the former to lead the conversation and to probe further into the matter. To avoid loss of information, in this study the researcher recorded the interviews to ensure that information is captured fully and could be replayed during the data analysis phase.

5.2.2.3 Structured Questionnaire

Given the nature of this research study, in addition to the above data collection techniques, this research also made use of a structured questionnaire. Structured questionnaire referring specifically to the type of questionnaire in which the questions asked are precisely decided in advance.

The rationale behind this choice of technique was that, firstly, questionnaires are easily standardised. Secondly, there is low drain on time and finances and, lastly, there is very little training of researchers needed (Bless, Higson-Smith and Kagee 2006: p.137). Also questionnaires offer the engagement of as many citizens as possible. Furthermore, different types of questions and themes were able to be addressed with ease, and descriptive and explanatory closed- and open-ended questions could be employed easily. Besides, questionnaires also offered some kind of convenience . especially due to the fact that research population was scattered in three different divisions as earlier indicated (McMillan & Schumacher 2006: p.233).

Moreover, as agreed upon by Sekaran (2003:69), given that this study had defined variables to measure, a structured questionnaire was the most efficient and effective data collection tool.

Measure of the Research Variables in the Study

Given that the empirical data needed was specifically directed at assessing the role of exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens in enhancing public service delivery in Uganda. To gather concrete evidence, as well as develop a standard measure for the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens, in this study the measurable elements in the form of variables were identified, each of which were measured using indicators. These namely:

- **Broad participation:**
 - Knowledge on democracy, responsibilities and citizen participation procedure;
 - involvement in decision making process; and
 - Perceptions towards citizen participation initiatives.
- **Citizen Satisfaction:**
 - Satisfaction with the service delivery outcomes of the citizen participation process;
 - Satisfaction with the citizen participation process; and
 - Satisfaction with the performance of citizen participation facilitators.
- **Aftermaths of citizen participation:**

- Consideration of citizen recommendations in decision-making (Action);
- Feedback; and
- Communication.

According to Caswell (2007: p.150), although readers of proposals learn about the variables in purpose statements and research questions/hypothesis; it is important that in the method section that one clearly relates the variables to the research questions. Therefore, following from the abovementioned variables and indicators, for clarity, **Table 5** illustrates the variables, research questions and the items on the questionnaire used.

Table 5. Variables, Research Questions, and Items on the Questionnaire

VARIABLES	RESEARCH QUESTIONS	ITEM ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE
<p>Broad participation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge on democracy, responsibilities and citizen participation procedure; • Involvement in decision-making process; and • Perceptions towards citizen participation initiatives. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are the realities and practices regarding the exercise of democratic rights and obligation of citizens/citizen participation? • What is the knowledge of the citizens regarding these initiatives; and does the quality of public services relate to the understanding and practice of democratic rights and obligations of citizens? • What is the level of citizen participation in Rational Policy Making process? What are the perceptions of top level civil servants and citizens views towards citizen participation? 	<p>See section 200 questions 210a, 201b, 202, 203, 204a, b, c, 205a and b, 206 a and b, 207, 208, 209, 210, 211</p>

VARIABLES	RESEARCH QUESTIONS	ITEM ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE
<p>Participant Satisfaction:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Satisfaction with the service delivery outcomes of the citizen participation process; • Satisfaction with the citizen participation process; and • Satisfaction with the performance of citizen participation facilitators. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What has the government done to promote citizen participation and how relevant have these initiatives been to the actual involvement and participation of citizens in prioritising, planning, and decision-making on issues affecting the citizens? • Have these initiatives promoted citizen participation that is capable to demand quality service delivery? 	<p>See section 300 questions 301, 302, 303a, 303b, 304</p>
<p>Aftermaths of citizen participation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consideration of citizen recommendation in decision-making (Action); • Feedback; and • Communication. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is the procedure for giving feedback after the citizens have participated and is it effective to encourage more citizen participation? 	<p>See section 400 of the questionnaire questions: 400, 401, 402, 403, 404,405, 406, 407, 408, 409</p>

5.3 RESEARCH FOCUS AREA

This research broadly focused on Kampala city, which is also categorised as a district. The rationale for focusing on this particular district relative to the 132 districts in Uganda was driven by various factors. Firstly, it is the biggest district and capital city of Uganda characterised of an unprecedented population increase from 0.33 million people in 1969, 1.2 million people in 2002, 1.8 million people in 2010 and 1.7 million people in 2012 (Oonyu 2012: p.1; UBOS 2012: p.19). Secondly, despite the physical expansion of the city, development in the housing sector is still haphazard,

unplanned and outside the planned area resulting into Kampala being second to none in having numerous slums (e.g. Makerere Kivulu, Kamwokya Kifumbira Zone, Banda, Wabigalo, Namuwongo, Katanga, Kalerwe, Nsambya and Bwaise) (Ogwang, 2013: Online).

A slum is a contiguous settlement where the inhabitants are characterized as having inadequate housing and basic services+(Ogwang, 2013: Online). Finally, irrespective of Kampala's urban monopolistic statutory requirements for collection, storage and disposal of waste, there is still a massive accumulation of garbage as well as emergence of illegal dumping sites (Oonyu 2012: p.1). This leading to formation of heaps of uncollected solid waste, offensive odours, continuous environmental pollution, and repeated occurrence of sanitation-related diseases such as cholera and dysentery.

As a city, Kampala is both the administrative and business centre of Uganda. That is accommodating various diplomatic missions, multi-national companies, national and international organisations, as well as housing the government key state organs, including the ministries. Kampala is geographically established on an area of 170 acres as gazetted in 1902 comprising of seven hills, viz. Mengo, Rubaga, Kibuli, Kasubi, Namirembe, Nsabya and Kampala then. Though from the early 1960s to date, Kampala covers over 25 hills with an estimated population of 1.75 million people (UBOS 2012: p.19; Namara 2011: p.15).

Kampala city is managed by the Kampala Capital City Authority (KCCA), also known as the governing body of the Capital City that administers the City on behalf of the central government subject to the KCCA Act of 2010. KCCA consists of various representatives both politically elected as well as those administratively appointed. For instance, according to the KCCA Act of 2010, KCCA authority in itself consists of the Lord Mayor; the Deputy Lord Mayor; and a number of councillors that are both directly elected by their electoral constituencies and others who are appointed to represent professional bodies. The professional bodies including: The Uganda Institution of Professional Engineers, Uganda Society of Architects, Uganda Medical Association, and Uganda Law Society.

These followed by the Authority's administrative members headed by the Executive Director appointed by the president. The representative specified Directorates of administration including: Administration and Human Resources, Engineering and Technical Services, Treasury Services, Public Health and Environment, Education and Social Services, Legal Affairs, Revenue Collection, Gender, Community Services and Production, Internal Audit and Physical Planning. All responsible with a duty of initiating and formulating relevant policies, setting service delivery standards, determining taxation levels, monitoring general administration and provision of services in the divisions. Enacting legislation, and promoting economic development. Over and above the construction and maintenance of the city infrastructure such as roads, and drainages (Kampala City Council Authority (KCCA) 2013: Online; Karyeija and Kyohaire 2012: p.107).

To ensure effective administration and execution of duties by KCCA, the city is broadly partitioned into five division urban councils. A division urban council is synonymous to a Local Municipality or category B Municipality in South Africa's context. The five divisions comprising of: Kampala Central Division, Kawempe Division, Nakawa Division, Makindye Division and Rubaga Division (See **Figure 5**). Each division is independently administered by locally elected officials, referred to as mayors, town clerks and Local Councillors (LCs) who report directly to the KCCA.

In light of the aim of this study, three divisions were purposively selected, namely; Makindye Division, Kawempe Division, and Kampala Central Division. According to Tukahirwa *et al.* (2011), these divisions are characterized by high a number of slums, with poor access to basic services like sanitation and solid-waste disposal, public schools, and health centres, among others.

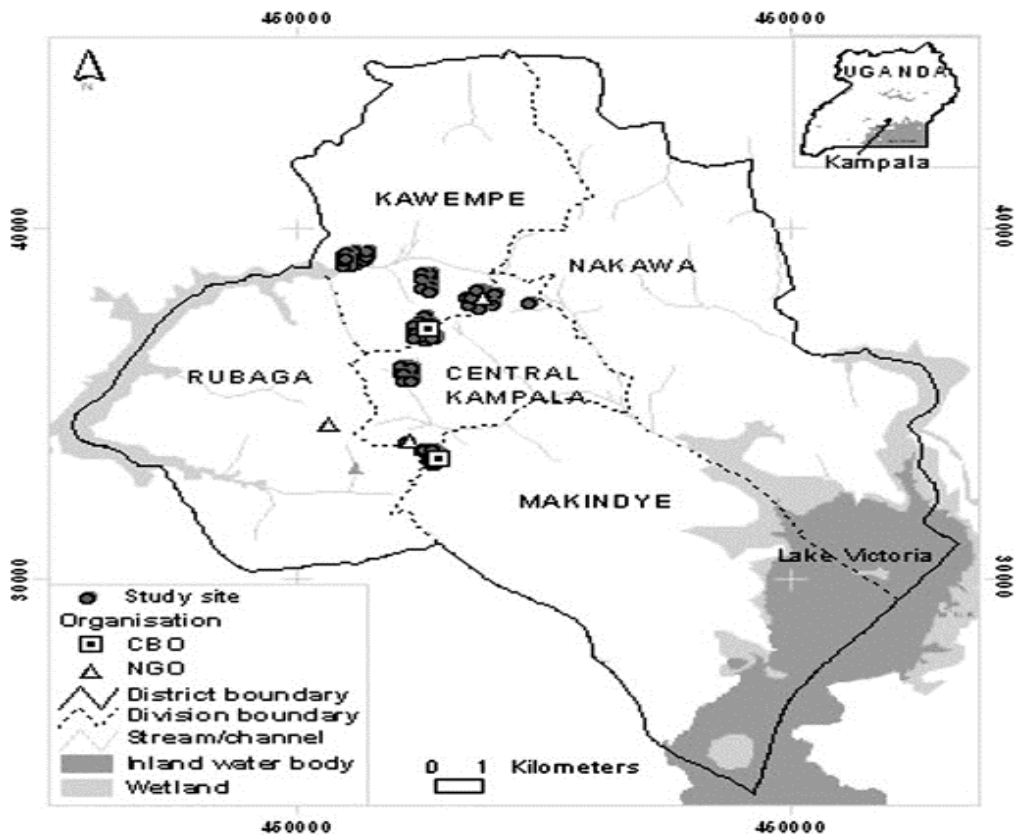
Makindye Division for instance has only one public hospital (Nsambya Hospital) with 21 parishes and has an estimated population of 303,171, (Uganda Population and Housing Census 2002). An annual growth rate of 3.8%, Makindye division is also characterized by an increasing number of slum households within the various parishes. This evident in Bukasa Parish, which is characterized by numerous slum zones, namely: Namuwongo Zone A, Zone B, Kanyogoga and Yoka. Slums that,

according to Kirabira and Nagadya (2012: p.1), are deprived of basic social amenities, and the few that exist are not equitably distributed, thus creating a need to ascertain availability, distribution and utilization of these services.

Kampala Central Division on the other hand, is the smallest and most centrally located with an estimated population of 88,094 (UBOS, 2002). The division is 7km north of Lake Victoria and is divided into 20 parishes, namely; Civic centre, Industrial area, Kagungube, Kamokya, Kisenyi (I, II, III), Kololo, Mengo, Nakasero (I, II, III, IV), Nakivubo and Old Kampala. Though, just like Makindye, Kampala is also home to many slum households within the various parishes, these notably: Makerere Kikoni slum, Bwaise, Katanga, and Kiwunya also deprived of basic services and characterised by poor infrastructural developments.

According to UBOS (2002), Kawempe Division has an urban population estimated at 262,165 people. It has an area of 32.45 square kilometres and borders with Wakiso District in the northwest, Rubaga Division in the southeast, Nakawa Division in the northeast and Central Division in the southwest. The division is also home to some of the City's industrial zones represented in 19 parishes, such as: Kawempe, Jinja-Kawempe, Kanyanya, Kazo, Mpereerwe, Kisaasi, Kikaya, Makerere, Kyebando and Mulago, among others. However, just like the other two divisions prior discussed, this division is characterised by uncontrolled developments and outstandingly pathetic slum conditions (Mukwaya 2011: p.16). These, namely: Bwaise, Kyebando, Kawempe, Makerere and Mulago (Namara 2011: p.16).

Figure 5: MAP OF KAMPALA CITY DIVISIONS



Adapted from: Tukahirwa et al. (2011: p.585)

5.4 SAMPLE SIZE SELECTION

According to Singh (2013), sampling is the process or the method of drawing a definite number of the individuals, cases or observations from a particular population, selecting part of a total group for investigation that is based on two basic principles, notably:

- The Law of Statistical Regularity. This law emanates from a mathematical theory of probability. It states that in a situation where a moderately large number of the items is chosen at random from the large group, one can almost be sure that on the average he/she will possess most of the features of the large group; and
- The Law of Inertia of Large Numbers. It states that “*Ceteris paribus*”, the larger the size of the sample, the more accurate the results are likely to be+(Singh, 2013).

Moreover, according to Breynard and Henekom (2006: p.54), sampling is a technique employed to select a small group (the sample) with a view to determining the characteristics of the large group (population). So, based on the definition of sampling . while keeping in mind the two guiding principles stated above . the subsequent section will try and highlight the sample size and sampling criteria/design that were applied in this research.

5.4.1 Sample Size Determination

According Israel (2013: p.1), determining a sample size is dependent on three important criteria. Firstly, the degree of precision or sampling error; this refers to the range in which the true value of the population is estimated. Secondly, the level of confidence or risk level. Confidence level is based on ideas of the central limit theorem where a population is repeatedly sampled such that the average of the attribute obtained by those samples is equal to the true population; and thirdly, the degree of variability implying the distribution of attributes in the population.

There are different ways of determining a sample size and these include the use of a census or the entire population as the sample, the using of a sample size of a similar study, the employing of published tables which provide a sample size for a given criteria and, lastly, using formulas. In this particular study, the researcher used the formula approach to calculate a sample size. Conversely, notwithstanding the fact that even with the formulae approach, there are various formulae that one can use to calculate the sample size, this research is based on a simplified formula for proportions provided by Yamane (1967: p.887 in Israel 2013: p.4). That is:

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

Where n is the sample size, N is the population size, and e is the level of precision. When the formula is applied, the sample size is yielded. By considering the entire population (1,720,000 people) of Kampala City/District (UBOS, 2002) as the study area and allowing for a 10% level of significance, a sample size of 100 respondents was obtained as illustrated below.

$$\text{Sample size, } n = \frac{17200000}{1 + 1720000(0.1)^2} = 100 \text{ respondents}$$

n=100 respondents

But for quality control purposes and fair representation an additional 20 respondents were added to the 100 obtained by Yamane's equation bringing the total to n=120 respondents

5.4.2 Sampling Design

According to literature (Black 1999: p.118; De Vos et.al. 2007: p.328; and Patton 1990: p.186), sampling design refers to the techniques that one uses to select a research sample. Therefore, based on the fact that there are numerous sampling designs for guidance on the choice of the ideal technique for this research, the differential dimensions of each are summarised. See **Table 5.1** below.

Table 5.1: Sampling Techniques: Advantages and Disadvantages

Technique	Descriptions	Advantages	Disadvantages
Simple Random	Random sample from whole population	Highly representative if all subjects participate; the ideal	Not possible without complete list of population members; potentially uneconomical to achieve; can be disruptive to isolate members from a group; time-scale may be too long, data/sample could change
Stratified Random	Random sample from identifiable groups (strata), subgroups, etc.	Can ensure that specific groups are represented, even proportionally, in the sample(s) (e.g., by gender), by selecting individuals from strata list	More complex, requires greater effort than simple random; strata must be carefully defined
Cluster	Random samples of successive clusters of subjects (e.g. by institution) until small groups are chosen as units	Possible to select randomly when no single list of population members exists, but local lists do; data collected on groups may avoid introduction of confounding by isolating	Clusters in a level must be equivalent and some natural ones are not for essential characteristics (e.g. geographic: numbers equal, but unemployment rates differ)

		members	
Stage	Combination of cluster (randomly selecting clusters) and random or stratified random sampling of individuals	Can make up probability sample by random at stages and within groups; possible to select random sample when population lists are very localized	Complex, combines limitations of cluster and stratified random sampling
Purposive	Hand-pick subjects on the basis of specific characteristics	Ensures balance of group sizes when multiple groups are to be selected	Samples are not easily defensible as being representative of populations due to potential subjectivity of researcher
Quota	Select individuals as they come to fill a quota by characteristics proportional to populations	Ensures selection of adequate numbers of subjects with appropriate characteristics	Not possible to prove that the sample is representative of designated population
Snowball	Subjects with desired traits or characteristics give names of further appropriate subjects	Possible to include members of groups where no lists or identifiable clusters even exist (e.g. drug abusers, criminals)	No way of knowing whether the sample is representative of the population
Volunteer, Accidental, Convenience	Either asking for volunteers, or the consequence of not all those selected finally participating, or a set of subjects who just happen to be available	Inexpensive way of ensuring sufficient numbers of a study	Can be highly unrepresentative

Source: Black, (1999: p.118)

From the above table, it is undeniably true that each one of the above highlighted techniques has something positive/constructive to offer, irrespective of also having a down side to it. But in order to obtain rich in-depth information, taking into consideration the research question in this study as well as the focus area, the researcher used a two-stage stratified sampling design.

At the first stage, participants were selected using a purposive sampling technique. The sampling technique including, participants who had a direct or indirect influence on service delivery decisions as well as participants with the knowledge on citizen participation, service delivery and decision-making. The second stage encompassed

the household representatives from the three selected Kampala city divisions where sampling units were drawn using simple random sampling. The rationale behind this choice was simply to obtain the richest possible source of information to answer the research questions. Additionally, for the researcher to be able to acquire enough information that permits triangulation, flexibility, and that meets multiple interests and needs whilst fitting the purpose of the study, and the resources available.

