

**SOCIAL POLICY THEORIES: DEBATES, POLICIES AND
PROSPECTS OF SOCIAL CHANGE
IN THE GREAT LAKES REGION**

**Uganda, Kenya, Rwanda, DRC Congo, Burundi, Tanzania, Zimbabwe,
Chad, Sudan, Somalia, Angola,**

Written by
Catherine. K.S. H Mwine

This is a completely revised second edition of a book which has become a standard text in social policy planning. In addition to provoking the reader with an up to date contemporary portrait of social policy planning, Catherine Mwine further develops her postulation of various theories as the best way of explaining and understanding the role of what she has called “equilibrium” policy that lead to positive social change. This conceptual advance makes **Social Policy Theories: Debates, Policies and Prospects of Social Change in the Great Lakes Region** an event of major importance in the literature of social policy planning.

The book is central to the Social Policy Planning Handbooks series and will prove an excellent text book in both electronic mode and conventional paperback material, for university students, further education and board room and front line policy implementers. It is also a thought provoking reading for those established in the profession. **Social Policy Theories: Debates, Policies and Prospects of Social Change In the Great Lakes Region** is written by an experienced professional with a deep knowledge of the subject and a determination to improve the process of designing equitable policies.

Forum for Africa Policy Study (FAPS)

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**Social Policy Theories
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In the Great Lakes Region**

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Dedications

To all my students and the users of my works, with whom I have tested existing knowledge and built new regimes of knowledge and knowledge of social policy ceased to be a skeleton but real life in packages of social services

To my lovely daughter Arinda.

CM

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PREFACE

In all recorded history of the Great Lakes Region, social policy was first scientifically studied in form of economic policies which was actually the purpose of its (GLR) formulation, considering that we have barely begun; the results are still not gratifying.

When first developed the dream to write this book I envisioned a text that would be at once solidly scientific and warmly: human, factually rigorous and intellectually provocative. It would reveal social policy as an investigative reporter might, by providing an up-to-date summary of important social phenomena, and of how scientists uncover and explain such phenomena from rigorous inquiry rather than presumptions. I wanted this book to be comprehensive, and also stimulate students' thinking and prompt us to build new regimes of knowledge and to inquire, analyze, relate theories to everyday happenings.

Among other relevant characteristics of writing for academic purposes worthy of particular consideration are those concerning several questions such as selecting material for inclusion in a reasonably comprehensive introduction to the discipline of social policy using theoretical underpinnings? I have sought to present theories and findings that are neither too esoteric for the typical undergraduate nor better suited to other courses, such as development and social work. I have chosen instead to emphasize material that casts social policy in the intellectual tradition of the liberal arts. By the teaching of great literature, philosophy, and science, social policy education seeks to expand our thinking and awareness and to liberate us from the confines of the present. Social policy can contribute to these goals and provide underpinnings that policies are indent a fundamental pillar for social change. Many undergraduate social policy students neither are not policy planners or implementers nor are they social service majors; virtually all will enter other professions.

For social policy scholars, the phenomenon of disequilibrium social policies has created diverse negative multiplier effects on the welfare of people. In order to grasp this phenomenon, before beginning to analyze it, we must of course start from the available social policies. But we can not take them as measuring exactly what we want. We must proceed to some preliminary analysis in order to check that there is indeed disequilibrium, beyond effects. In other words, we must identify the disequilibrium component of social policies which is not

directly given by the statistics. It is, then, convenient and quite usual to imagine that this volume will fill this gap and contribute to various forms of social change.

Catherine K.S.H Mwine

INTRODUCTION

The book opens with a brief chapter that set a landscape for the conceptualization of various social policy theories and their relevancy to social policy planning and social change. The first chapter gives a brief look at the published statistics on the development of theory and it also introduces our methods of inquiry. The chapter also warns students how theories can seem obvious once you know them and how theories own values that permeate the discipline of social policy planning. The intent is to give students just enough to prepare them for future competent policy planners who can be future change agents.

The book then unfolds around its definition of social theory and social policy concept provided by several scholars. The second chapter provides statistics based on a rigorous inquiry of evolution theory and its impact on the trend of family institution and change in gender roles and trends. The scientific study of social change (Chapter One), influences (Chapter Two), and relates (Chapter Three) to one another citing different types of social change which include acculturation, assimilation, and imitation leading to quantitative change especially in the marriage institution.

Chapter four on theories and histories of social change examines the rise and fall of civilization and presents the works of the classical scholars of social change such as Auguste Comte (1798-1857), a French thinker who explained social change as the outcome of intellectual development. The chapter show how Comte was convinced that the masses would be dynamic if knowledge were imparted more equitably in the society a strategy which can only be favorable social policies such as education policy in Tanzania, Uganda and Chad case studies.

Chapter Four, Five and Six considers the cyclic theory (rise and fall) and evolution

and how it flows from fatalism and activism and concludes by exploring the nature and implication of revolution in relation to social policy planning.

Applications of social policies are both interwoven throughout every chapter and highlighted with the applied case studies that conclude each section. One such chapter, "revolution and Power elite" includes material on social policies's contribution to the study of Violence in Kenya and power elite in Rwanda.

This book, like most of my previous works on social policy, has an applied and illustrative emphasis that can be seen in the thoroughly researched case studies of various social policies from almost all the countries from the Great Lakes Region in chapter 12 and throughout the book in the inclusion of research from various implemented policies such as education policy, poverty alleviation policy and healthy policy in Uganda. The book's focus remains the fundamental principles of social thinking, social policy influence, and social change as revealed by rigorous inquiry and empirical research and evidence in HIV/AIDS and voluntary counseling and. But these principles are more and more illustrated transnational in the Great lakes region such as the Environment policy of Zimbabwe, education policy of Angola and health policy of Somalia, thereby broadening our awareness of the relevancy of social policies in the development of the Great Lakes Region.

The book is a thoroughly researched piece, with over 300 citations.

In collaboration with Digitalive Media also now offers a videodisc of classic social policy volume CDs. These 45- to 60-minute clips (also available on videotape) are drawn from social policy archives and arranged to complement the text. These too follow the text organization and can enrich and stimulate class discussion. Information on how to obtain the supplements is available from Aristock Booklex, Mukono Book shop, Uganda Book shop and School of Research and Post Graduate Studies (SRPGS) Uganda Christian University.

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I would like to give special thanks to my colleagues whose suggestions were particularly helpful: Kate Namirembe, Bugema University; and Prof Steven Nol; Vice Chancellor, Uganda Christian University, Mukono.

Finally, in addition to those listed below, I would like to thank the staff and student of Uganda Christian University who contributed significantly to the discussions that formed the foundation in the writing of this volume. There are also several people who used their skills in helping me put this book together, Aggie Mukasa of the E and A Blood Line; acquisitions editor, Epajar Ojulu and Carol Bu'dhwike; manuscript editors and David Lule of Digitalive Media; production editor.

CHAPTER ONE

THE GREAT LAKES REGION

The great lakes region is the region that surrounds a series of lakes in and around the Great Rift Valley. It comprises of the following countries; Rwanda, Uganda, DRC Congo, Kenya, Tanzania, Sudan, Burundi and Zimbabwe. The series of lakes here are Lake Victoria, Lake Tanganyika, Lake Albert, Lake Edward, Lake Kivu and Lake Malawi among others. It is one of the most densely populated areas of the world, with an estimated 107 million people. Because of past volcanic activity this part of Africa contains some of the world's best farmland. Its altitude also gives it a rather temperate climate despite being right on the equator. This has left it out of the disease zone allowing widespread use of livestock, especially cattle and goats. Because of the density of population and the agricultural surplus in the region, the area became highly organized into a number of small states. The most powerful of these monarchies were Rwanda, Burundi, Buganda, and Bunyoro.

Definition of the concept Theory

The instrumental view on social policy theory can be seen clearly in the analysis presented by some of the earliest writers (Sarantos, 1998 Marsh and Stoker, 1995) of social research when they defined the concept theory as a logical explanation of the inter-relatedness of a set of facts that has been empirically verified or is capable of being verified. A theory is supposed to create the capacity to explanation. It is an integrated set of relationships with ascertain level of validity. Confining ourselves, at first, to the conceptualization of the concept theory, the first assertion from several scholars is that the power of a theory lays in its explanatory power any occurrence of a phenomenon and the solutions recommended by the theory.

Turners (1995) urged convincingly that the early works on the integration of theory and social policy supported the realms of social policy discourse, giving it a fundamental primacy to some common terms that are essential to the process of theory building and theory itself.

Theory is usually developed particularly by positivists and was used just as away of giving evidence of something which can be provided by the five

senses and perhaps with also the rear sixth sense. Turner has defined theory as thus:

A theory is a set of activities or a system of related ideas that acts as a tool in the manufacturing of knowledge in the academia.