Following the two-stage stratified sampling design indicated above, in order to assess the influence of exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens in enhancing public service delivery in Uganda, the following numbers of respondents were identified for participation. From the governing body of Kampala . the KCCA . a total of 20 respondents were purposively selected away from the 100 respondents identified from Yamane's equation as presented in **Table 5.2** to take part in the study. That is 10 KCCA political representatives (District Councillors at KCCA level), and 10 representatives from the each of the ten KCCA directorates. The reasoning behind this selection was specifically because KCCA as the governing authority is responsible with a duty of initiating and formulating relevant policies, setting service delivery standards, determining taxation levels, monitoring general administration as well as provision of services in the divisions. The KCCA is also responsible for enacting legislation and promoting economic development. Over and above the construction and maintenance of the city infrastructure such as roads, and drainages (Kampala City Council Authority (KCCA) 2013: online; Karyeija and Kyohaire 2012: p.107).

In addition to the above, keeping in mind the sample size yielded of 100 respondents from Yamane's equation as presented in **5.4.1**, representatives were selected from three division urban councils to represent the citizens. For instance, from the entire sample (n=100), the total number of respondents per division obtained was divided by the total population (653,430 people) of the three divisions (Kawempe, Makindye and Kampala Central), and multiplied by 100 giving the number of respondents per division as expressed below.

- Kawempe Division = $(262,165 / 653,430) * 100 = 40.1 = 40$ respondents;
- Makindye Division = $(303,171 / 653,430) * 100 = 46.4 = 46$ respondents; and

- Kampala Central Division = $(88,094 / 653,430) * 100 = 13.5 = 14$ respondents.

Upon ascertaining the required number of respondents at each division, simple random sampling techniques were used to select the participating households. Irrespective of the lower level zone within the divisions, comprehensive lists of all households within each division were accessed at each division's head offices through the electoral commission registers, after which a random selection of household (representatives) was made. In particular, numbers were written on pieces of paper, rolled and then placed in a closed dark basket. The pieces of paper were then randomly picked from the basket and checked. A corresponding number was then checked from the voters' register and the name of individual recorded. Household details of such a selected individual were taken and the selected individual located for interviewing. In an event that no representative of the selected household was present at the time of the interview, a respondent from the nearby most household participated in the study.

Table 5.2: DETAILED LAYOUT OF SELECTED RESPONDENTS

Category Description	Sampling Criteria	Number Considered	Representatives (per unit)	Total Number
Representative from the executive directorates of administration at KCCA.	Purposive	10	1	10
KCCA political representatives (district councillors at the authority)	Purposive Sampling	10	1	10
Kawempe Division (Representatives)	Simple Random Sampling	(262,165)		40
Makindye Division (Representatives)	Simple Random Sampling	(303, 171)		46
Kampala Central Division (Representatives)	Simple Random Sampling	(88, 094)		14
TOTAL SAMPLE				120

5.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

According to De Vos *et al.* (2005: p.58), protecting respondents against harm goes beyond mere efforts to repair, or attempts to minimize harm afterwards. Citing that subjects can be harmed both physically and emotionally with emotional harm being more difficult to predict and determine. Thus, for this reason, and given the sensitivity of the research topic, to protect the respondents, approval from KCCA was obtained as well as from the respondents, and ethical considerations were taken care of during the research. This was done by informing the respondents in writing about the objectives of the study and requesting them to participate as interviewees. In addition, the identities of the respondents were not disclosed and those that wished to verify the correctness of their input/citation were forwarded the particular sections where they are quoted for perusal consideration.

5.6 QUALITY CONTROL

Quality control is commonly known as the efforts and procedures that survey researchers put in place to ensure the quality and accuracy of data being collected using the methodologies chosen for a particular study (Encyclopaedia on Survey Research Methods 2013). To ensure quality control in this study, all the research assistants recruited to collect data were trained to ensure clarity and consequently were able to collect quality data.

Additionally, before data collection, both the interview schedule and the questionnaire were thoroughly assessed both by the supervisor and other senior researchers in different fields for competence, validity and reliability. Over and above being pre-tested in the researchers' neighbourhood in Uganda to make sure that the respondents understood the questions clearly. Similarly, to establish content validity . that is the degree to which the research instruments actually measures the traits for which they were designed . the researcher measured the Content Validity Index (CVI) applying a formula proposed by Amin (2005: p.228) as shown below:

Average of CVI = No. of items rated valid ÷ All items in the questionnaires

The above equation simply implying that the instruments adopted for data collection are valid if when tested using the equation, the measure generates an index equal to () 0.7 or greater than () 0.7. Therefore, following the above equation, given that the CVI generated from the tools adopted for this study was 0.8. This implies that the tools used generated valid data.

5.7 DATA ANALYSIS

Given that a mixed method was employed in this study, data collected was analysed, discussed and interpreted under themes derived from the study measurable elements inform of variables at two levels viz. Univariate and Multivariate levels as elaborated below.

5.7.1 Univariate Level of Analysis

At this level, also the first level in analysis, data was presented using frequency tables and percentages, which helped depict the distribution of respondents on each of the independent variables under *broad participation*, *citizen satisfaction* and *aftermath of participation*. This section specifically combined both quantitative and qualitative results whereby the quantitative results were supplemented by the verbatim quotations of the respondents' opinions from the interviews.

5.7.2 Multivariate Level of Analysis

As the second stage of analysis, the multivariate level involved use of ordered logistic regression to determine the factors with in the variables responsible for quality of services delivered. Only p-values of less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant. Ordered Logit model simply models the cumulative Logit as a linear function of independent variables:

Ordered Logit Model equation

$$(C_{ij}) = \alpha_j - \beta X_i$$

Where:

C_{ij} = the value of the dependant variable (quality of services) in the i^{th} row and j^{th} column;

α = a constant;

β = the coefficient of the independent variables, and

X_{ij} = the independent variables (broad participation, citizen satisfaction and after math)

From the above, the equation implying that for each α_j indicates the Logit of the odds are being equal to or less than category j for the baseline group (when all independent variables are zero). Thus, these intercepts will increase over j . Whereas β_j tells us how a one-unit increase in the independent variable increases the log-odds of being higher than category j (due to the negative sign), because, this β_j is not indexed by j , so a one-unit increase affects the log-odds the same regardless of which cut-point is considered.

5.8 CONCLUSION

Given that the main aim of the research was to answer the question: To what extent, can the realisation of democratic rights and obligations of citizens add value to the betterment of public service delivery in Uganda? The fact that the research design is a guiding map of any study, in this chapter an overview of the research design and methodology used in the study was provided. This by specifically providing the sample selection, describing the procedure used in designing the instrument and collecting the data, and providing an explanation of the statistical procedures used to analyse the data. More so, given that the empirical data needed was specifically directed at assessing the role of exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens in enhancing public service delivery in Uganda. To gather concrete evidence, as well as develop a standard measure for the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens, in this chapter the measurable elements in the form of variables were identified, each of which were measured using indicators.

The next chapter, chapter 6 will present the empirical findings, tests the hypothesis and also discusses the findings in relation to the main aim of the study.

CHAPTER 6: EMPIRICAL FINDINGS ON THE REALITIES AND PRACTICES REGARDING THE EXERCISE OF DEMOCRATIC RIGHTS AND OBLIGATION OF CITIZENS AS WELL AS ITS IMPLICATIONS TOWARDS SERVICE DELIVERY IN UGANDA

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter basically presents the empirical findings, tested for the hypothesis stating that the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens by citizens has a positive implication towards service delivery. This chapter also discusses the findings in relation to the main aim of the study. The findings specifically presented under the three main headings: socio-demographic characteristics of the quantitative respondents, findings of the study at the univariate levels of analysis, and findings of the study at multivariate levels of analysis.

6.2 SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CITIZENS SURVEYED

The socio-demographic characteristics included in the study were: age, sex, education level, occupation and residence these specifically because the responses on perceptions on democracy, participation, performance may vary depending of age, sex, education level, occupation and residential status. It is also likely that respondents' socio-demographic status (e.g. age, sex and occupation) have effects on citizen participation in decision-making. The respondents' socio-demographic characteristics are presented below:

TABLE 6: DISTRIBUTION OF QUANTITATIVE RESPONDENTS BY DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Age		
18-22	29	29
23-27	16	16
28-32	19	19
33-37	10	10
38-42	17	17
43+	9	9

Sex		
Male	46	46
Female	54	54
Level of Education		
Primary	12	12
Secondary	45	45
Higher	40	40
None	3	3
Occupation		
Formal employment	26	26
Informal employment	34	34
Unemployed	40	40
Residence		
Urban	90	90
Peri Urban	10	10
Total	100	100

Table 6 shows that the largest percentile of the quantitative respondents that were included in the survey are young . where 29% were between the ages 18 and 22, 9% were above the age of 43, and the rest were between the ages of 22 and 42 years. Male and female representation in the study was 46% and 54% respectively. 45% of the respondents had secondary education, 40% higher education and 12% had only primary education and 3% had no education. The majority of the respondents (40%) were not employed . of which females were the larger portion. Furthermore, 34% of respondents were employed informally and 26% were employed formally. In terms of residence, the majority, 90% of the respondents, included in the study were from urban settings . this attributed to the fact that the study was conducted in the Capital city.

6.3 FINDINGS OF THE STUDY AT UNIVARIATE LEVEL OF ANALYSIS

At this level, also the first level in analysis, data was presented using frequency tables, graphs and percentages, which helped illustrate the distribution of respondents on each of the independent variables under broad participationq

satisfaction and aftermath of participation. This section specifically combines both quantitative and qualitative results, whereby the quantitative results were supplemented by the verbatim quotations of the respondents' opinions from the in-depth interviews.

6.3.1 Description of independent variable: Exercising Democratic rights and obligation of citizens

This section describes the independent variable 'Exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens' which the study conceptualized using three indicators, namely: 'broad participation', 'citizen satisfaction' and 'aftermath of participation'.

6.3.1.1 Broad citizen Participation

According to Griffin-Ives (2011: p.34), citizen involvement efforts are most meaningful when a diverse group of stakeholders engage in activities. This implies that without adequate representation of the greater community, public processes can be dominated by special interests groups. Of which this deters the ability to increase citizen trust in government and government's ability to create authentic support for policies. Therefore, with the goals of citizen participation (such as nurturing democratic spirit, developing policies people want, and fostering support for reasonable policies), the need for broad representation of stakeholders must be clear. Thus, the first indicator of exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens is broad public participation.

Broad participation in this study was measured using sub-indicators, namely: knowledge on democracy, citizens' responsibilities, citizen participation procedures, access to citizen participation initiatives, citizen involvement in decision-making processes, and perception towards citizen participation initiatives. All of which were explored in the survey as well as in the interview questions as presented in the findings below.

6.3.1.1.1 Knowledge on democratic characteristics in Uganda

In order to measure the citizens' knowledge on democracy in Uganda, using the well-recognised democratic characteristics, respondents were asked two questions

on each characteristic of democracy. The first being whether the democratic characteristics were essential to them, and the second if they are respected in Uganda. See **Table 6.1**

TABLE 6.1: DISTRIBUTION OF CITIZEN'S KNOWLEDGE TOWARDS DEMOCRATIC CHARACTERISTICS

Democratic characteristics	Essence of Democratic Characteristics in Uganda		Respect for Democratic Characteristics in Uganda			
	Yes	NO	Never	Rarely	Often	Always
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Freedom of expression	85	15	4	30	30	36
Freedom of press/media	76	24	11	27	30	32
Equality before the law	50	50	23	35	25	17
Political freedom	83	17	1	22	28	49
Free and fair elections	73	27	10	23	31	36
Freedom of movement	77	23	11	19	22	48
Religious freedom	92	8	0	11	15	74
Freedom of association	75	25	4	22	27	47
Absence of discrimination	50	50	14	40	25	21

Table 6.1 suggests that, out of the 100 quantitative respondents (citizens) that took part in the survey, the majority acknowledged the essence of the democratic characteristics. Whereby, with regards to the freedom of expression, at least 85% of the respondents acknowledge the essence of freedom of expression, 76% the essence of freedom of press. 50% of the respondents said yes, it is essential to have equality before the law, 83% said yes for political freedom, 73% of the respondents

agreed to the essence of free and fair elections, 77% agreed to freedom of movement while 92% acknowledged the essence of religious freedom. Over and above the 75% and 50% that acknowledged freedom of expression and absence of discrimination respectively.

However, irrespective of the above responses from the citizens, with regards to the essence of democratic characteristics, when asked if these democratic characteristics were respected in Uganda, the citizens had varying responses. For instance, although 85% cited the essence of freedom of expression, only 36% reported that it is always respected, 30% reported that it is often respected, and another 30% said it is rarely respected. In relation to the other characteristics, such as freedom of the press, 11% reported that this is never respected in Uganda and 27% noted that it is rarely respected in Uganda. In relation to equality before the law, a higher percentage, 23%, reported that this is never respected while 35% said that it is rarely respected. Even as only small percentages of 25% and 17% reported that it is often respected and always respected, respectively.

Similarly, when it comes to political freedom, 28% stated that it is often respected as opposed to the 48% that stated that freedom of movement is always respected in Uganda. Moreover regarding the absence of discrimination that is based on race, tribe, sex, regional origin, language, poverty or wealth, religion and others, 40% of the citizens reported that this characteristic of democracy is rarely respected in Uganda. Another 14% reported that it is never respected, while the remaining 25% and 21% of the citizens reported that it is often respected, and always respected.

Thus, from the above results, irrespective of the fact that the essences of almost all democratic characteristics are acknowledged by the citizens, a reasonable percentage of these citizens believe that these democratic characteristics are not respected. Whereby a reasonable number (23%) believes equality before the law is not respected, whereas freedom of expression, press and discrimination are rarely respected. Therefore, based on the fact that for broad participation to flourish, people need to trust the government to protect their rights and safety, respect of democratic characteristics should be a prerequisite for the government to ensure that all citizens

. including the minority . participate in and contribute to their country's democratic institutions so as to improve services.

6.3.1.1.2 Knowledge on the Rights and Responsibilities of citizens

As stated earlier: in a democracy, citizens should assume their responsibilities fully, both in politics and in the society, if they expect their rights to be preserved. Therefore, given that for citizens to exercise their democratic rights and obligations, they must be fully aware of these rights and obligations. In order to establish this awareness, the citizens' knowledge on the rights and responsibilities was assessed as shown in **Table 6.2** below.

Table 6.2: Distribution of respondents by knowledge on their Rights and responsibilities

Sub-indicator	YES	NO
	%	%
Citizens awareness of rights and responsibilities	96	4
Rights		
Information	44	56
Fair judgement	46	54
Participation in elections	36	64
Participation in decision-making	17	83
Demand for accountability	7	93
Access to services	47	53
Others	21	79
Responsibilities		
Voting	77	23
Taxes	31	69
Participation in planning meetings	15	85
Others	24	76

Table 6.2 suggests that although 96% of the citizens are actually aware that they have rights and responsibilities, at the same time many of them are actually not

knowledgeable of what these rights are or even what their responsibilities are. For example, out of the 100 survey respondents that participated, only 44% were able to mention the right to information, 46% and 36% mentioning the right to fair judgement and right to participate in elections respectively. Only 17% mentioned the right to participate in decision-making, whereas 7% acknowledged the right to demand for accountability, and 47% were able to mention right to access social services. In addition to the 21% who mentioned other rights such as the right to worship, the right food, the right to clothing, the right to protection, and the right movement to mention.

Regarding the citizens responsibilities, 77% of the citizens know that their responsibility to the nation is to participate in voting as opposed to the other responsibilities such as: paying taxes and attending planning meetings at various levels. On the whole, only 31% were able to mention paying taxes as a responsibility out of the 100 respondents, thus implying that 69% of the citizens do not know that it is their responsibility to pay taxes. This irrespective of the fact that taxes directly generate revenue for the nation, which revenue is then used to deliver services to the citizens, where the amount of revenue generated would determine the quality of services to be provided, keeping other factors constant.

Generally, from the findings presented in **Table 6.2**, it can be deduced that, in general, the awareness level on citizens rights and responsibilities is out of balance in Uganda. For instance, based on the findings above, the right to participate in decision-making, and subsequently the right to demand for accountability on the quality of services delivered, are not widely known among the citizens. Additionally, despite the fact that it is the citizens responsibility to participate in decision-making and on-going government activity, from the results presented in **Table 6.2**, citizens do not know that it is their responsibility to participate in decision-making meetings such that only 15% were able to mention this as their responsibility. This, leading to adduction that there is likelihood that even if planning meetings are called at Local Council (1) level, citizens would not turn up because they do not know that it is their responsibility to attend.