The efficiency of the theory is measured in its explanatory power... hence creating its relevance in the social policy space.

The origin of theories can be built through qualitative and quantitative research and it is expected to create change in its operational area.

Social scientist authors were the first to admit that even at a common sense level, theory and hypotheses are inter-related or inter-dependents that is why it becomes a moral imperative to create them in a process which evolves an intellectual rigor and it is invented through human ingenuity, intelligence and ability to be creative. Some scholarships (Danson 1998, Kardee 2002 Winston 2004) have interpreted this sort of intellectual interdependency as a manifestation of ideological character of dependency.

Several of my social policy studies have used sets of theories to explain the social problems understudy and my contribution would be to define a theory as a system of related ideas that can be used to predict and explain social phenomena. It assumes the principle of causation and explanation and establishes the relationship with the causes and effects of any social phenomena with a liable degree of certainty. Where a theory is efficient is usually measured by its explanatory power. In social policy, theories are used to explain how societies are organized for the delivery of social services.

A theory has mainly three functions:

- . Helps understand occurrences by providing explanations
- . Predict and be able to forecast.
- . Control-putting in place measures to minimize chances of event occurring.

At a more fundamental level, theory building discourses involves the use of logic analysis which is concerned with the relationship between a conclusion and evidence given to support it.

Contemporary behaviorists in the social policy tradition along with researchers working in other intellectual tradition tried to reject the notion that theory and social policy are independent, parallel and synonymous.

Contemporary positivism and classical relativism

On the contrary, most works in the social policy space would now accept the relativism view that the social services implemented are in part a consequence of the theoretical position that the social policy makers should adopt in the first place. The early behaviorists in social policy space proclaimed their approach to social enquiry as best on theory and empirical significance. Contemporary positivism can be distinguishable from classical relativism because it is one thing to agree that social policy making is colored with theoretical underpinnings and quite another to conclude that one set of theories are of political significance rather than a utilitarian calculation of the common good. Contemporary behaviorists are perfectly prepared to accept the notion that different theoretical positions are likely to elicit different descriptions of reality. They insist that, however social policy debate should be propelled by a particular theoretical perspective which can be used in order to conduct a systematic empirical test of the policy that is being implemented.

Turner's writings (1995) notwithstanding, the obstacles to an adequate theory of articulation are not as insubstantial as to yield so much simple conceptual innovation such as the distinction between inferences. This reasoning is usually from our set of belief that is usefully, as such maybe for expositional purposes in social policy planning.

Deductive and inductive validity

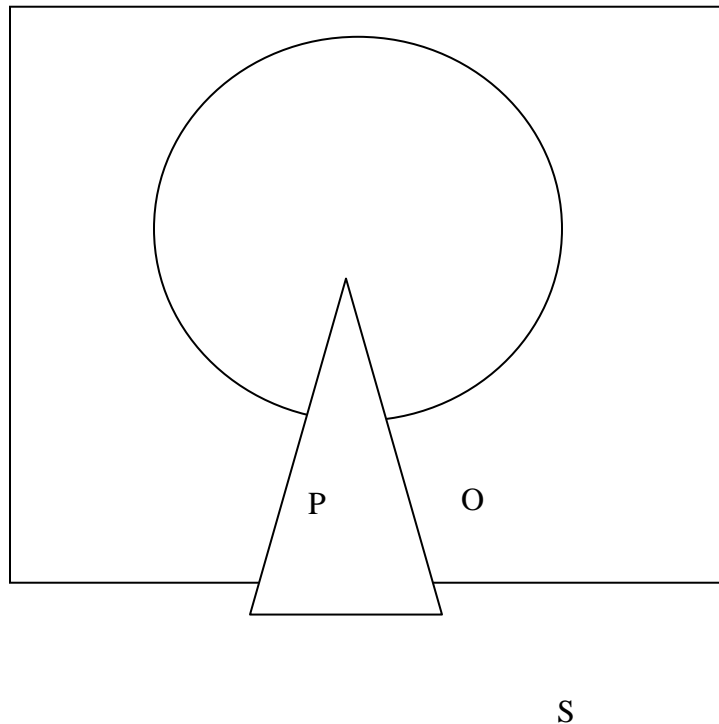
Different criteria of logical correctness are applied to arguments, deductive validity and inductive, which deals with relationships between premises and conclusions. If and only the premises are true, the conclusion derived from a particular theory must be true. Even while stressing this aspect, however, it is hard not to be struck by a certain perversity in the way Turner's theses claim that theory organize evidence and it is difficult to dismiss the feeling that while what he has said is true, it is in a certain sense not the whole truth. Specifically, I would urge that his views on the conventional prospect of failure of a premise to grant the truth of the conclusion, for example.