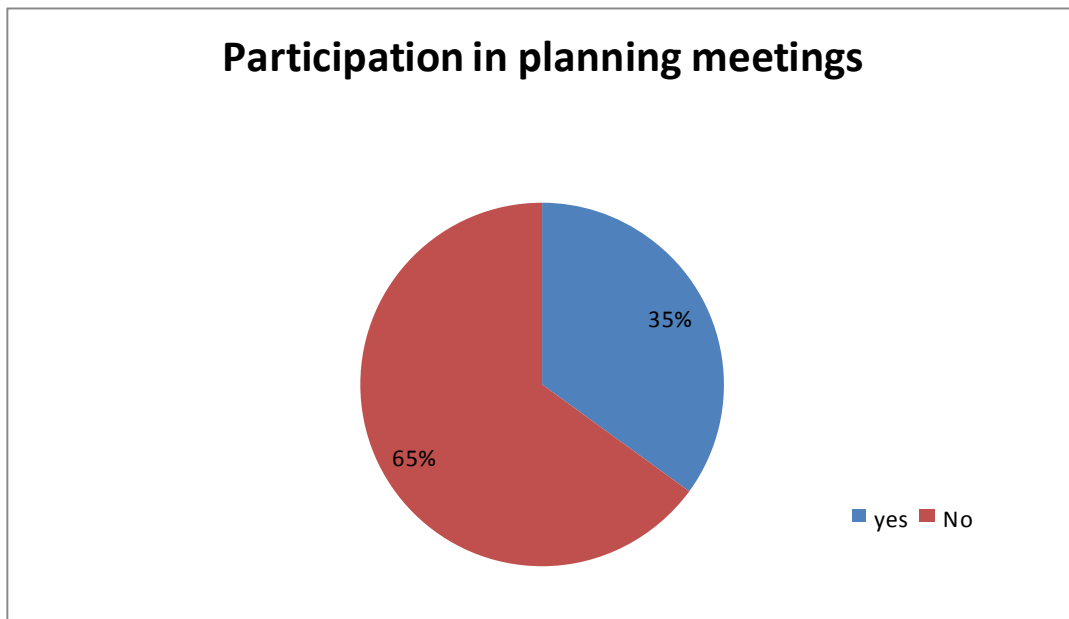
Therefore, the fact that with each right there is a responsibility attached, and success or failure of government lies strongly in the hands of the citizens dependent on their

active involvement in the day-to-day running of government, and not anyone else. For the quality service delivery, rights and responsibilities of citizens in Uganda still need to be addressed.

6.3.1.1.3 Citizen involvement in decision making process

According to the United Nations Public Administration Programme (2013), citizen participation implies the involvement of citizens in a wide range of policy-making activities including the determination of levels of service, budget priorities, and the acceptability of physical construction projects in order to orient government programs toward community needs, building public support, and encouraging a sense of cohesiveness within neighbourhoods. Therefore, to try and measure the level of exercising democratic rights and obligations under the variable *broad participation* the level of citizen involvement in decision-making was evaluated through various question categories of the questionnaire as illustrated below.

Figure 6: During the last 12 months, did you participate in any planning meetings for social services (water and sanitation, education, roads, health, agriculture, electricity and physical infrastructure) in your community?



From **Figure 6** above, survey responses depict that out of the 100 survey respondents, 65% indicated that they did not participate in any planning meetings for the social service deliveries. The results thus imply that there is minimal citizen participation in planning meetings for social services (water and sanitation, education, roads, health, agriculture electricity and physical infrastructure) in Kampala district.

To probe more into involvement, respondents were also asked the question: Do your local leaders involve you in decision making processes on issues that affect your community? Yes/No and if yes in what decision-making processes have you been involved in? See **Table 6.3** for the response.

Table 6.3: Do your local leaders involve you in decision making processes on issues that affect your community? Yes/No and if yes in what decision making processes have you been involved in?

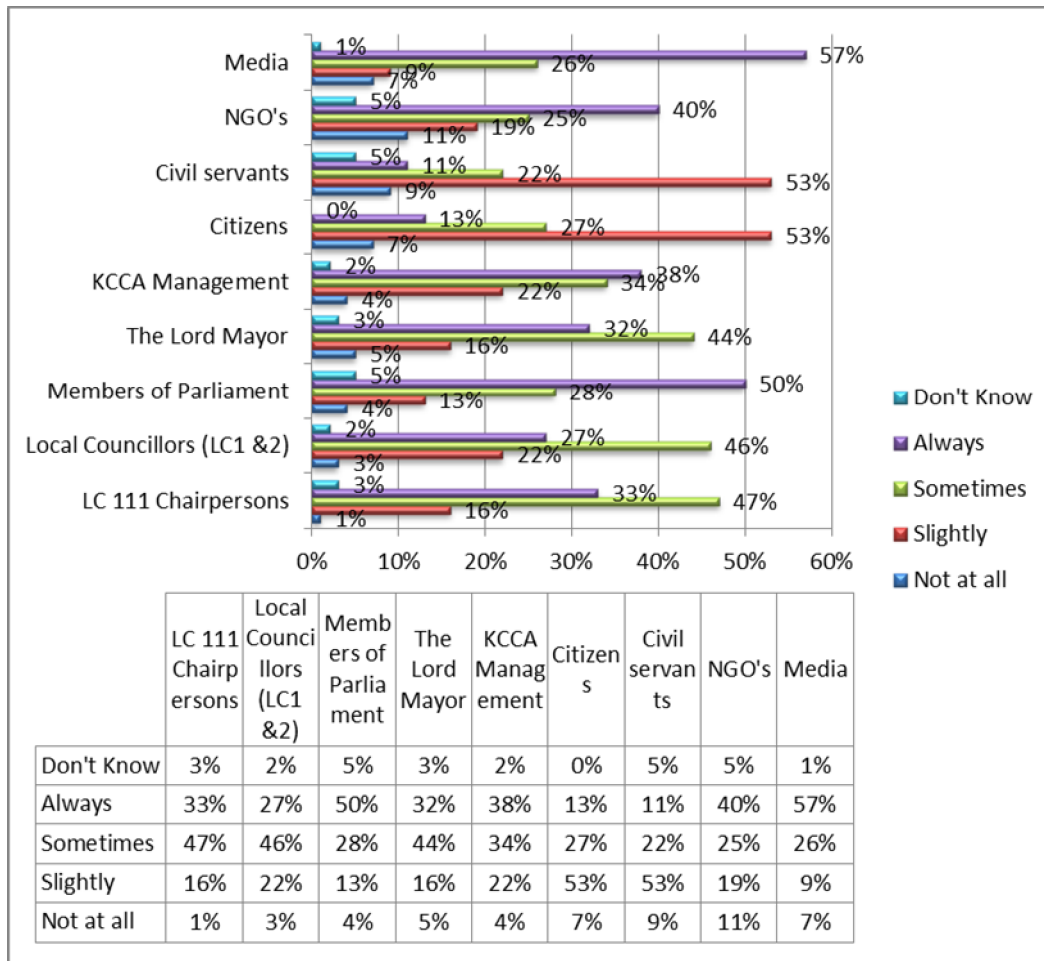
Sub-indicator	N	YES	NO	Don't know
		%	%	%
Citizen Involvement by local leaders	100	47	53	0
Decision making processes involved in				
<i>Security issues</i>	47	74.5	25.5	0
<i>Social services</i>	47	51.1	48.9	0
<i>Political issues</i>	47	38.3	61.7	0

From the findings presented in **Table 6.3**, out of the 100 survey respondents that took part in the study, only 47% reported to have been involved by their local leaders in decision-making while the other 53% reported that they had not been involved. Whereas when asked what decision-making processes they have been involved in, majority of the respondents, 74.5%, stated that they had been involved in security issues, 51.1% were involved in issues related to social services, and 38.3% reported

to have been involved in political issues. Therefore, the fact that only 47% out of the 100 citizens reported that they had been involved in decision-making by their local leaders it is a clear indication that citizen involvement in decision-making is minimal in Kampala district.

But not to base involvement on only the above questions, citizens were also asked to rate the extent to which they feel the following actors: LC11 Chairpersons, local councillors, members of parliament Mayor, KCC management, citizens, civil servants, private and non-profit organisations, media and others; influence public sector decision-making on service delivery issues on the scale that indicates 1 = not at all, 2 = slightly, 3 = sometimes, 4 = always and 5 = don't know as shown below.

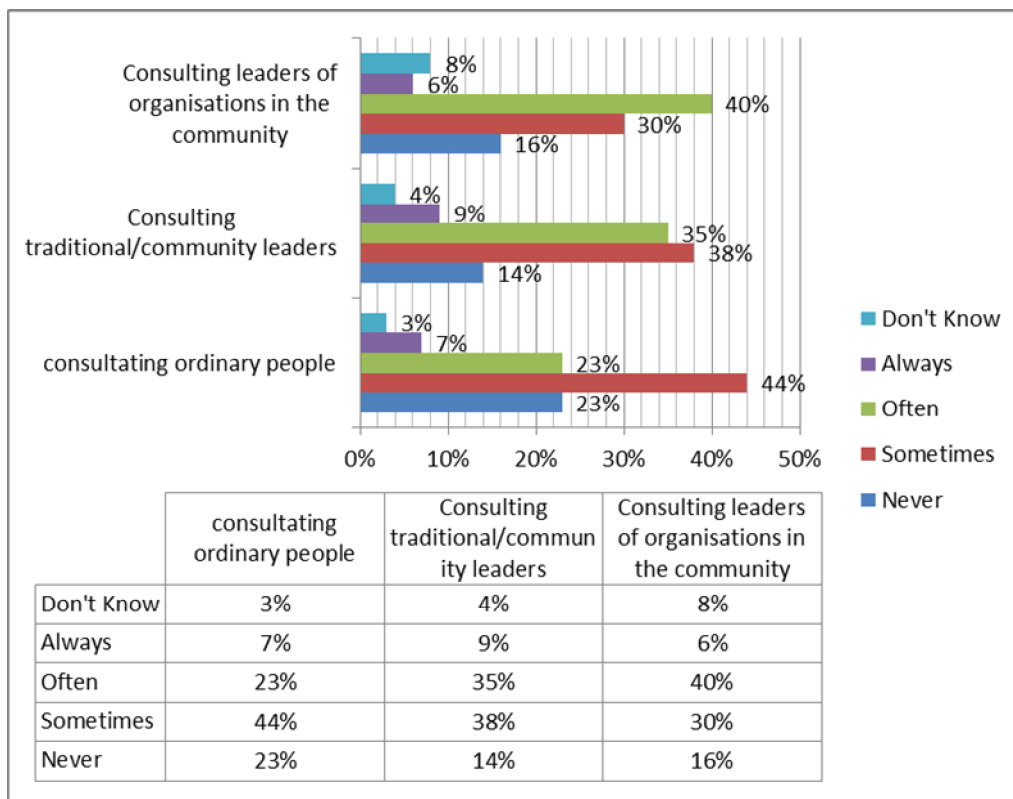
Figure 6.1: Using a scale of 1–5, (1=not at all, 2= slightly, 3=sometimes, 4= always and 5=don't know) to what extent do you the following actors influence public sector decision-making on service delivery issues?



Based on the findings depicted in **Figure 6.1**, a substantial number of citizens note that public sector decision-making on service delivery issues is always influenced by members of parliament (50%), media (57%), private and non-profit organisations (40%), KCCA management (38%), Lord Mayor (32%), and the LC111 chairpersons (33%). While other actors such as local councillors, citizens and civil servants slightly influence public sector decision-making on service delivery issues. This then implies that although there are many actors involved in decision making on service delivery issues, only a few are considered all the time and for the rest, like the citizens and local councillors, it is a once-off venture . hence highlighting a gap in the stakeholder involvement in decision-making in Kampala district.

Furthermore, to inquire more on involvement, respondents were also asked if they would say the public sector decision-making on service delivery issues are taken with consultations from other groups like: ordinary people, and traditional/community leaders of community organizations. See **Figure 6.2** below.

Figure 6.2: Distribution of consultations on decision-making processes by response



From **Figure 6.2** above, 44% of the survey respondents reported that ordinary people are sometimes consulted, 23% reported that they are often consulted, and 23% said that they are never consulted. When it came to the consultation of traditional/community leaders, 38% of the respondents said that they are sometimes consulted, 35 said they are often consulted, 14% never consulted, and the remaining 9% did not know. Regarding the consultation of leaders of organisations in the community, 40% of the respondents reported that they are often consulted, 30% said that they are sometimes consulted, 16% said that they are never consulted, and the remaining 6% did not know. Thus, the fact that less than 50% of the respondents could attest to the full consultation of the leaders of organisations in the community, community leaders and ordinary citizens, it can be deduced that there is still a lack of consultation in the participation process . especially at local level in Kampala.

Nevertheless, following from the above discussions based on (**Figures 6, 6.1, 6.2** and **Tables 6.2, 6.3**). The contradictory response in the survey was evidently justified by the qualitative data results. That is when the key informants (interviewees) were asked to identify who they perceived as the key actors/stakeholders in public decision-making on issues relating to service delivery. The majority (90%) of the key informants (KCC officials), cited that civil servants and the government in general are the key actors/stakeholders in public decision-making on issues relating to service delivery. With one respondent stating that *“decision-making on issues relating to service delivery as a matter of fact is more of a top down decision-making process mainly attributed to the limitation of funds, lack of expertise, culture in the public service and the perceptions of the public servants that the citizens do know what they want with limited knowledge on key issues”*. Whilst another respondent said *“it’s mainly because the government has the voice and the funds to dictate the decisions.”*

Based on the argument that citizen consultation derives government awareness, which helps government policy-makers to know exactly who needs what, where and when. Also the fact that if a government is not aware of who its clients are, what services they want, and how they evaluate the services, it is unlikely that such a government will meet the needs of the citizens (Ebdon, 2002). Not forgetting that involvement and consultation strengthen beneficiary control (service providersq

accountability to citizen-clients) that boosts transparency which exposes the weaknesses in accountability of the local government officials. Looking at the survey and interview responses above, it can be deduced that there is still lack of involvement and consultation in public decision-making on issues relating to service delivery.

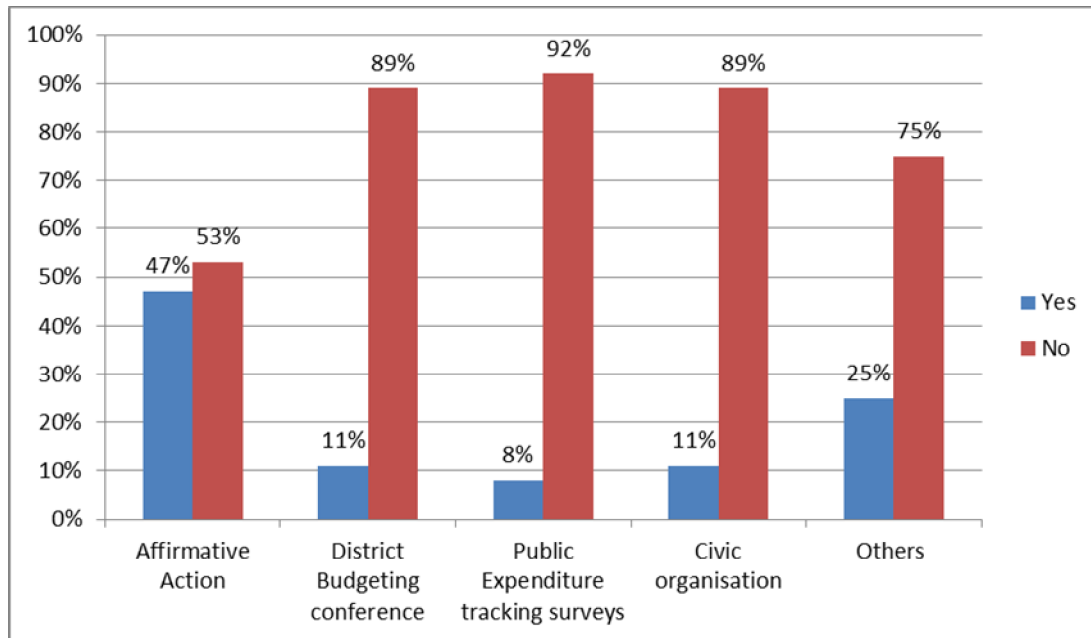
Therefore, it is imperative to involve all actors in order to increase their participation so as to improve the involvement process, whilst facilitating an appropriate framework for citizens to exercise their roles and responsibilities.

6.3.1.1.4 Perceptions towards citizen participation initiatives

Literature asserts that perception is a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment. This means that the world that is perceived is the world that is behaviourally important, mainly because people's behaviour is based on their perception of what reality is and not on reality itself. Therefore, the fact that perceptions are not inherited but can be acquired through direct experience with an object and association and communication from others, perceptions play a crucial role in the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens and can thus be used as an indicator of broad participation.

Thus, to try and measure the level of exercising democratic rights and obligations under the variable *broad participation* perceptions towards citizen participation initiatives were also measured as shown in the figures below.

Figure 6.3: Are you aware of the following government initiatives towards citizen participation (1) Affirmative Action, (2) District Budgeting Conference, (3) Public Expenditure Tracking Surveys, (4) Civic Organisation and (5) any others known to you?



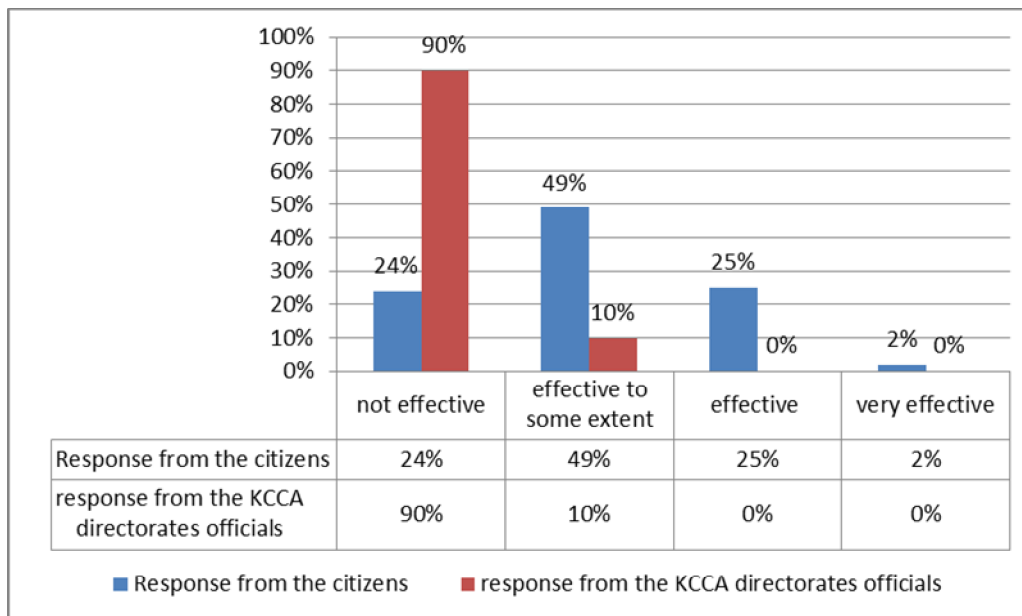
Based on **figure 6.3** above, the majority of the respondents that took part in the survey are not aware of the government initiatives in place supporting citizen participation. With the highest number, 47% only, being aware of Affirmative Action . something that can be attributed to the campaign at its initiation in 2000 among the 10-point programmes by National Resistance Movement (NRM) government. The rest of the initiatives were not known to many citizens, like the district budget conference mentioned by only 11%, and the Public Expenditure Tracking Surveys (PETS) mentioned by only 8%, despite the fact that PETS is recognised as Uganda's international best practice in citizen participation.