- 2 The majority of government policies are not interpreted into favorable social services.
- 3 The majority of social services are, interpreted from social policies.
- 4 All government policies are social services.

Of course, there has always been a presumption that number two (2) may be the conclusion and in science theory building is by no means a singular discourse, it is rather a multiple set of discourses through which we can understand the social phenomenon. By reference to certain qualities that are projected, reason from theories can examine the truth of only the hypothesis through agreement, approve and disapproval of empirical significance.

According to this account deductive validity is represented diagrammatically and well illustrated in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1



S is acquired where all situation are represented by the many.
P the triangle represents all policies which Panther refers to as the first formal attempt to record social policy theory.

A cluster of writings in the broad social policy tradition have advanced a body of work drawing on their practice, experience that presented a particular statement of conceptual approach that, which represented their thinking. This theoretically determined approach has several consequences or corollaries.

First, in writing and describing the nature of theory itself and the theory building process, Parlman (1995) frequently acknowledges variations in the general pattern of theory development but consistently downplays them. These writings did not focus at specific theories themselves but urged us to look at the process in the abstract especially when designing social policies.

CHAPTER TWO

Theories used in social policy discipline

Several scholars joining this seemingly eclectic debate on the nature of theoretical underpinnings that can explain the dynamics of social policy planning were armed with certain influential sociological theories that have taken shape with reference to structural Marxists calculations. This gave rise to a body of work on the articulation of the processes of designing favorable social policies which can bring about change for the betterment of societies.

The links between social policy and theory may at first sight appear not to have a social and apolitical significance to policy making and far from central to government concerns. In a justly argument, I will take an eclectic position and try to discuss the parallels that have to be recognized more fully as cornerstones for practical policy making, citing relevant theories that have been borrowed from different disciplines to explain social and political phenomenon in the Great Lakes Region. The selected social policy theories will help me identify what may superficially appear to be the gaps in existing welfare policies which are sometimes discriminating, hence creating an imbalance in people's standard of living, sparking off ethnic conflicts in the Great Lakes Region. I shall try to identify the theoretical discourses of existing policies with illustrations from practical problems enhanced by empirical content.

Theories used in the designing and implementation of social policies

There are different theories which professionals use as baselines during the enactment of social policies. The following are some of the theories:

Evolution theory

In a justly philosophical writing, Auguste Comte, a French thinker was perhaps the most prominent protagonist of evolution theory (1798-1857), made an important distinction between social changes as the outcome of intellectual development. He formulated his famous law of the stages of intellectual development.

This was the genesis of the theoretical metaphysical mode of thought to the positive mode as represented by modern science. The traditional analysts perceived education as the' most important factor, the presence of which made certain classes privileged and the absence of which made the other

class under-privileged and subjected to exploitation as is illustrated by the case of Tanzania Kenya and Uganda education policies provided in this volume.

Every innovation in the field of technology in the sphere of human relationships in the domain of knowledge contributes to the transformation and in of society.

Social scientist have taken keen interest conceptualizing the genesis of social change and concerning desirability of social change the way it evolves and it's impaction humanity.

Theories and strategies of social change

Globalization and social change

Although change may be gradual and unnoticed, all societies are consistently changing. Harton (1998) noted that social change may be planned but more often it takes place without plan or intent. Virtually every act of every individual leaves a particular situation different than it was before the act occurred.

Part of this volume will therefore deal with the convectional socialized theories and strategies of social change which acknowledges features context and make some attempt to trace the factors that shape the changing context of societies.

This is a vital undertaking since if the volume is to examine both theories and strategies of social change, then it will make some attempt to place both psychological and social change into a large context to make sense of factors that promoted the cultural turn of social thinking.

The study of social change has been one of constant endeavors speculations and ideological controversy in philosophical thinking. It appears, today much more than twenty years ago that social policies must be reviewed in a dynamic setting because their consequences evolve and extend far beyond the time at which they are introduced. This is because we are living at a time where change is experienced at a faster and more rapid scale than during any other period in human history.

Social change defined.

Har Das and Chodlour (1983) defined social change as the process by which alternation occurs in the structure and a function of a social system.

Ginsberg observed that the term social change must also include changes in attitudes and beliefs.

A social change is any difference in the interaction pattern which develops through time and space. In their definitions of social change, scholars now refer only to gainful social change.

Types of social change

Social change occurs both at the individual and social system levels. All social changes, in individuals and change through crisis and revolution should be understood as change in the social system as a whole. Social change occurs because all societies are in a constant state of disequilibrium. Change has become away of life for modern societies to the extent that a good proportion of people are employed in different positions in which their primary effort is to induce change. The usual model of social policy planning is, however static. Much attention must there be devoted to studying how dynamic analysis of social change should proceed. The process of social change entails the creation of new ideas, the way in which they are diffused and their consequences. The changes that ensure better life to people are being referred to as progress or development.

Types of social change

There are different types of social change these include:

Acculturation

Assimilation

Imitation

Acculturations

Acculturation as patterns of social changes implies the process of cultural change in which more or less continuous contact between two or more culturally distinct groups result in one group taking over elements of culture of the other group or groups. It is a broad process through which cultural change takes place. The situation that occurs when social change is imposed by might as on subordinate groups is called forced acculturation. On the other hand they do not account for the cultural values of other segments of the society. Its application would be subject to a large margin of uncertainty if it were not further codified in a positive direction using equitable social policies.

The broad facts are well known. First and foremost, social change varies through time; this is clear when we look at existing data on the transition

between informal and formal education and societal narratives in Africa. Among other characteristics of acculturation are those concerning the change in cultural values as a result of formal education. It is, and then convenient and quite usual to mention that acculturation is evident in health policy, industrialization and change in power dynamics of democracy from monarch institutions to elected establishments.

Development and social policy implementers should therefore realize the fact that social programmes change beliefs, cultures and traditions of the poor while at the same time help them to analyze how these beliefs and traditions either provide them with emotional and economic support or contribute to keeping them in a state of poverty and oppression. The poor will make such changes when they realize that such changes are to their advantage (Burker 1995).

Assimilation:

Assimilation is a process of interpretation and fusion in which persons or groups acquire memories, sentiments and attitudes of other people or groups and by sharing their experiences and history are incorporated with them in a common cultural life hence creating social change. In particular, social policy implementers have to decide exactly when the social phenomenon requires a policy to effect change. The notion of requiring change is, however, not strictly interpreted since existing research is required to justify the need for change.

For my survey of the dynamic forces of assimilation which we must take into account, it is convenient to think of three main sources of spontaneous assimilation. I shall take them in turn: adapting cultural symbols such as language from colonist, organization policies such as orientation policies, scholarships which entail students to be taken to foreign countries and get indoctrinated into placing high premium on everything from the west.

Summarizing what we know about assimilation change now, I may say that this change is found to exist but to be stronger than was expected, and that at times the use of the language of the colonialists such as the English language in the Anglophone countries like Uganda, French phone such as Rwanda and Portuguese in Angola is compulsory in schools and in some countries, such languages are adopted as the national languages. One clear consequence is that people started to place high value on the colonialist language than their own vernacular.

On further reflection we may, however, mention the fact that economic assimilation and the demarcation of African boundaries without consideration of ethnic diversity created a tempo for assimilation change and cultural diffusion.

I shall not discuss here, how these social policies resulting from assimilation changes and the regional recommendations concerning them are applied in different countries, all of which face particular social change of one type or another. Suffice it to say that social policies of different countries are never rigorously comparable in their evolution but the degree of harmonization between countries in the Great Lakes Region is progressively improving.

Characteristics of social change

Social change entails to kinds of changes.

Quantitative

Qualitative

Quantitative change:

Quantitative form of social change is the empirical significance referring to observable and quantified shifts in behaviors and attitudes of different groups in particular society. Quantitative change can be easily ascertained with some degree of empirical significance for example:

Data on quantitative changes in population numbers and compositions as illustrated by the study on the dynamics in marriage provided in this chapter. Population distribution and per capital income.

Qualitative

Qualitative social change is a change which occurs sooner or later when the structure of the society as a whole is gradually altered.

This type of change may occur in any aspect of the social system e.g. in the Tools – technological processes illustrated by the ICT policy cited in this chapter.