Nonetheless, despite the above findings from the survey, when asked about the initiatives in place for citizen participation all of the interviewees were aware of these initiatives and even more. Such that some mentioned various initiatives in their directorates such as tax clinics, community committees, *Baraza's* and the Community Demand Development Programme (CDDP), amongst others in the pipeline.

So emanating from the findings above, it can be deduced that there is a gap in awareness of the government initiatives supporting participation between the citizens and the implementers, which in this case are the representatives from KCCA directorates.

In addition to the above question, both the survey and interview respondents were asked to rate government initiatives towards citizen participation as shown in **Figure 6.4** below.

Figure 6.4: How effective would you rate the government’s initiatives towards citizen participation?

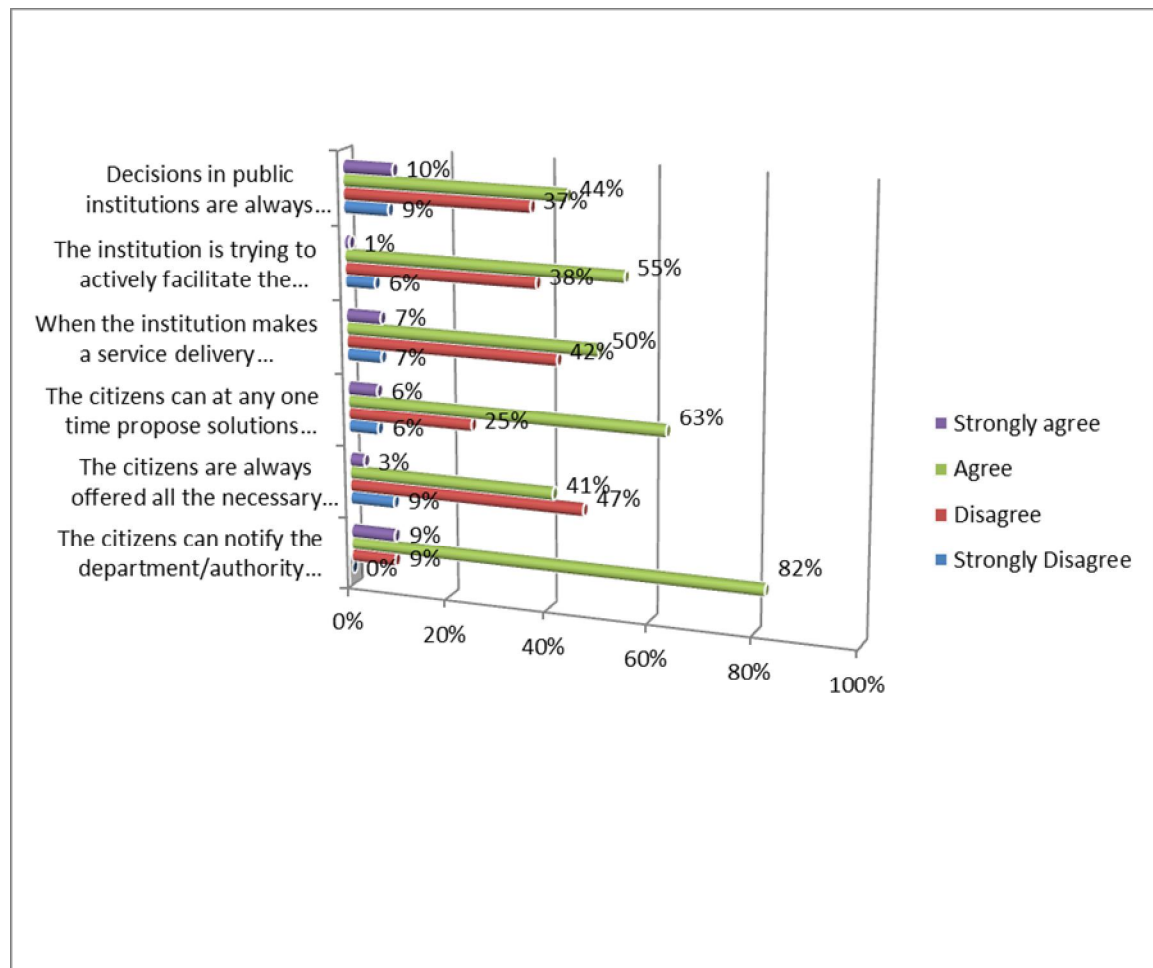


Following from **Figure 6.4**, both the quantitative and qualitative respondents had different levels of awareness of the government initiatives in place supporting citizen participation. Of which the interviewees had absolute knowledge of these initiatives and more, when asked to rate these initiatives, 90% stated that government initiatives in place for citizen participation are not effective at all. Whilst the remaining 10% said they are effective to some extent. Moreover, irrespective of the fact that the survey respondents were not aware of these initiatives, 49% said they were effective

to some extent and 24% said that they were not effective at all. This showing that citizen participation initiatives are still lacking.

Therefore, the fact that strengthening of participation in local governance has to do with the strengthening of direct citizen involvement in decision-making by individuals or groups in public activities, and often through newly established institutional channels . e.g. monitoring committees and planning processes. Having initiatives supporting citizen participation is important but also the effectiveness of these initiatives is critical for the effective exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens.

Figure 6.5: Indicate the extent to which they agree with the statements referring to citizen involvement in the community using a four point Likert – type scale ranging from “Strongly disagree” (1) to “Strongly agree”(4)



From **Figure 6.5** above, 82% of the quantitative respondents agreed that citizens can notify the authorities in case of problems in the community such as disease outbreak, water perforations, sewage leakages, and electricity-associated problems. 47% disagreed and noted that citizens are not offered all the necessary information regarding the service delivery decisions pending adoption while 41% agreed. 63% agreed that citizens can, at any time, propose solutions regarding community problems on service delivery matters. 50% agreed that when the institution makes service delivery decisions, the citizens's suggestions or opinions regarding the matter at hand are always taken into consideration by the officials. In addition, 42% disagreed while the remaining 7% each either strongly disagreed or strongly agreed. 55% agreed that the institution (KCCA) is trying to actively facilitate the involvement of both the citizens and other society groups in the decision-making process. This was disagreed by 38% and strongly disagreed by 6%. 1% strongly agreed. Decisions in public institutions are always made without informing or even consulting citizens; this was agreed with by 44%, disagreed with by 37%, strongly disagreed with by 9%, and strongly agreed with by 10%.

In responding to the same question, the interviewees were divided in their views where 33% of the interviewees strongly disagreed with the statement "the citizens can notify the department about the potential problems in the community". 50% strongly disagreed with the statement that the citizens are always offered the necessary information regarding the service delivery decisions pending adoption as opposed to the other 33% that disagreed. 50% strongly agreed that when the institution makes a service delivery decisions, the citizens's suggestions or opinions regarding the matter at hand are always taken into consideration by the officials, 33% disagreed while the remaining 17% agreed. 67% of respondents agreed that the institution is trying to actively facilitate the involvement of both the citizens and other society groups in the decision-making process; this is both disagreed with and agreed with by 17% respectively.

From the above responses, though 80% of the survey respondents agreed that they can notify the Kampala City Council Authority about their potential problems, 47 of the survey respondents and 50% of the interviewees indicated that citizens are not offered the necessary information regarding service delivery decisions pending

adoption. This implies that even if the citizens can notify the administrative authority about their problems, the citizens are not informed on the decision made thereafter. This is clearly justified by the 37%, and 9% that strongly disagreed with the statement "decisions in public institutions are always made without informing or even consulting citizens". Thus, implying that despite the fact that citizens can communicate their problems at any time, there is still a shortage in making all the information available to the citizens regarding decision-making. Therefore, based on the argument that registering complaints on issues affecting the community ensures citizen participation and is a significant way to influence effective service delivery, for this type of mechanism to work an effective information sharing must also exist between the decision makers and the citizens.

6.3.1.2 Citizen satisfaction

Referred to as the summative judgment regarding the performance oneself or one's government, with respect to quality of basic services, overall citizen satisfaction is a necessary variable for evaluating the success and performance of the whole citizen participation process or the derived importance of specific services. Thus implying that citizen satisfaction plays a critical role in one's choice to either participate or refrain from participation. Therefore, just like broad participation, citizen satisfaction was used as the second indicator to measure exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens.

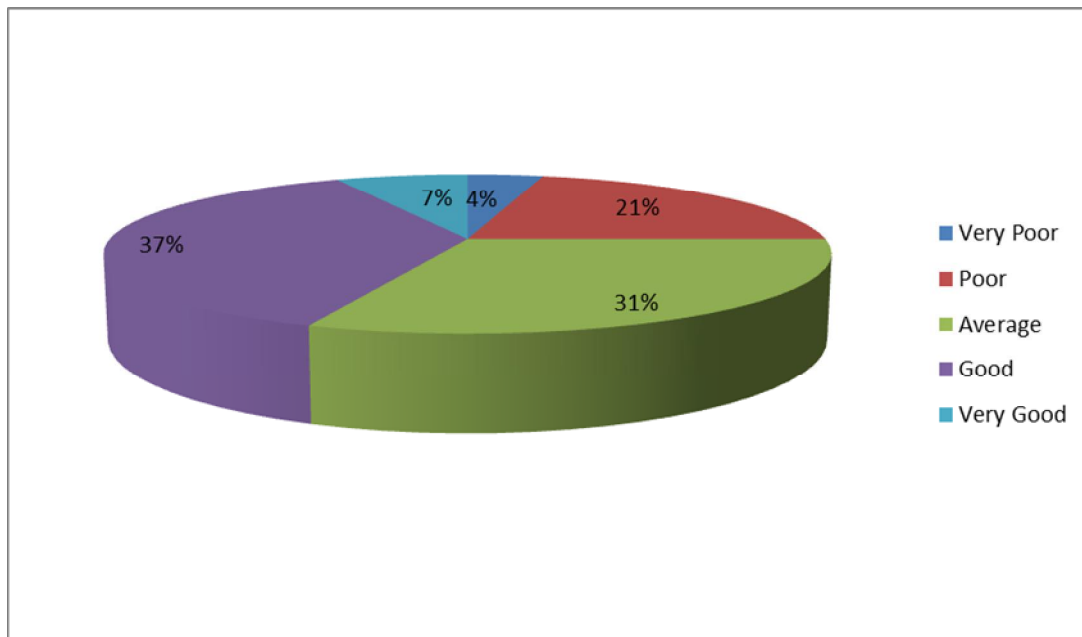
Citizen Satisfaction as the second indicator of exercising democratic rights and obligations was measured using the following sub-indicators: satisfaction with the citizen participation processes, satisfaction with services offered, and satisfaction with the performance of the citizen facilitators. All of which were explored in the survey and interview questions as presented in the findings below.

6.3.1.2.1 Satisfaction with the quality of services delivered

According to Kotler *et al.*, (2002: p.831) quality is the totality of features and characteristics of a product or services that bear on its ability to satisfy stated or implied needs. Thus, by definition, one can assert that quality is related to the value of an offer, which could evoke satisfaction or dissatisfaction on the part of the user

and in turn influence one's choice to either participate or not to participate. Therefore, to try and measure citizen satisfaction, respondents were asked to rate the quality of social services delivered in their communities as depicted in figure below.

Figure 6.6: Using the scale of 1-6 (1 – very poor, 2 – poor, 3 – average, 4 – good, 5 – very good, 6 – don't know) how would you rate the quality of the social service delivered in your community?



Based on **Figure 6.6** above, 37% of the survey respondents rated the quality of services provided as good, 7% rated the quality of services as very good, 31% rated the quality of services as average, and 21% rated quality of services provided as poor, and 4% rated the quality of services very poor. Therefore, based on these results, it can be deduced that there is low satisfaction with the quality of services seeing that less than 50% rated the quality of services good.

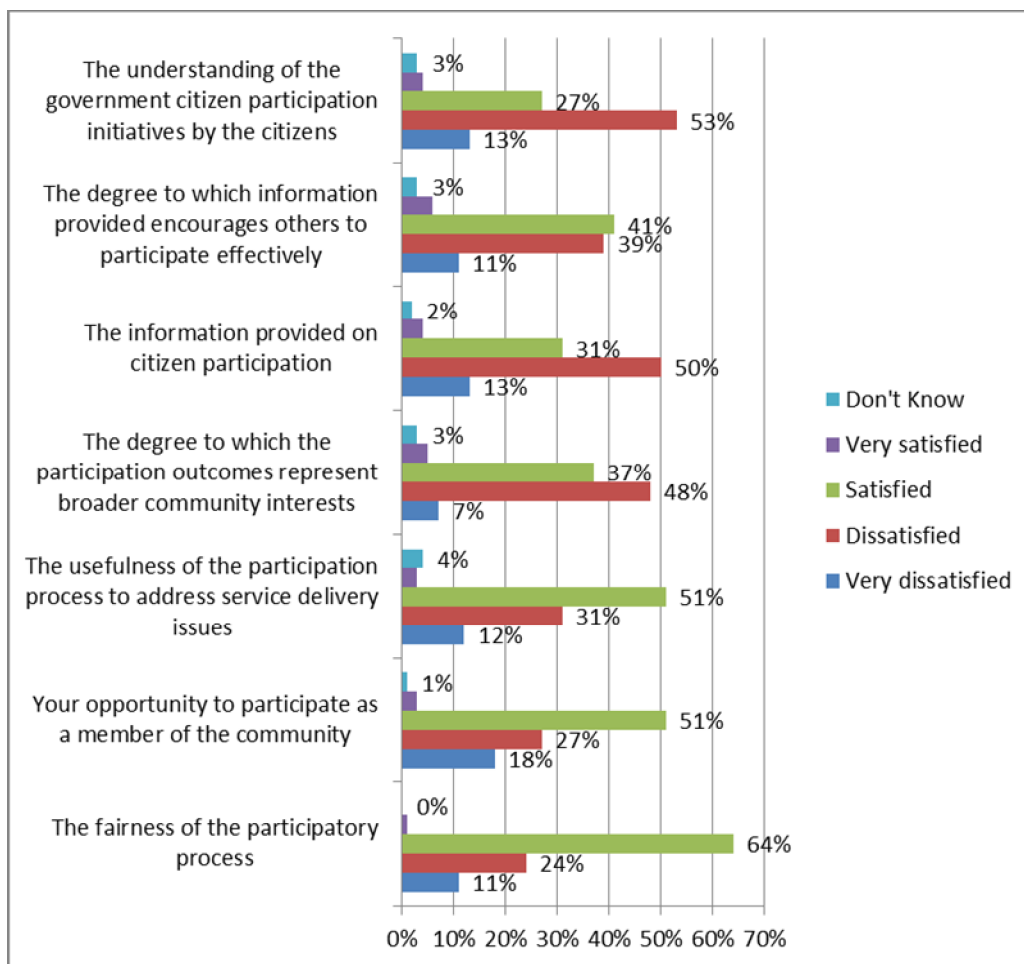
The fact that, there has been a quality shift in the public sector with a component of a series of reforms and transformation effort geared towards total eradication of the traditional bureaucratic model and its eventual replacement with a more client-oriented paradigm, relevant in the delivery of best value to the public. Provision of quality services that satisfy citizen needs has become a critical issue, as well as a dilemma affecting the modern service delivery sector and the perceptions of citizens.

Thus satisfaction with the services is very important. This is mainly because if the majority of the citizens are not satisfied with the quality of services provided. This can result in to other effects like protests and refraining from public participation due to what we can call %do not care+attitude . after all, the services are poor, why participate?

6.3.1.2.2 Satisfaction with participation processes

According to Griffin-Ives (2011), in order to create buy-in from the citizens and garner support from the greater community, the citizen participation processes should be effectively managed. This is mainly because if the processes are effectively managed, it will encourage more participation and also add value to policy creation . especially on service related matters. Therefore, to try and establish the effectiveness of the participation process with the view of increasing the exercise of democratic rights and obligations, respondents were asked to state their level of satisfaction with participation the processes as shown in **Figure 6.7**.

Figure 6.7: Based on the scale of 1 to 4 (1 = very dissatisfied, 2-dissatisfied, 3-satisfied and 4-very satisfied), how satisfied are you with each of the following: the fairness of the participatory process, your opportunity to participate, the usefulness of the participation process to address service delivery issues, the degree to which the participation outcomes represent broader community interests, the information provided on citizen participation, the degree to which the information provided encourages others to participate effectively and the understanding of the government initiatives by the district councillors.



From the figure above, out of the 100 respondents surveyed, the respondents had mixed views on the satisfaction with the participation process. For instance, although many of the respondents (more than 50%) were satisfied with the fairness of the

participatory process, the opportunities to participate in the usefulness of the participation process to address service delivery issues. The same respondents, still over 50%, were dissatisfied with the degree to which the participation outcomes represent the broader community, the information provided on citizen participation, the degree to which information provided encourages others to participate, and the understanding of government-citizen participation initiatives by the citizens.