Informal and formal modes of association such as marriages

The broad facts are well known. First and foremost, social change varies through time and space and from one country and region to another. This is clear as soon as we look at existing data. In Uganda, for instance, during the last decade the marriage and family institution has experienced a lot of

dynamics which have been documented in various social problems such as street children and changes in sexual behaviors.

Prerequisites for the analysis of change

Many studies in social change particularly that of Pettigrew dubbed their preference approach to contextualized models of change which must fulfill four prerequisites.

Contextualize analyses are multi-level studies.

They attempt to account for behaviors and interaction at the level of the individuals, the group organization or agency and the wider society. Burkey (1995) contributed significantly to the above contextual approach when he highlighted that: A team of research gathers scientifically neutral facts about people and their situation using detailed questionnaires, interviewing selected individuals in a house hold frame work.

The aggregated data is then assumed to provide a picture of the society as a whole.

It is on the basis of this contextualized data, that social problems which require the designing of social policies to effect change can be identified.

Gianotten and Dewit quoted in Burkey (1998) added to the above view that the application of quantitative techniques lead to over simplification of reality and quantitative analyses not related to history or evolving social changes and social relationship.

- 2) Contextualized analyses eschew the episodic studying change. This involves studying societies longitudinally in a change process which argues that societies or any other social entity may profitably be explored as a continuing system with a past a present and a future.
- 3) The process requires the explicit articulation of a model of humanity.

Pettigrew argues that if professionals are to make sense of both continuity and change they require a model of humanity that does not reduce change to some thing determined by the environment or by some notion of structure. Thus there is need for a model of humanity which will allow humans to operate as choice making actors. The model of humanity creates a conducive climate e where users are allowed to play in bounded social change processes. It is also well known that participation of the people in institutions and systems that govern their lives is a basic human right and it is essential for social change according to a pattern which seems to be about

the same every where in modern societies and at all times (Burkey (1998).Social change can be achieved by the usage of participatory action research (RAR) which is a process of concretization.

The objectives Participatory Action Research are

To increase the change agent understands of the social situation.

To inspire the users into change

To increase the insights of the local people especially the poor into causative factors of their social problems.

In order to develop a wholly contextualized approach, the multi-level contextual form of analysis must be integrated with the procession, horizontal level of analysis.

This implies a particular view of context which overcomes the limiting notion of environment. Thus the environment tends to exist as arranged particularly back drop for what is taken to be the truly important internal functioning societies.

The contextualize view point must acknowledge or complex set of relations between horizontal and vertical line of analysis.

Aspects of structure and context are mobilized and activated by actors and groups as they seek to obtain outcomes which are important to them. This context is a barrier to action but it allows for choice and maneuver context comes to be involved in the production of action. Vasant quoted in Burkey contended with the above view when he asserted that if change agents put trust in people, they become responsible for their thoughts and actions.

CHAPTER THREE

Strategies of social change

Dawson's strategies of change

Dawson advocates for change strategies which are both flexible yet clearly defined these strategies should deal with the complexity of change while remaining uncluttered and give promotion of practical use.

To this end Dawson argues that the temporal aspect of change should have a horizontal process which can be broken down into three general time's frames. In order to subdivide the complex process of social change into easy manageable segments the following time frames should be considered.

Three time frames outlined are:

Conceptions of the need to change

Process of organizational or societal transition

Operation of new operation practices / appreciative and procedures

The need for change

The conceptions of need to change can be influenced by a whole host of external factors.

Mobilization

Concretization

Organization

The concept of the need for change is to awaken in each user a better understanding of themselves and the realities of their situation. Learning critically to carry out analysis in the following conceptual questions

Where are we?-Existing unfavorable social policies

Where do we want to go? - Improved livelihoods

What must we do to get there? - Design equitable policies

What is keeping us back? - Economic factors such as availability of resources.

What can we do to overcome these obstacles?

Among other relevant characteristics of social change worthy of particular considerations are those concerning the distribution of resources according to the available funds and the steps taken designing and implementation of social policies? When economic conditions vary, the probability of social change also varies in each group of people experiencing similar problems.

By learning to answer to these questions the users and the change agent can proceed to planning and implementing social change that can improve the clients' lives

The process of transition clearly follows from the conception of a need to change. It represents a process whereby the conception of need for change is refined and developed.

In the transition phase, practitioners must weigh up and assess possibilities and opportunities which arise as a result of identifying a need to change.

Following this assessment, practitioners and clients can then go on to attempt to implement their preferred options.