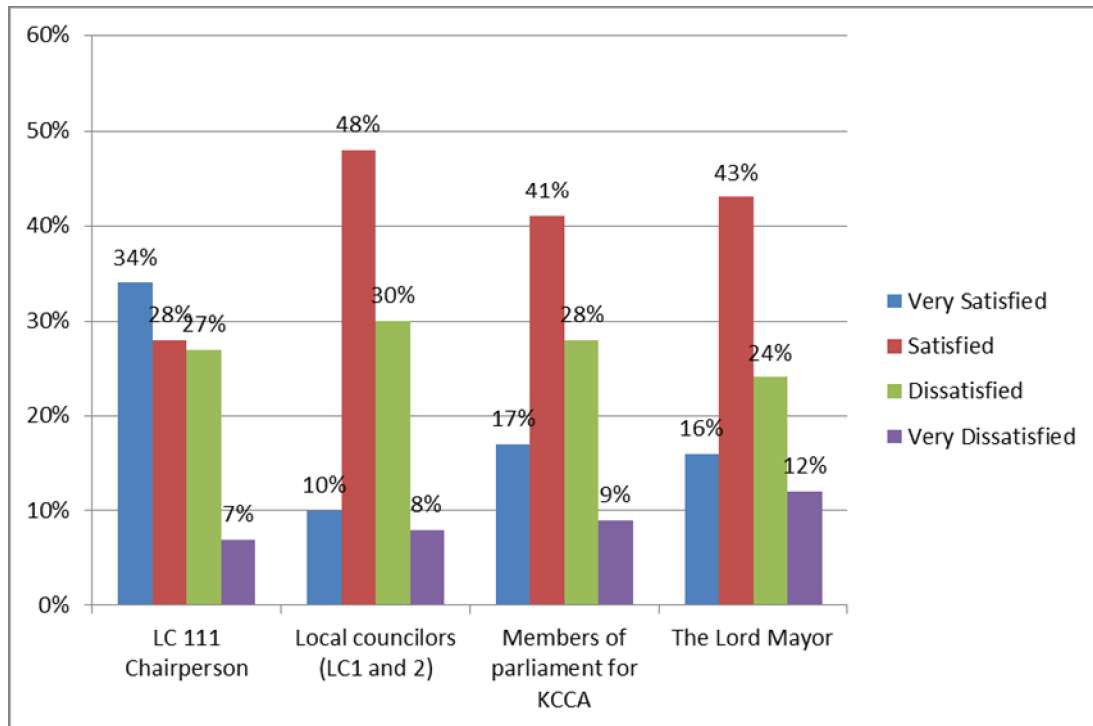
That is, 64% of the respondents were satisfied with the fairness of the participatory process, 24% dissatisfied and 11% very dissatisfied. 51% were satisfied with the opportunities to participate, 27% were dissatisfied, and 18% very dissatisfied. 51% were satisfied with the usefulness of the participation process to address service delivery issues, 31% were dissatisfied and 12% were very dissatisfied. Moreover, 48% of the respondents were dissatisfied with the degree to which the participation outcomes represent the broader community, 7% were very dissatisfied and 37% were satisfied.

50% dissatisfied with the information provided on citizen participation, 13% were very dissatisfied and 31% were satisfied. 39% of respondents were dissatisfied with the degree to which information provided encourages others to participate, 11% were very dissatisfied and 41% were satisfied. Over and above, 53% of respondents dissatisfied with the understanding of government-citizen participation initiatives by the citizens, 13% were very dissatisfied and 27% were satisfied.

6.2.1.2.3 Satisfaction with the performance of citizen participation facilitators

According to Reed (2008: pp.24-25), outcomes of any participatory process are far sensitive to the manner in which they are conducted than the tools that are used to conduct them. This meaning that highly skilled facilitation is particularly important for participation given the high likelihood of dealing with conflict and with people with differing views. So to establish citizen satisfaction in addition to satisfaction with the quality of services delivered as well as the delivery process, respondents were asked to rate their satisfaction with the performance of citizen participation facilitators. See **Figure 6.8**.

Figure 6.8: How would you rate the performance of citizen participation facilitators (LC111 Chairpersons, LC1 and 2 Councillors, Members of parliament for Kampala and the Lord Mayor?)



Rating performance of leaders from very poor to very good, survey respondents results indicated that 34% of the respondents were very satisfied with their LC111 chairpersons performance, 28% were satisfied, 27% were dissatisfied, only 7% were very dissatisfied, and 4% did not know how the LC111 performs.

For Local Councillors (LC1 and LC2), the majority of the respondents rated their performance as good (48%) were satisfied with their performance, 10% were satisfied, 30% were dissatisfied, and 8% were very dissatisfied.

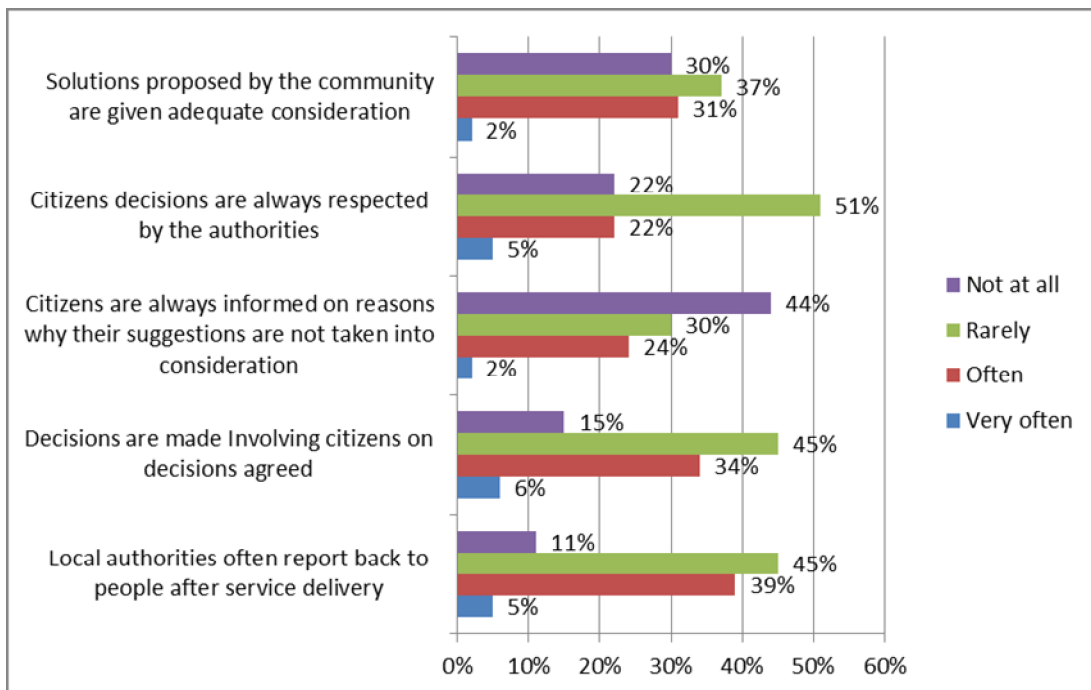
Performance for MP for Kampala was rated as follows: 41% of respondents were satisfied, 17% were very satisfied, 28% were dissatisfied, and 9% were very dissatisfied. Moreover, the Lord Mayor's performance was rated as follows: 43% of respondents were satisfied, 16% of respondents rated the performance as very satisfied, 24% were dissatisfied, and 12% were very dissatisfied with the Lord Mayor's performance.

6.3.1.3 Aftermath of citizen participation

Just like broad participation and citizen satisfaction, the aftermath of citizen participation is a critical element that can enhance citizen participation and was thus considered as the third indicator to measure the exercise of democratic rights and obligations. For instance, with feedback, citizens intangibly feel like they own the activity, and that their opinions matter. Thus, in the long run, actively participating. Moreover, communication to citizens the next step after participation, or even one of the next steps at the end of processes, is necessary as in most instances it forces one to react on things that should be reacted on.

Therefore, the fact that it is easier to react to complaints than it is to proactively identify and measure big picture needs, the aftermath of citizen participation was measured using the following sub-indicators: Action taken on recommendations, feedback, and communication to citizens of the next step after participation. The following is the specific question asked in this category.

Figure 6.9: Reflecting on your experiences with citizen participation activities in your community, please rate your agreement with the following statements (1-very often, 2-often, 3-rarely and 4-not at all).



From the above figure, respondents' experiences with citizen participation were established using a set of questions related to aftermath sub-indicators. These sub-indicators are: action on recommendations, feedback and communication. For example, respondents were asked if local authorities report back after service delivery, if decisions are made involving citizens, if citizens are informed on reasons why their suggestions are not taken into consideration, if their decisions are always respected, and if solutions proposed by the community are given adequate consideration.

In response to the above statements, nearly half of the respondents, 45%, said local authorities rarely report back after service delivery has taken place, 39% said local authorities often report back after service delivery, and 11% said the local authorities never report back after service delivery has taken place. When asked if decisions are made involving citizens, 45% reported that they are rarely involved, 34% reported that they are often involved, and 15% stated that they are not at all involved. Adding to this, when asked if citizens are informed on reasons why their suggestions are not taken into consideration, 44% reported that they are not at all informed, 30% said they are rarely informed whilst the remaining 26% said that they are often and very often informed.

On asking if citizens' decisions are always respected by the authorities, 51% of the respondents cited rarely, an equal percentage of 22% saying often and not at all, and 5% citing very often. Additionally, as per the final statement, if solutions proposed by the community are given adequate consideration, 37% of the respondents cited that the community solutions are rarely considered, 31% said often considered, and 30% said not all considered.

Responding to similar questions on aftermath of participation, the interviewees were divided in their view. For instance, when asked how often they take into consideration the recommendations made by the citizens when making decisions, all of the interviewees (100%) said that they rarely take the citizens' recommendations into account.

Some interviewees stating that *“we do listen to the citizens demands always but we do not have the capacity to provide them with what they want due to limited funds*

and on paper we effectively cannot consider their input because more often they are wish list (interview note December 2013). The second interviewee stating that we do not consider citizens recommendations simply because sometimes the recommendations made by citizens conflict with government policies and the budget set aside so as the members of the directorate we choose what to consider. More over the other interviewee said the reason as to why they do not consider the recommendations fully is because they do not go to the citizens directly they deal with councillors who provide us general recommendations.”

Adding on to the above, when asked if they (KCCA directorates) communicate to the citizens when their recommendations are not used, 50% of the interviewees said that they do not communicate to citizens at all. The remaining 50% said that they do communicate to some extent . that is through division councillors . but not directly to the citizens.

From the above findings, it can be deduced that there are still limitations when it comes to the aftermath in citizen participation. For instance, local authorities rarely report back after service delivery has taken place, citizens are still not informed on reasons why their suggestions are not taken into consideration; and the solutions proposed by the community are not given adequate consideration. Therefore, the fact that reporting back to people brings about accountability and transparency, which is quintessential to democracy and citizen participation. Yet the **action on recommendations** is crucial to the legitimacy of citizen participation . especially if citizens expect that their efforts will lead to the creation of favourable policies. Without the action on recommendations, communication, and feedback, citizens will be less likely to participate in future activities. Therefore, in order to increase the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens, the feedback sub-indicators still need to be addressed.

The next section will provide the findings at the multivariate level of analysis.

6.4 RESULTS AT MULTIVARIATE LEVEL OF ANALYSIS

As the third stage of analysis with an aim to understand the relationships between variables (broad participation, citizen satisfaction and aftermath of participation) and their relevance to the actual problem being studied (quality of service delivery), using the Ordered Logit Model equation $(C_{ij}) = \alpha_j - \beta X_i$, this stage of analysis established the determinants within the independent variables responsible for quality of services delivered.

Where:

C_{ij} = the value of the dependant variable (quality of services) in the i^{th} row and j^{th} column;

α = a constant;

β = the coefficient of the independent variables; and

X_i = the independent variables (broad participation, satisfaction and after math).

From the above the equation that implies that for each α_j indicates the logit of the odds are being equal to or less than category j for the baseline group (when all independent variables are zero). Thus, these intercepts will increase over j . Whereas β tells us how a one-unit increase in the independent variable increases the log-odds of being higher than category j (due to the negative sign), because, this β is not indexed by j , so a one-unit increase affects the log-odds the same regardless of which cut-point is considered.

That is to say, after using the ordered Logit regression model, the sub-indicators of broad participation, citizen satisfaction and aftermath of participation with p-values of less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant as depicted **Table 6.4**

TABLE 6.4: RESULTS OF THE ORDERED LOGIT REGRESSION MODEL SHOWING DEMOCRATIC CHARACTERISTICS AND PARTICIPATION INDICATORS DETERMINING QUALITY OF PUBLIC SERVICE DELIVERY IN KAMPALA DISTRICT.

Variable	Expected sign of the coefficient	Coefficient	p-value	Odd ratio
BROAD PARTICIPATION				
Knowledge of Democratic characteristics				
Freedom of expression	+	-1.366617	0.012	.2549682
Freedom of press/media	+	-1.239543	0.004	.2895166
Equality before the law	+	-1.65738	0.000	.1906379
Free and fair election	+	-1.285585	0.002	.2764889
Religious freedom	+	-.6947	0.251	.4992242
Freedom of association	+	-1.175975	0.006	.3085179
Absence of discrimination	+	-1.332638	0.001	.2637805
Citizen involvement in decision making process				
Citizens involvement in the planning process	+	-.8146723	0.024	.4427844
Citizens involved in decisions made	+	-3.535868	0.049	.0291334
Considering voices of different community groups in decision-making				
LC1 chairpersons	+	-.7107568	0.683	.4912723
Local councillors	+	2.203726	0.035	9.058707
Members of parliament)	+	2.258743	0.013	9.571047
Lord mayor	+	3.098618	0.001	22.1673
KCCA	+	.8673317	0.319	2.38055
Citizens	+	3.010589	0.000	20.29935
Civil servants	+	2.101874	0.015	8.181486
NGOs	+	2.276525	0.000	9.742762
Media	+	-1.237414	0.468	.2901336

Variable	Expected sign of the coefficient	Coefficient	p-value	Odds ratio
CITIZEN SATISFACTION				
Satisfaction with the services	+	-6.605573	0.000	.0013528
Satisfaction with services providers	+	-2.906735	0.007	.0546539
Satisfaction with the Performance of leaders				
LC111 chairpersons	+	-1.239437	0.013	.2895471
Members of parliament	+	-1.338172	0.033	1.069816
Lord Mayor	+	.3543571	0.506	1.425264
AFTERMATH OF CITIZEN PARTICIPATION				
Local authorities report back the people after service delivery	+	0.366617	0.015	1.2549682
Citizens are given feedback on decision processes	+	-0.239543	0.043	0.1876166
Citizens decisions are respected BY authorities	+	1.95738	0.000	2.1306379
Community suggested solutions are given adequate consideration	+	-1.825585	0.002	.3964889

TABLE 6.5: DEMOCRATIC CHARACTERISTICS AS DETERMINANTS OF QUALITY OF SERVICE DELIVERY

Variable : BROAD PARTICIPATION	Expected sign of the coefficient	Coefficient	p-value	Odd ratio
<i>Indicator: Knowledge of Democratic characteristics</i>				
Freedom of expression	+	-1.366617	0.012	.2549682
Freedom of press/media	+	-1.239543	0.004	.2895166
Equality before the law	+	-1.65738	0.000	.1906379
Free and fair election	+	-1.285585	0.002	.2764889
Religious freedom	+	-.6947	0.251	.4992242
Freedom of association	+	-1.175975	0.006	.3085179
Absence of discrimination	+	-1.332638	0.001	.2637805

From **Table 6.5**, regression results reveal that six out of the seven democratic characteristics have a statistically significant relationship with the quality of services delivered. All seven have negative coefficients, irrespective of expected positive coefficients based on literature. For example, freedom of expression as a determinant of public service delivery was seen to be significant at ($p=0.012$) with a negative coefficient (= -1.367). This meaning that the reduction in freedom of expression by one unit will result in the reduction of the quality of public services delivered in Kampala communities from very good to very poor by 0.255 Odds. Therefore, the fact that freedom of expression empowers communities to take a leading role in decisions that affect their lives within their communities, hence gaining the ability to influence quality of all services delivered. It can be concluded that communities that are knowledgeable on and are exercising freedom of expression as a democratic principle are more likely to have quality services delivered in their communities compared to those who cannot express themselves freely.

Also based on **Table 6.5**, regression results indicated a negative coefficient (= - 1.240) for freedom of press/media as a determinant of quality public service delivery

from the analysis despite the significance of the result ($p= 0.004$). The negativity denoting that a reduction in freedom of press/media by one unit results in the reduction of the quality of public services delivered in Kampala communities from very good to very poor by 0.290 Odds. This bringing the researcher to the conclusion that that communities that have press/media freedom are more likely to have quality services delivered in their areas compared to those that does not have any press/media freedom. Therefore, as a democratic indicator, practicing freedom of press/media within the governance structure of any country or district, greatly contributes to improving quality of service delivery due to its ability to popularise within the communication systems for people to have information adequate enough to be able to influence change within their communities.

For equality before the law as a determinant of quality of public service delivery, regression results showed a statistically significant relationship ($p=0.000$) and a negative coefficient (= -1.657). This, implying that equality before the law is an important characteristic of democracy and that has critical effect of service delivery whereby a reduction in equality before the law of all people irrespective of their differences by one unit surely result in the reduction of the quality of public services delivered in Kampala from very good to very poor by 0.191 Odds. This rightly in principle implying that acknowledging equality within our communities can have a considerable change in the quality of services delivered within our society, which consequently can result into a change in way of life within communities.

Additionally, hypothetically having free and fair elections in any society contributes to a sense of direction that promotes democracy in that society, resulting into stability and consequently improved services to the people. As luck would have it, the regression analysis for the sub-indicator free and fair election was statistically significant ($p=0.002$) though the coefficient was negative (= -1.286). This implying that a reduction in opportunity for free and fair elections in communities of Kampala districts results into a reduction in the of the quality of public services delivered from very good to very poor by 0.276 Odds. It is thus important to note that in societies where there are no systems to ensure free and elections, service delivery and quality of services will be poor.

Furthermore, although religion is an aspect that is controversial in many ways such as its influence development both positively and negatively, for religious freedom as a determinant of quality of public service delivery, results depicted that there was no statistically significant relationship and the coefficient was negative ($p= 0.251$; $\beta = -0.6947$). The negative coefficient, however, symbolising that infringement on citizens' religious freedom by even one unit leads to a reduction in the quality of services delivered from very good to very poor by 0.499 odds.

Freedom of association as a determinant of quality of service delivery was proved statistically significant from the regression results ($p=0.006$) with a negative coefficient ($\beta = -1.176$). The negative coefficient ($\beta = -1.176$) signifying that a reduction in citizens' freedom of association results in the reduction of the quality of public services delivered in Kampala communities from very good to very poor by 0.309 Odds. Thus, as characteristic of democracy, referring to the right of an individual to belong to a certain group or organisation in which they have a common understanding and belief, practicing freedom of association within the governance structure of any country or district out rightly contributes to improving quality of public service delivery.

Furthermore, given that discrimination of whatever type should be discouraged at all levels in society and in all service delivery aspects, solely because the practice denies citizens the right to have access to and utilise a wide range of services existent within their communities.

From **Table 6.5**, results for absence of discrimination as a determinant of quality of public service delivery indicated a statistically significant relationship with a negative coefficient ($p=0.001$; $\beta = -1.333$). A negative coefficient of ($\beta = -1.333$) denoting that a deterioration in non-discrimination practices results in the reduction of the quality of public services delivered in Kampala communities from very good to very poor by 0.264 Odds. The practices of non-discriminatory policies in Uganda thus need to be enforced to ensure improvement in service delivery and free access to services for all.

TABLE 6.6: CITIZEN INVOLVEMENT IN DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES AS DETERMINANTS OF QUALITY OF SERVICE DELIVERY

VARIABLE: BROAD PARTICIPATION	Expected sign of the coefficient	Coefficient	p-value	Odd ratio
<i>Indicator: Citizen involvement in decision making process</i>				
Involvement in the planning process	+	-.8146723	0.024	.4427844
Citizens involvement in decisions made	+	-3.535868	0.049	.0291334
Considering voices of different community groups in decision making				
LC1 chairpersons (always)	+	-.7107568	0.683	.4912723
Local councillors	+	2.203726	0.035	9.058707
Members of parliament (sometimes)	+	2.258743	0.013	9.571047
Lord Mayor	+	3.098618	0.001	22.1673
KCCA	+	.8673317	0.319	2.38055
Citizens	+	3.010589	0.000	20.29935
Civil servants	+	2.101874	0.015	8.181486
NGOs	+	2.276525	0.000	9.742762
Media	+	-1.237414	0.468	.2901336

Literature asserts that the involvement of communities in the planning processes of their initiatives is normally associated with increasing and improving ownership of such initiatives by communities, consequently influencing quality service delivery. That is to say that programmes that do not take into consideration the opinions of the beneficiary communities fail to achieve most of their set objectives contrary to those that consider their opinions. Therefore, in order to establish the determinants within the independent variable (broad participation) responsible for quality of services delivered, citizen involvement in decision-making process as determinants of quality of service delivery was measured, specifically looking at: citizen Involvement in the planning process; citizens involvement in decisions made, and considering voices of different community groups in decision-making as depicted in **Table 6.6** discussed below.

From **Table 6.6** above, with regards to measuring citizensq involvement in planning processes as a determinant of quality of public service delivery, the regression results indicated a significant relationship and a negative coefficient (= -0.815, p=0.024) for citizensq involvement in planning processes from the analysis. The negative in the coefficient indicating that a reduction in citizensq involvement in planning processes by one unit results in the reduction of the quality of public services delivered in Kampala communities from very good to very poor by 0.443 Odds. It is thus critical to consider citizen involvement in the planning process to allow for ownership and improved service delivery within society given the significance of the result (p=0.024).

For citizensq involvement in decisions made as a determinant of quality of public service delivery, results showed a significant relationship and a negative coefficient (= -3.536, p=0.049). The negative in the coefficient (= -3.536) indicating that a reduction in citizensq involvement in decision-making processes by one unit results in the reduction of the quality of public services delivered in Kampala communities from very good to very poor by 0.029 Odds. Therefore, for the successful exercise of democratic rights that can demand quality services to prevail, involvement of communities on decisions made is important according to the results.

Likewise, when it came to the sub-indicator considering voices of different community groups in decision makingq as determinant of quality of services, from **Table 6.6**, results showed that out of the nine voices of different community groups in decision making, seven had a statistically significant relationship with the quality of services. For instance, with regards to considering the voices of local councillors in decision-making as determinant of quality of services, regression result showed a statistically significant relationship between the two variables and a positive coefficient (= 2.204, p=0.035). This meaning that that for an increase in the level of influence on decision-making by local councillors by just one unit, a significant (p=0.035) increase in quality of services is attained by 9.058 Odds. Thus, bringing us to the deduction that local councillors are very important in influencing decision-making on service delivery related issues, and therefore need to be encouraged to get involved in service delivery decision making processes.

Furthermore, considering the voices of members of parliament in decision-making as a determinant of quality services, regression results showed a statistically significant relationship with a positive coefficient on the quality of services delivered ($\beta = 2.258$, $p < 0.013$). The positive coefficient signifying that an increase in level of consideration the voice of parliamentarians by one unit increases the quality of services from very poor to very good by 9.571 Odds. Therefore, based on the fact that considering the voices of members of parliament in decision-making as a determinant of quality services is very significant (p -value 0.013), for effective delivery of quality services, results suggest that it is prudent to involve MPs at all levels of the planning process.

Additionally, considering the Lord Mayor's voice in decision-making as determinant of quality of services also had a statistically significant relationship with quality of services and a positive coefficient at ($\beta = 3.098$; $p = 0.001$). This suggesting that an increase consideration of the in the Lord Mayor's voice in decision-making by one unit increases the quality of services delivery by 22.167 Odds. Therefore, for effective delivery of quality services, results suggest that it is prudent to take into consideration the voice of the Lord Mayor in decision-making.

Nonetheless, despite the positive coefficient ($\beta = .867$), considering the voice of KCCA in decision-making as determinant of quality of services did not show a significant relationship ($p = 0.319$). This meaning that even though an increased consideration of the voice of KCCA in decision-making increases the quality of services delivered by 2.380, there was no significant relationship between the two variables. This result may be because KCCA most times does the technical work rather than involving itself in major decisions concerning the city, which can be made by other parties and for them they implement what has been decided on.

According to literature, citizens are very important groups of participants in decision-making processes, otherwise, if their views are not considered; the quality of services delivered might be compromised. Nevertheless, to find out how true this is, consideration of citizens' voice in decision-making as determinant of quality of services was also measured and from the regression analysis depicted in **Table 6.5**. There was a statistically significant relationship observed and a positive coefficient. This thus denotes that an increase in the consideration of the voices of the citizens in

decision-making by one unit increases the quality of services delivered by 20.299 Odds. Therefore, based on the results, it is imperative to encourage the consideration of citizens' voices in decision-making.

Also, looking at considering the voices of civil servants in decision-making as determinant of quality of services, based on the regression results, there was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables and a positive coefficient observed ($\beta = 2.101$, $p < 0.015$). These findings specifically revealing that an increase in the consideration of the voices of civil servants, by one unit would result in an increase in the quality of services delivered by 8.181 Odds from very poor to very good. This meaning that the quality of services delivered to local citizens when civil servants' voices are taken into consideration is twice as much as the quality of services that would be delivered without involvement of civil servants. Therefore, based on the results, it is imperative to encourage the consideration of civil servants in decision-making for the delivery of quality services.

Furthermore, with regards to considering the voices of NGOs/CSOs in decision-making as determinant of quality of services, the regression results showed a statistically significant relationship and a positive coefficient ($\beta = 2.276$; $p = 0.000$). This meaning that an increase in the level of consideration of the voices of NGOs/CSOs in decision-making by one unit would significantly ($p = 0.000$) result in to an improvement in quality of services from very poor to very good by 9.743 Odds. This result may be because decisions from NGOs are evidence based on the field through research. Or simply because they are always implementing their activities in the communities and they know what the community is lacking and what is appropriate for them.

Last but not least, looking at the consideration of the media's voice in decision-making as determinant of quality of services delivered, from **Table 6.6**, results showed that there was no significant relationship whatsoever and the coefficient was negative too ($p = 0.468$; $\beta = -1.237$). This meaning that a reduction ($\beta = -1.237$) in the consideration of the voice of the media in decision-making by one unit reduces the quality of services delivered. The implying that there is no significant relationship between the media and the services delivered something that can lead to deduction

that may be it is because media just airs out or publishes what decisions have been made but they have no or little power to influence decisions made.

The next section will establish the determinants within the independent variable (Citizen Satisfaction) responsible for quality of services delivered.

TABLE 6.7: CITIZEN SATISFACTION AS DETERMINANT OF QUALITY OF SERVICE DELIVERY

VARIABLE: CITIZEN SATISFACTION	Expected sign of the coefficient	Coefficient	p-value	Odds ratio
Indicator: Satisfaction with the services	+	-6.605573	0.000	.0013528
Indicator: Satisfaction with services providers	+	-2.906735	0.007	.0546539
<i>Indicator: Satisfaction with the performance of citizen participation facilitators</i>				
LC111chairpersons	+	-1.239437	0.013	.2895471
Members of parliament	+	-1.338172	0.033	1.069816
Lord Mayor	+	.3543571	0.506	1.425264

From the satisfaction perspective as a variable for exercising democratic rights, three satisfaction indicators were used. Firstly, whether or not respondents were satisfied with services, secondly, whether respondents were satisfied with the services providers or not, and, thirdly, whether or not citizens were satisfied with the performance of citizen participation facilitators as revealed in **Table 6.7** above.

For example, with regards to satisfaction with the services as a determinant of quality services, results showed that there was a statistically significant relationship and a negative coefficient (= -6.606; p= 0.000). This indicating that a reduction of in the level of satisfaction with the services by one unit would significantly (p= 0.000) result in decreased quality of services offered by 0.01 Odds.

Additionally, with satisfaction with service providers as a determinant of quality of services, based on **Table 6.7**, results showed a significant relationship and a

negative coefficient ($p= 0.007$; $=-2.907$). This meaning that that a decrease ($=-2.907$) in the level of satisfaction with services providers would significantly ($p= 0.007$) lead to reduction of quality of services by 0.546 Odds.

For satisfaction with the performance of citizen participation facilitators as a determinant of quality of services, results pertaining to the satisfaction with the level of performance by LC111 as a determinant of quality service delivery showed a statistically significant relationship and a negative coefficient ($p=0.013$; $=-1.239$). This meaning that a reduction ($=-1.239$) in the level of performance by LC111 by just one unit would significantly ($p=0.013$) lead to a reduction in quality of services delivered by 0.289 Odds.

Likewise, satisfaction with the performance of members of parliament as a determinant of quality of services delivered, results showed a statistically significant relationship and a negative coefficient ($p=0.033$; $=-1.338$). This also implying that a reduction in performance of MPs would significantly ($p=0.033$) lead to a reduction in quality of services delivered by 1.069 Odds.

Satisfaction with the performance of the Lord Mayor as a determinant of quality of services delivered, results showed a positive coefficient and no significant relationship. This meaning that although an increase in the satisfaction of the performance of the Lord Mayor increases the quality of services, there is no significant relationship between the two variables.

The next section will establish the determinants with in the independent variable . aftermath of citizen participation responsible for quality of services delivered.

TABLE 6.8: AFTERMATH OF CITIZEN PARTICIPATION AS A DETERMINANT OF QUALITY OF SERVICE DELIVERY

Variable: Aftermath	Expected sign of coefficient	Coefficient	p-value	Odd ratio
Local authorities often report back to the people after service delivery	+	0.366617	0.015	1.2549682
Citizens are given feedback on decision-making processes	+	-0.239543	0.043	0.1876166
Citizens decisions are always respected by the authorities	+	1.95738	0.000	2.1306379
Solutions proposed by the community are given adequate consideration	+	-1.825585	0.002	.3964889

Just like broad participation and citizen satisfaction, to establish the determinants within the independent variable (aftermath of citizen participation) responsible for quality of services delivered, **aftermath of citizen participation** was measured specifically looking at action taken on recommendations, feedback and communication to citizens of the next step after participation. All represented in the following statements: **Local authorities often report back to the people after service delivery; citizens are given feedback on decision-making processes; citizen’s decisions are always respected by the authorities; and solutions proposed by the community are given adequate consideration** as depicted in **Table 6.8** discussed below.

For the sub-indicator **local authorities often report back to the people after service delivery** as a determinant of quality of services delivered, just like the expected coefficient sign based on literature, regression results indicated a positive coefficient and a statistically significant relationship ($p=0.015$; $\beta=0.366$). This meaning that an increase in reporting back to citizens by one unit results in the increment of the quality of public services delivered in Kampala communities from very poor to very good by 1.254 Odds. It is thus very important to consider reporting back to citizens

since it significantly ($p=0.015$) influences the quality of services delivered at a 5% level of significance.

Likewise, with regards to giving feedback to citizens on decision processes as a determinant of quality of services delivered, although based on literature a positive coefficient sign was expected. From **Table 6.8**, results showed a negative coefficient and a statistically significant relationship ($\beta = -0.239$; $p = 0.043$). This implying that a reduction in giving feedback to citizens significantly reduces ($\beta = -0.239$; $p = 0.043$) the quality of services by 0.239 units.

Respecting citizens' decisions as a determinant of quality of services delivered on the other hand, according to **Table 6.8**, the results of the ordered Logit showed a statistically significant relationship $p=0.000$ and a positive coefficient $\beta = 1.95738$. This meaning that respecting or honouring citizens' decisions enhances delivery of quality of services by almost twice (1.957) units as compared to the quality of services rendered in communities in which citizens' opinions are not taken into consideration.

For the indicator 'community suggested solutions are given adequate consideration' a determinant of quality of services delivered, based on **Table 6.8**, there was a statistically significant relationship and a negative coefficient. Thus implying that from the results, a reduction in taking into consideration community suggested solutions significantly leads to a reduction in the quality of services ($\beta = -1.825$, $p=0.002$). Therefore, giving adequate considerations to community suggested solutions is also a very important factor to consider if a service provider is to provide quality services.

6.5 CONCLUSION

As earlier stated, the main aim of this chapter was to address the hypothesis stating that the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens by citizens has a positive implication towards service delivery as well as address the main research questions: To what extent can the realisation of democratic rights and obligations of citizens add value to the betterment of public service delivery in Uganda? Therefore, using three indicators (broad participation, citizen satisfaction, and aftermath of

citizen participation), further defined through sub-indicators, identified from literature as a standard measure for exercising democratic rights and obligations. This chapter examined to see whether or not the data supported the hypothesis and whether it answered the research question or not. To gather evidence, a survey as well as interview schedule constructed from the indicators were administered and the data collected was analysed, discussed and interpreted under themes derived from the study measurable elements inform of indicators at two levels viz. Univariate and Multivariate levels.

Based on the descriptive statistical analysis results, most of the sub-indicators had a statistically positive relationship with service delivery in Kampala, the sample area. For example, under the broad participation indicator, regression results reveal that six out of the seven democratic characteristics have a statistically significant relationship with the quality of services delivered. Regarding citizens involvement, results showed a statistically significant relationship towards involving citizens both in planning processes and decision-making processes as a determinant of quality of public service delivery. Moreover, considering voices of different community groups in decision-making as determinant of quality of services, results showed that out of the nine voices of different community groups in decision-making, seven had a statistically significant relationship with the services delivered.

From the satisfaction perspective, as an indicator for exercising democratic rights, satisfaction with the services as a determinant of quality services, and satisfaction with service providers as a determinant of quality of services, results showed that there was a statistically significant relationship. Moreover, satisfaction with the performance of citizen participation facilitators as a determinant of quality of services out of the three categories of participants considered, results showed that two (LC11 chairpersons and members of parliament) had a significant relationship.

Moreover with regards to the aftermath of citizen participation, all the sub-indicators used viz. local authorities often report back to the people after service delivery, citizens are given feedback on decision processes; citizens decisions are always respected by the authorities, and solutions proposed by the community are given

adequate consideration; showed a significant relationship towards the quality of services delivered in Kampala. Therefore, based on the results, it can be suggested that the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens by citizens has a positive implication towards quality service delivery.

The next chapter will provide the general conclusions and recommendations for the study.

CHAPTER 7: GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

As stated in Chapter 1, this study attempted to address the hypothesis stating that the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens by citizens has a positive implication towards service delivery. As well as test the hypothesis and address the main research question: To what extent can the realisation of democratic rights and obligations of citizens add value to the betterment of public service delivery in Uganda? As a result using three indicators (namely: broad participation, citizen satisfaction and aftermath of citizen participation) further defined through sub-indicators identified from literature as a standard measure for exercising democratic rights and obligations. This chapter provides a summary of the contents of each chapter in the study, conclusions on each research question within the context of the objectives, and the recommendations to the challenges experienced during the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens in Uganda. It concludes by indicating the limitations for the study and the directions for further research.

7.2 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study was divided into seven chapters, each representing the main objectives in a comprehensive and systematic manner. For example **Chapter 1** as the introductory chapter consists of is the general introduction of the research topic. It uncovered the background of the study, the motivation, the problem statement, the research objectives, the research methodology, and the instruments of data collection as well as the preliminary framework for this study.