Operation of new practices / approaches according to Dawson's third time frame represents a period in which new work practices or approaches emerge. Recognizing the complex and essentially chaotic nature of social change, unanticipated events or new insights may emerge which might support, undermine or even destroy the plans and attempts of practitioners and users to implement the change.

Dawson observes that the passing of time is likely to produce multiple and competitive histories of social change rather than simple narratives where change has identifiable beginning and end points.

In order to enhance the understanding of the change process there is need to develop the temporal frameworks to incorporate the major determinants of change. The key determinants of change are grouped in three areas

The substance of change

The politics of change

The context of change

The substance of change

It must be said from the start that, the substance of change identified by experts as required, falls in the category of normative change.

The substance of change enables or contains the options which the practitioner may pursue.

At an intuitive level, this seems quite plausible since all the stake holders can think of a variety of changes which, depending upon the substance will variously engender support indifference or outright opposition.

The determinants described as the politics of change covers a range of activities such as conflict, negotiations, consultations between groups of users, practitioners and external bodies for example politician and policy makers. The determinants also include relations between the various agencies of the stage and entities such as foreign donor community. Thus the politics of change determinants covers internal micro-politics activities as well as internal form of decision making and politicking.

Collectivism as a major strategy of change

The major determinants of collective behaviors

Structural conduciveness

Structural strain

Growth and spread of generalized belief.

Precipitating factors
Mobilization of participants for action.
The operation of social control...

Sources of social change

Sources of social change are defined as a process and it should have laved like, any other processes. For the sources and mechanism which produce change the social theorists have laid emphasis on the whole single variable explanation of social change since the 18th century.

These theorists have laid more emphasis on endogenous sources of social change than exogenous sources.

The studies of Afro-Asian countries are concerned that the analysis of social change should be devoted to the influence of colonized relationship on the structure and functioning of these societies. These functions lead in many cases to social change in their social systems through an intensive accumulation processes

Cumulative theory

The principle of cumulative social change

The cumulative theory was advocated by Gunnar Myrdal who advocated that the cumulative process can be set in motion and it can have final effects quite out of proportion of such high magnitude on the affected society.

The cause of cumulating might be withdrawn after a time and a permanent change will remain and still a permanent change will continue with a new balance evolving.

If the initial change has been the provision of opportunities to empower the marginalized groups in a particular society by introducing the number of variable e.g. education opportunities, employment stability, nutrients campaigns; the introduction of the empowerment variable will force other variables to cumulate in a direction causing decrease in prejudice of other effects towards the empowered group hence a process of continuous change.

External impacts on societal social change

The “Ideal type” domestic situational component of undisrupted society from traditional patterns of life confronted with pressures to change their ways economically, socially, and politically. The actor is usually confronted

with new better ways of producing economic good and services. The actor is always frustrated by the modernization process of change generally and the failure of the government to satisfy the people ever rising expectations.

Factors linked to social change

Cultural factors/religious factors

Education factors

Demographical factors

Environmental factors

Technological factors

Political factors

Economic factors

Biological factors

Psychological factors

Several sociologists researched particularly that of Marx and Engles have linked several factors to social strata. The first stratum is the internal factors and the second are the external sources of change.

Internal sources of social change

Internal sources of social change refer to those factors that originate within a specific society that solely or in combination produces significant alternations in the social organization and structure. The most important internal sources of social change are:

Innovation

Cultural conflict

Institutionalized structural inequality

External sources of social change

The major external source of social change is diffusion.

Diffusion is the process by which these new ideals are communicated to the member of social system and a process by which a trait spreads from one culture to another. Those societies in close contact with others are most likely to change. In recent times changes in the remotest corners are being reported through the communication media.

The process of social change

The process of social change can be viewed in the following sequential steps:

Invention

Diffusion

Consequences

Adoption

Invention is the process by which new ideas are created and developed.

Consequences are the changes that occur within the social system as a result of adoption or rejection of innovation.

Crisis and conflict may cause change because they alter social structures and relationships and require adoption to new condition.

Perspectives of social change

Considering how important the new developments of social change theory have been during the recent years, it is clear that their implications of their applied work ought to be extensively discussed. Such a discussion has indeed started by conceptualizing the two perspectives of social change;

Materialistic perspective and

Idealistic perspective

Proponent of materialistic perspective

Inquiry about the classical materialistic perspective of social change follows not only from the natural development of theoretical reflection but also from the non-frequent concerns of policy makers basing on Karl Marx's thesis that focuses on the factors of production space.