Chapter 2, also representing objective one, documented the concepts *democracy*, *democratic rights*, *citizen responsibility* and *democratic consolidation*. These documented with the aim of providing the background needed for the critical assessment of the impact of these concepts on service delivery. Correspondingly building on substantial and growing literature on democracy and service delivery in this chapter, an assessment was conducted on the link between democracy and service delivery from a broader perspective, based on worldly identifiable principles of democracy, namely: participation; accountability and transparency; adherence to the rule of law; and a pluralist system of political parties. Of which based on the

findings from the link one can assert that with these democratic principles in place and properly adhered to by both government and citizens, citizens can reach the “**voice**” aspect. which is an essential element in the delivery of services. Reaching the voice aspect in a nutshell, implying that with accountability and transparency, participatory culture, rule of law, and a pluralist system of political parties, citizens have a “**voice**” to make their own decisions as active agents of change. Also those citizens with the voice can bring the state to account by evaluating state actions in terms of their effectiveness in delivering services to those that need those services most. See **Figure 1** for the outline of the argument.

In **Chapter 3**, attention was directed to some fundamental catchphrases associated with the notion of exercising democratic rights and obligations, which at the same time underline the ideals of good service delivery. These catchwords namely: **democratic citizenship** and **citizen participation (public participation)** which are at the epicentre of democracy and also reinforce the imperatives of exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens.

In particular, chapter 3 highlighting the significance of exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens as an essence of enabling good public service delivery across nations. The chapter further looked at international perspectives on promoting citizen participation. These international perspectives articulated in light of recent development initiatives with the aim of making a case that exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens is viewed as an instrument of enhancing public service delivery. This, revealing that, irrespective of the level of poverty, income and Gross Domestic Product (GDP), the delivery of quality services requires efficient and effective community engagement through exercising democratic rights and citizen participation in the:

- Planning and formulation of public policies;
- Development of community strategies and plans;
- Administration of government agencies;
- Formulation of organisations and networks that enable more inclusive and empowered forms of participation; and citizens who are aware of the fact that with rights comes obligations.

All the above as demonstrated by countries like India, Brazil, Peru and Bolivia, the delivery of services to those that need them most is not impossible, although it is not an easy task either.

Chapter 4 explored the current state of democratic rights and obligations of citizens in Uganda as well as the quality of the public services delivered to the people of Uganda. This chapter specifically soliciting whether the quality of the public services relates to the understanding and practice of democratic values in Uganda. This chapter hence concluding that, although widely hypothesised that democracy provides the bedrock for participation that translates into effective representation and empowerment, in turn positively boosting service delivery and rural development, in Uganda this is yet to be seen. For instance, irrespective of a two decade-plus long prevalence of several democratic frameworks and excellent legal and policy frameworks for citizen participation. Legal and policy frameworks such as the Constitution of 1995, Resistance Councils (RCs) now Local Councils (LCs), the Local Government Act of 1997, and Budget conferences amongst others, democracy in Uganda is far from the reality if rated by looking at the discussions in the chapter.

For example based on this chapter's findings, the electorate is still prone to hand-outs and is easily manipulated; nepotism and corruption are still increasingly staining politics and political institutions. There is, to a certain extent, censorship of the press, there seems to be no separation of powers and . worst of all . the image of service delivery is still tainted. Thus, this not only attesting to the statement that democratic participatory initiatives in Uganda are more like wish lists than substantive statements guaranteed in practice. It also raises questions on how relevant these initiatives have been to the actual involvement and participation of citizens in prioritising, planning, and decision-making on issues affecting the citizens. Similarly, also raising the issue of what the knowledge and understanding of these initiatives by the citizens is; and what these initiatives have promoted in citizen participation that is strong to demand quality service delivery.

Chapter 5 discussed the aspects related to the research designs and methods by providing a discussion on how data was collected in order to ensure its validity and reliability. This chapter provided for the sample selection, described the procedure

used in designing the instruments for data collection and concluded by providing an explanation of the statistical procedures used to analyse the collected data.

Chapter 6 presented the empirical findings. This chapter tested for the hypothesis stating that the exercising of democratic rights and obligations of citizens by citizens has a positive impact on service delivery, and discussed the findings and discussions in relation to the main aim of the study. Wherein using three indicators (namely: broad participation, citizen satisfaction and aftermath of citizen participation) further defined through sub-indicators identified from literature as a standard measure for exercising democratic rights and obligations. This chapter examined to see if data supported the hypothesis and whether the data answered the research question or not. To gather evidence, a survey as well as interview schedule constructed from the indicators were administered and data collected was analysed, discussed and interpreted under themes derived from the study measurable elements inform of indicators, at two levels viz. univariate and multivariate levels of analysis.

For instance, at the univariate level of analysis, with respect to the indicator ~~ubroad~~ broad participationq it was unravelled in this chapter that the general awareness level on citizensqrighs and responsibilities has swung out of balance in Uganda. Such that based on the finding, the right to participate in decision-making and, subsequently, the right to demand for accountability on the quality of services delivered are not commonly known among the citizens in Uganda. Additionally, despite the fact that it is the responsibility of the citizens to participate in decision-making and on-going government activity, from the results presented in **Table 6.2.1**. Citizens do not know that it is their responsibility to participate in decision-making and planning meetings; as only 15% could mention this as their responsibility. This leading to adduction that there is likelihood that even if planning meetings are called at LC1 level, citizens would not turn up because they do not know that it is their responsibility to attend.

Likewise, with regards to citizen involvement as a sub-indicator of broad participation, based on univariate results, there is minimal citizen participation in planning meetings for social services (water and sanitation, education, roads, health, agriculture, electricity and physical infrastructure). Only 47% of the participants reporting to have been involved by their local leaders in decision-making, while the

53% reporting that they had not been involved. This response backed up by the interview respondents as one stated that *“decision making on issues relating to service delivery as a matter of fact is more of a top down decision making process mainly attributed to the limitation of funds, lack of expertise, culture in the public service and the perceptions of the public servants that the citizens do know what they want with limited knowledge on key issues”*.

Furthermore, still under *“broad participation”* a discrepancy between the citizens and the KCCA directorate officials awareness of the citizen participation initiatives was observed. That is, the majority of the citizens were not aware of the government initiatives in place supporting citizen participation, yet the KCCA directorate officials were aware of all the citizen participation initiatives and even more. Some mentioned various initiatives in their directorates such as tax clinics, community committees, *Baraza’s* and the Community Demand Development Programme (CDDP) amongst others in the pipeline.

Results also showed that under the indicator *“citizen satisfaction”* as a measure of exercising democratic rights and obligations, a lot still needs to be done. For instance respondents had mixed views on the satisfaction with participation process. That is although, over 50% were satisfied with the fairness of the participatory process, the opportunities to participate, and the usefulness of the participation process to address service delivery issues. Over 50% were dissatisfied with the degree to which the participation outcomes represent the broader community, the information provided on citizen participation, the degree to which information provided encourages others to participate, and the understanding of government-citizen participation initiatives by the citizens. Moreover, a considerable number is still dissatisfied and very dissatisfied with the performance of the citizen participation facilitators.

As far as the *“aftermath of citizen participation”* as the third indicator to measure the exercise of democratic rights and obligations is concerned, results showed that there are still limitations when it comes to the aftermath in citizen participation. For instance, local authorities rarely report back after service delivery has taken place,

citizens are still not informed on reasons why their suggestions are not taken into consideration, and the solutions proposed by the community are not given adequate consideration.

Likewise, at the multivariate level of analysis, based on the descriptive statistical analysis based on the quantitative response, results of most of the sub-indicators had a statistically positive relationship with service delivery in Kampala . the sample area. For example, under the broad participation indicator, regression results reveal that six out of the seven democratic characteristics have a statistically significant relationship with the quality of services delivered. Regarding citizens involvement, results showed a statistically significant relationship towards involving citizens both in planning processes and decision-making processes as a determinant of the quality of public service delivery. Moreover, considering voices of different community groups in decision-making as determinant of quality of services, results showed that out of the nine voices of different community groups in decision-making, seven had a statistically significant relationship with the services delivered.

From the satisfaction perspective as an indicator for exercising democratic rights; satisfaction with the services as a determinant of quality services and satisfaction with service providers as a determinant of quality of services results showed that there was a statistically significant relationship. Moreover, satisfaction with the performance of citizen participation facilitators as a determinant of quality of services, out of the three categories of participants considered, results showed that two (LC11 chairpersons and members of parliament) had a significant relationship.

Additionally, with regards to aftermath of citizen participation all the sub-indicators used viz. (local authorities often report back to the people after service delivery, citizens are given feedback on decision processes; citizens decisions are always respected by the authorities, and solutions proposed by the community are given adequate consideration) showed a significant relationship towards the quality of services delivered in Kampala. Thus based on the results suggesting that the the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens by citizens has a positive implication towards quality service delivery.

7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The previous chapters attempted to assess the role of exercising democratic rights and obligations of citizens by citizens in enhancing public service delivery in Uganda. Document the concepts democracy, democratic rights, citizen responsibility and democratic consolidation. Realise whether and how fundamental notions of democratic citizenship and democratic participation either undermine or advance public service delivery. Explore the current state of democratic rights and obligations of citizens in Uganda; and conduct empirical research on the realities and practices regarding the exercise of democratic rights and obligation of citizens as well as assess its implications towards service delivery in Uganda. Moreover using three indicators (namely: broad participation, citizen satisfaction and aftermath of citizen participation), further defined through sub-indicators identified from literature as a standard measure for exercising democratic rights and obligations, the chapters unravelled the link between quality of service delivery and exercising democratic rights and obligations. In that based on the findings, it was established that the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens by citizens has a positive implication towards quality service delivery. Therefore, based on the findings, the following recommendations were considered to be convincing and effective for enhancing the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens so as to improve service delivery in Uganda.

Recommendation 1: Seeing that it is hypothesised that citizen participation facilitators stand to benefit with empowered and capacitated citizens as this would not only make their work easy but also create awareness of their work. Citizen participation within the district should be a process that all district personnel at the 5 local council levels are cognisant of. This mainly to ensure a standardised know-how on the importance of citizen participation in turn allow for an improved receptivity of citizen input. Therefore given that the results showed a gap on the awareness of citizen participation initiatives as well as lack of citizen involvement in the service delivery decision-making process, it is recommended that government re-emphasises the training and sensitising of the citizen participation facilitators . especially in areas of participatory planning, advocacy, alliance and collaboration. This re-emphasising should be done so that they can advocate for citizens to

participate, develop appropriate mechanisms for involving new stakeholders in policy formulation as well as review possible strategies for popular participation.

Recommendation 2: Based on the fact that there was a discrepancy between the citizens and the KCCA directorate officials awareness of the citizen participation initiatives was observed. That is, the majority of the citizens were not aware of the government initiatives in place supporting citizen participation, yet the KCCA directorate officials were aware of all the citizen participation initiatives and even more. The government in partnership with Non-government Organisations and Community Based Organisations should provide continuous, wide-ranging education to the citizens. That is, first and foremost provide education on the citizens rights and responsibilities in relation to government and the decision-making processes. Secondly, education on the comprehensive planning process to ensure that they, the citizens, understand the underlying policy issues of city planning and why it is important for them to participate. Thirdly, education on advocacy, alliance formation and collaboration, so that they, the citizens, can be able to advocate change, build effective alliances, collaborate partnerships . especially those that cut across power differences and guard against co-optation.

Fourth, education on cognitive competencies that is of a legal and political nature, such as knowledge concerning the rules of collective life, knowledge of the present world, including a historical dimension and a cultural dimension. Included should also be competencies of a procedural nature, like the ability to speak and argue, be connected with the debate, the ability to reflect, also the ability to have knowledge of the principles and values of human rights and democratic citizenship.

Fifth, education on affective competencies and choice of values emphasising the fact that citizenship cannot be reduced to a catalogue of rights and duties; it also entails belonging to a group or to groups . thus requiring a personal and collective affective dimension. Lastly, education for the citizens on social competencies (capacities for action) referring to the capacity to live with others, to co-operate, to construct and implement joint projects, to take on responsibilities, the capacity to resolve conflicts in accordance with the principles of democratic law.

Recommendation 3: Founded on the results on the variable aftermath of citizen participation in chapter 6, where local authorities rarely report back after service delivery has taken place. Also that the citizens are still not informed on reasons why their suggestions are not taken into consideration, and the solutions proposed by the community are not given adequate consideration. To improve the feedback process, Kampala City Council Authority (KCCA) together with the division authority must ensure that all decisions that require the input of the community have clear and concise reports that accompany them.

The reports showing the steps that were taken to involve citizens, documenting the time and place the involvement of citizens took place, and what suggestions were made by citizens, as well as to what extent the suggestions were taken into consideration . and if not, reasons provided. This will both be an insurance of accountability to citizens as well as an informative document (action plan) to the citizens of the decisions made by KCCA and the division authority and who is responsible for what actions.

Recommendation 4: Founded on United Nations 2012 e-survey on ~~g~~-government for the people+which demonstrates that countries with strong online service delivery platforms have a higher likelihood of introducing ICT tools to engage their citizens in policy and decision making processes (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) 2012). Kampala City Council Authority (KCCA) as well as the government of Uganda both need to lean more towards e-administration and facilitate electronic interaction with the citizens to ensure broad public access to timely information about proposed plans and projects.

Recommendation 5: Together with the above mentioned recommendation, based on the results from **chapter 6**. It is also recommended that in order to provide chain of how citizens and their political leaders exercise their roles and responsibilities. KCCA together with other districts need to adopt a clear **comprehensive institutional community participation structure**. A structure indicating who reports to whom, who is in charge of what, how is one supposed to participate, and what happens after one participates. Provides an organised and accessible process by

which the city receives and responds to input from every division on planning and development decisions in a timely fashion.

That is, with the guidance of available local government structure, organised in a decentralised manner, within the authority. The structure should be headed by district councillors and representatives from the administrative authority directorates. These councillors and representatives bestowed with a role of providing technical and administrative assistance, as well as capacity-building support to the city-wide citizen participation agency, division councils, and division Community interest group coalition and division Neighbourhood groups.

Followed by a city-wide citizen participation Advisory group, chaired by a citizen representative, consisting of the five division Mayors, five town clerks, one community interest group representative from each division, a representative from the Auditor General's office, representative from the ministries of Health, education, water and environment, finance, and gender and social services. The citizen participation agency specifically serving as a platform for the resolving of grievances, assessment and possible refinement of suggestions from the division councils, division communication group and division neighbourhood groups.

The division Councils, basically a consortium of multiple division councillors from the five divisions, representing various parishes in the five divisions, mandated to facilitate communication, coordination. Liaise with the neighbourhood groups to ensure that all relevant information is effectively and efficiently disseminated to all stakeholders. As well as provide resources and support to the division neighbourhood groups.

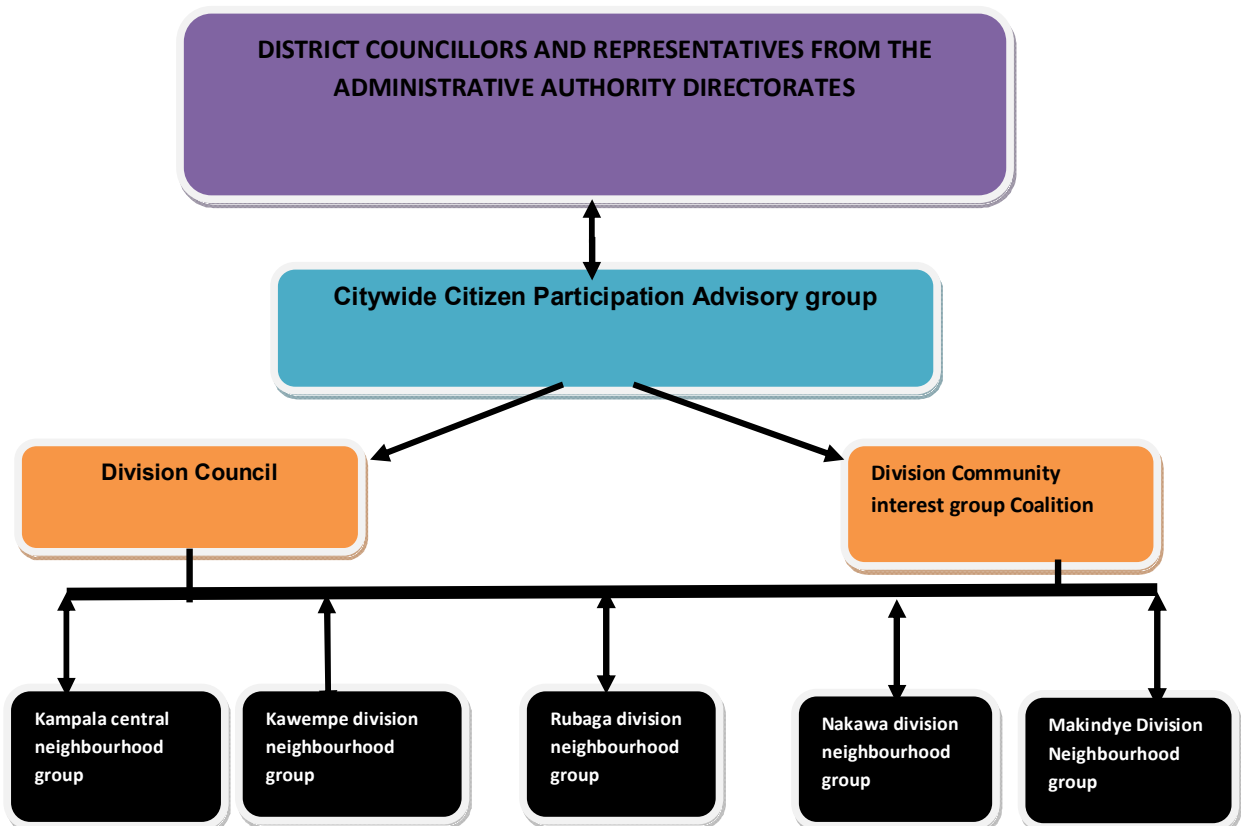
Additionally, to avoid this structure from encouraging invited participation, there is also a division community interest group coalition made up of various interest groups based in the five divisions. Mandated to specifically nurture voice and trust within communities, build a critical consciousness, advocate for the inclusion of women, children, illiterate, poor and excluded people at the very local level, and empower calls for better accountability. This will also apply lessons from other communities for

resident education and awareness-building as well as provide technical expertise for planning.

Last but not least, the structure should also have a division neighbourhood group. This is formed by citizens from the various parish neighbourhoods, acting on issues affecting the quality of life, human development and sustainability of the neighbourhood. These parish neighbourhoods are entitled to receive direct and detailed access to public records that concern or impact the quality of life in their neighbourhoods, divisions and districts. In addition, to being entitled to submit in writing formal statements detailing neighbourhood views on issues of local, district or city-wide concern and also serve as the communication channel between the division councils and the people in the area.

See **Figure 7** for the proposed comprehensive institutional community participation structure.

FIGURE 7: RECOMMENDED COMPREHENSIVE INSTITUTIONAL COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION STRUCTURE FOR KAMPALA CITY COUNCIL AUTHORITY



7.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

It must be noted that there are a number of potential limitations of this study. Firstly, the fact that information in this study was obtained through reviewing the literature, interviews and a questionnaire survey. Interviews were specifically geared towards the KCCA directorates and the district councillors. However given Uganda's political situation and the wrangles in the administration of Kampala City Council Authority at the time this research was conducted. None of the district councillors, including the Lord Mayor, were available to take part in the interview as they were refrained from entering office at the time. Yet, those that participated from the respective KCCA directorates had responses that were somewhat politically influenced making it quite difficult for many of the respondents to engage fully.

In relation to documentary review, the main challenge that was faced was the lack of concrete, clear documentation of policies relating to citizen participation initiatives. Moreover, although findings can be generalised for citizen participation in Kampala city, they cannot be generalised across the country's other districts. This is mainly attributed to the lack of funds from the researcher's side.

7.5 RESEARCH AGENDA

Although the main research question of the study is to what extent, the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens by citizens can add value to the betterment of public service delivery in Uganda. The results in the study were based on data collected from Kampala city . the capital city of Uganda and not the whole of Uganda. Hence, there is room for conducting future research on the country as whole to determine if the perspectives identified in this study hold true nationally after conducting a national survey.

7.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Regardless of the government's initiatives towards citizen participation, from the findings the top-down implementation approach still undermines these initiatives by overlooking divisions, district councillors, citizens, media, private business representatives and non-governmental organisations' perceptions and attitudes that are likely to determine the policy outcome. Therefore the fact that divisions, district

councillors, citizens, media, private business representatives and non-governmental organisations support and involvement are indispensable when it comes to local-level planning and management, and the building up of an attractive and efficient service delivery system. For the efficient and effective exercise of democratic rights and obligations to prevail in an appropriate, comprehensive institutional community participation structure, the role of the citizens, media, district councillors and civil society should not be taken for granted by KCCA.

Also as demonstrated by countries like India, Brazil, Peru and Bolivia, the delivery of services to those that need them most is not impossible, although it is not an easy task either. Therefore, with this in mind, it can be inferred that for effective service delivery in Uganda, the country must consider adopting international best practices only after the citizens have been educated and trained. That is on what exactly it means to be a democratic citizen as a way of equipping the citizens with the knowledge and capacity to participate.

Furthermore, looking at the scale of civil liberties in Uganda, the practice of the doctrine of separation of powers, political culture, electoral processes and political pluralism, the current state of democracy in Uganda is contentious. Therefore, the fact that democracy forms an integral part of participation, for the successful exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens that may add value to the betterment of public service delivery in Uganda to prevail. All democratic elements have to be taken into consideration as this may be the first step towards the exercise of democratic rights and obligations of citizens that may yield quality service delivery in Uganda. Also given the fact that presently, planning that remains satisfied with reactive survival responses to difficult and crisis situations may seem to be placing Kampala city on the road to stability, as long as the present inroads of citizen involvement, negative perceptions and lack of stakeholders knowledge on the government initiatives persist, Kampala city will remain at risk and in danger.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: INDIVIDUAL QUESTIONNAIRE

Individual Questionnaire

Governance and participation

Males and Females 15-54 years of Age

Identification	
Place Name _____	
Supervision Area _____	
Identification _____	
Community Type	1. Large (subdivided), 2. Small (not subdivided)
Subdivision Number	NA if Small
Household Number _____	
Result of Interview	1. Completed, 2. Refused, 3. Partly Completed
If 1, 2 or 3 Gender of Respondent	1. Male, 2. Female
(Other results at a household should be noted on another sheet: 4. No respondent; 5. Respondent not within 60 minutes; 6. Other _____)	

Introduction and Consent	
<p>Hello. My name is _____ and I am working with (NAME OF UNIVERSITY). We are conducting a survey that asks women and men about participation and governance issues towards service delivery. We would very much appreciate your participation in this survey. This information will help us to inform policy makers to improve service delivery. This is a very brief survey and will only take about 15 -30 minutes. Whatever information you provide will be kept strictly confidential and will not be shown to other persons.</p> <p>Participation in this survey is voluntary, and if we should come to any question you don't want to answer, just let me know and I will go on to the next question; or you can stop the interview at any time.</p> <p>However, we hope that you will participate in this survey since your views are important. At this time, do you want to ask me anything about the survey?</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>	
<p>May I begin the interview now? Yes _____ No _____</p> <p>_____</p>	
<p>Signature of interviewer: _____ Date: _____ Time: _____</p>	
RESPONDENT AGREES TO BE INTERVIEWED	1
RESPONDENT DOES NOT AGREE TO BE INTERVIEWED	CONTINUE
	2 END

Before continuing to interview or leaving complete %Result+and %Gender+sections above

Section 100: Social Demographic Characteristics

Question Number	Question	Result	Skip		
101	How old were you at your last birthday?	Age in Completed Years			
102	Gender of Respondent	Male Female	1 2		
103	What is the highest level of school you attended:	Primary Secondary Higher none	1 2 3		
104	What is your occupation?	Formal employment Informal employment Not Working	1 2 3		
105	What is your place of residence?	Urban Peri urban	1 2		

Section 200: Broad participation (knowledge, Involvement and perceptions) on Governance and citizen participation initiatives

Question Number	Question	Result	Skip		
201a	Democracy is often associated with the following characteristics. Which do you consider essential among those mentioned below 1=yes 2=No	A. People are free to say what they think (freedom of expression) B. Newspapers are free to publish without fear of being shut down(freedom of press/media) C. People are treated equally by the police and in courts of law(Equality	A B C D E		

		<p>before the law)</p> <p>D. People are free to join any political party (political freedom)</p> <p>E. People can cast their votes freely, without being intimidated (free and fair elections)</p> <p>F. People may choose where to live and work without restriction and may leave their country and return at any time (freedom of movement)</p> <p>G. People are free to practice their faith without persecution (religious freedom)</p> <p>H. People may join any organization they wish without government interference (freedom of association)</p> <p>I. The rights of people are equally respected, by government officials and in daily life (absence of discrimination)</p>	<p>F</p> <p>G</p> <p>H</p> <p>I</p>		
201b	<p>Referring to 201a, would you say that the democratic characteristics are respected in Uganda?</p> <p>1.Never 2.Rarely 3.Often 4.Always</p>	<p>A People are free to say what they think (freedom of expression)</p> <p>B Newspapers are free to publish without fear of being shut down (freedom of press/media)</p>	<p>A</p> <p>B</p> <p>C</p> <p>D</p>		

		<p>C People are treated equally by the police and in courts of law (Equality before the law)</p> <p>D People are free to join any political party (political freedom)</p> <p>E People can cast their votes freely, without being intimidated (free and fair elections)</p> <p>F People may choose where to live and work without restriction and may leave their country and return at any time (freedom of movement)</p> <p>G People are free to practice their faith without persecution (religious freedom)</p> <p>H People may join any organization they wish without government interference (freedom of association)</p> <p>I The rights of people are equally respected, by government officials and in daily life (absence of discrimination)</p>	E		
			F		
			G		
			H		
			I		
202	In general, how satisfied are you with the way democracy works in your country?	1= Not at all 2= A little 3= Fairly 4= Very	1		
			2		
			3		
			4		

203	Are you aware that you have rights and responsibilities?	Yes No Don't Know	1 2 98		
204 a	What rights do you know of? (Don't read out options, wait for response as you tick)	1. Information 2. Fair judgment 3. Participation in elections 4. Participate in decision making 5. Demand for accountability from leaders 6. Access to services	1 2 3 4 5 6		
204 b	What are your responsibilities in relation to citizen participation?	1. Voting 2. Taxes 3. Participating in planning meeting 4. Others (specify)	1 2 3 4		
204 c	During the last 12 months, did you participate in any planning meetings for social service delivery (water and sanitation, education, roads, health, agriculture, electricity and physical infrastructure) in your community	Yes No	1 2		
205a	Do you think that you have a right to participate in decisions that affect service delivery in your community?	Yes No	1 2		E N D
205a	Do your local leaders involve you in decision making processes on issues that affect your community?	Yes No	1 2		
205b	If yes, in what decision making processes have been involved in?	Security issues Social services (water, health, education) Political issues	1 2 3		
206 a	Do your Local leaders involve you in decision making processes on issues that affect your community?	Yes No	1 2		

206b	If yes, in what decision making processes have you been involved in?	1. Security issues 2. Social services 3. Political issues	1 2 3		
207	When was the last time you took part in a decision making process of your community?	Last 3 months Last 6 months Last 12 months Never	1 2 3 4		
208	In your own view, to what extent do the following actors influence public sector decision making on service delivery related issues	A. LC111 Chairpersons B. Local councilors C. Members of parliament for Kampala D. The Lord mayor E. KCCA Management F. Citizens G. Civil servants H. Private and non-profit organizations I. Media J. Others (specify)	A B C D E F G H I J		
209	What are the government initiatives towards citizen participation?	1. Affirmative action 2. District budgeting conference 3. Public expenditure tracking surveys 4. Civic organization 5. Others specify	1 2 3 4 5		
210	How would you rate government's Initiative towards Citizen's Participation in your community?	1= Not effective at all 2= Effective to some extent 3= Effective 4= Very effective	1 2 3 4		
211	Please specify on the scale of 1-5 (where 1= strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3= agree, 4 strongly agree), to	A= The citizens can notify the department/authority about the potential problems in the community	A B		

	<p>what extent do you agree with the following statements referring to citizen involvement in your community?</p>	<p>B= The citizens are always offered all the necessary information regarding the service delivery decisions pending adoption C= Citizens can at any time propose solutions regarding community problems on service delivery matters D=When the institution makes a service delivery decisions the citizens suggestions or opinions regarding the matter at hand are always taken into consideration by the officials E=The institution is trying to actively facilitate the involvement of both the citizens and other society groups in the decision making process F=Decisions in public institutions are always made without informing or even consulting citizens.</p>	<p>C D E F</p>	
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<p>214</p>	<p>On the scale of 1 to 4 (1= very dissatisfied, 2= dissatisfied, 3= satisfied and 4= very satisfied), How satisfied are you with each of the following</p>	<p>A= The fairness of the participatory process B= Your opportunity to participate C= The usefulness of the participation process to address service delivery issues D= The degree to which the participation outcomes represent broader community interests E= The information provided on citizen participation F= The degree to which the information provided encourages others to participate effectively G= The understanding of the government citizen</p>	<p>A B C D E F G</p>	
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		participation initiatives by the District councilors			
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Section 300: Satisfaction

Question Number	Question	Result	Skip
301	How would you rate the quality of social services delivered in your community?	1. Very poor 2. Poor 3. Average 4. Good 5. Very good 6. Don't Know	1 2 3 4 5 6
302	Based on your recent experience from the services you accessed, how satisfied were you with the services?	1. Very satisfied 2. Satisfied 3. Very dissatisfied 4. Dissatisfied 5. Don't know	1 2 3 4 5 6
303a	Based on your recent experience from the services you accessed, how satisfied were you with the service providers?	1. Very satisfied 2. Satisfied 3. Very dissatisfied 4. Dissatisfied 5. Don't know	1 2 3 4 5
303b	In your own view, to what extent do the following actors influence public sector decision making on service delivery issues? 1= Not at all 2=Slightly 3=Sometimes 4=Always 5=Don't know	A . LC III Chairpersons B . Local councilors C . Member of Parliament for Kampala D . The Lord Mayor E . KCCA Management F- Citizens G- Civil servants H . Private and Not profit organizations I - Media J . Others (Specify)	A B C D E F G H I J

304	How would you rate performance of your leaders? A . LC III Chairpersons B . Local councilors C . Member of Parliament for Kampala D . The Lord Mayor	Very good Good Fair Poor	A B C D		
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Section 400: AFTER MATH

Question Number	Question	Result	Skip
400	On the scale of one to four (Never = 1, Sometimes = 2, Often = 3, Always = 5, Don't know = 98) How well do you think your division is handling the following on decision making?	A . consulting ordinary people B . consulting traditional/community leaders C . leaders of community organizations/ traditional leaders	A B C
401	Do you think Civil society organisations in your division are independent of the government in performing their duties?	Yes No Don't Know	1 2 3
402	To what degree do you think KCCA takes the voices of the following groups into account during the planning and service delivery? Not at all=1, 2=slightly, 3=Somewhat, 4=Completely	A. Opposition parties B. NGOs/CSO C. Local authorities D. Citizens	A B C D
403	How do you find out if the recommendations you proposed during the participation process are adopted?	A= News papers B = Radio C= TV D = Mobile phones E= Internet F = Word of mouth G = Others (Specify)	A B C D E F G

404	Are you aware of your right to access information?	Yes No	1 2		
405	Do you know where to get information in case of need?	Yes No	1 2		
406	Are you aware that you have a right to demand for information on service delivery issues?	Yes No	1 2		
407	Do your local council leaders inform you of services delivery decisions made in your community?	Yes No	1 2		
408	Are you aware of any committee set up to monitor the delivery of services in your community?	Yes No	1 2		
409	Reflecting on your experiences with citizen participation activities in your community, please rate your agreement with the following statements 1=Very often, 2=Often, 3=Rarely, 4=Not at all	A. Local authorities often report back to people after service delivery B. Decisions are made involving citizens on decisions agreed upon C. Citizens are always informed on reasons why their suggestions are not taken into consideration D. Citizen decisions are always respected by the authorities E. Solutions proposed by the community are given adequate considerations	A B C D E		
410	How best can citizens be involved in the decision making processes of their communities? (Write everything that you are told)				

Thank you for responding to these questions.

APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR: KCCA OFFICIALS

Date:

Official:

Section A: Broad participation

1. What do you understand by the term citizen participation?
2. What do you perceive as your role in enabling citizen participation?
3. In your opinion who do you perceive as the key actors/stakeholders in public decision making on issues relating to service delivery?
4. Using a scale of 1-3 in your view, to what extent do the following actors influence decision-making in your directorate issues (1= not at all, 2=sometimes, 3= greatly)

	1	2	3	4	
Local councilors (county /sub county councils/parish and village councils					
District chair person					
Mayors					
Political parties					
Civil servants and employees of public institutions					
The citizens					
Mass media representatives					
Non-profit organizations					
Business sector representatives					

5. Please specify on the scale of 1-4 (where 1= strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3= agree, 4 strongly agree), to what extent do you agree with the following statements referring to citizen involvement in your department/authority?

	1	2	3	4	
The citizens can notify the department/authority about the potential problems in the community					
The citizens are always offered all the necessary information regarding the service delivery decisions pending adoption					
Citizens can at any time propose solutions regarding community problems on service delivery matters					
When the institution makes a service delivery decisions the citizen's suggestions or opinions regarding the matter at hand are always taken into consideration by the officials					
The institution is trying to actively facilitate the involvement of both the citizens and other society groups in the decision making process					
Decisions in public institutions are always made without informing or even consulting citizens.					

6. What are some of the platforms/mechanisms that you have put in place to facilitate citizen participation?

7. Is there a standard procedure for citizen participation in your directorate?
Yes/No

a) If yes what is this standard procedure for citizen participation in your department/jurisdiction?

b) Is this standard procedure for citizen participation in your department/jurisdiction effective in terms making decisions that influence service delivery?

Section B: Participant Satisfaction with the citizen participation

8. On the scale of 1 to 4 (1= very dissatisfied, 2= dissatisfied, 3= satisfied and 4= very satisfied), How satisfied are you with each of the following

	1	2	3	4
The fairness of the general citizen participatory process in your directorate				
Your opportunity to participate as a member of the community				
The usefulness of the participation process to address service delivery issues				
The degree to which the participation outcomes represent broader community interests				
The information provided on citizen participation by your department/directorate				
The degree to which the information you provide encourages other members of the community to participate effectively				
The understanding of the government citizen participation initiatives by the citizens				

9. How effective would you rate the government's initiatives towards citizen participation?

1	2	3	4
Not effective at all	Effective to some extent	Effective	Very effective

10. Based on your judgment, would you say the initiatives towards citizen participation have promoted participation that is capable to demand quality service delivery?

11. On the scale of 1 to 4 (1= very poor, 2= poor, 3= good and 4 very good) How do you rate the understanding of the government citizen participation initiatives by the following actors.

	1	2	3	4
Local councilors (county /sub county councils/parish and village councils				
District councilors				
Mayors				
Political parties				
Civil servants				
Other public institutions such as universities				
The citizens				
Mass media representatives				
Non-profit organizations				
Business sector representatives				

Section C: Aftermaths of citizen participation

12. How often do you take into considerations the recommendations made by the citizens when making service delivery decisions?

Please explain

13. If the recommendations suggested by the citizens are not used do you communicate to them the reasons why their recommendations were not used?

14. What procedure do you use to communicate to the citizens the decisions adopted after their participation?

15. Do you think there is a link between citizen participation and service delivery?

Thank you for your cooperation