Clearly, the full upward flexibility of all social change is not a realistic hypothesis to make for modern two classes of people in the society according to Karl Marx i.e. those who don't own the factors of production (the have-nots) and those who own (the haves).

Change occurs when one group changes

There is change in ideologies, political structures. Marx says that change will occur because of dislocation or contradiction between productive forces and the social relations of production. He said that capitalist needed profits meaning that capitalists were after making profit only. Capitalist were interested in competition.

Other materialistic perspectives

Other thinkers have emphasized material factors as causes of change e.g. William Ogburn in the 1930 William wrote extensively about the technological process of social change in America. He argued that the advent of the automobile had changed America society in many ways.

By increasing geographical mobility

By accelerating the growth of suburbs

By changing courtship customs e.g. by removing them from the direct supervision of adults

In general William's argument is that material culture changes more rapidly than non-material aspects of culture e.g. ideas, values, norms and ideologies.

Idealistic Perspective

Idealists are people who see ideas, values, norms, ideologies as causes of change.

1. Ideas include both knowledge and belief i.e. change of an idea is the change of knowledge and belief may be by studying, consulting other people e.t.c.

Values are assumptions about what is desirable and undesirable.

Ideology means a more or less organized combination of beliefs and values that serves to justify or legitimize forms of human action e.g. democracy, Capitalism, Socialism.

How ideas and values cause change.

It is important to recognize that ideational culture often acts as a barrier to change. Confucianism in China may have been a barrier of development of free market capitalism. Further more the same set of ideas and values can promote change in one time and retard change at others.

Capitalist ideology is still a world force for change.

CHAPTER FOUR

Theories of social change

Many theories of social change looked at aspects of human history

The rise and fall of civilization

Gradual accumulation of new innovation and ideals and possibilities

The complexion of social change makes it impossible for a single theory to explain its entire ramification i.e. to explain all the social change many branches.

Each theory views changes from entirely a different perspective

Social examples of the histories of social change

The changes which took place in the countries of Western block of Europe were rapid and more drastic. Social thinkers of the nineteenth century in Europe were fascinated by the problem of social change. Eminent thinkers developed theories of social change encompassing not only the change which they witnessed but also the changes in human society in their historical perspective.

Evolutionary theory, cyclic theory, equilibrium theory and conflict theory have been fundamental pillars in explaining social change. This brief summary of qualitative evidence already suggests that social change is disequilibrium due to designed policies. Social change fluctuates quite substantially and rather quickly, most types of groups of people being simultaneously affected in the same way.

The idea that an improvement in the society can be brought about through deliberate human effort has persisted in one form or other at various times. It is the ideological basis for all sorts of efforts of social reform, legal or otherwise.

In order to bring man and his society into the cosmic design in nature, many social philosophers started conceiving social progress as the manifestation of a natural law. Auguste Comte (1798-1857), a French thinker was perhaps the most prominent protagonist of this theory. He explained social change as the outcome of intellectual development. He formulated his famous law of the three stages of intellectual development.

It marked a progress from the theological mode of thought through metaphysical mode of thought to the positive mode, of thought as represented by modern science. He perceived education as the 'most important factor, the presence of which made certain classes privileged and

the absence of which made the other class under-privileged and subjected to exploitation.

Against that background, Comte was convinced that the masses would be dynamic if knowledge were imparted more equitably in the society a strategy which can only be favorable social policies and education policy in Tanzania, Uganda and Chad. He claimed to have discovered the laws of social evolution and progress. The concept of evolutionary development both social and biological captured the minds of many nineteenth century intellectuals with the publication of Charles Darwin's (1809-1883) work in 1859. This gave rise to speculation on the course and mechanism of social evolution.

The British thinker Herbert Spencer (1820-1903) was more comprehensive in his theory of social evolution and supported his analysis with empirical data. He was to a great extent influenced by the theory of evolution propounded by Darwin. Spencer perceived that every society goes through a series of fixed and immutable stages, not because of deliberate effort on the part of the man himself, but because of the consequence of a cosmic design over which man has no control. He used the terms like Survival of the Fittest and Struggle for Existence to explain the superiority of western cultures over non-Western ones.

Many of the protagonists of this theory were inclined to accept constant social change as good, only because it was perceived as inevitable. The belief that social change is normal and is proceeding inevitably from bad to good and from good toward better on the way of social perfection, became an intellectual heritage from which the early modern sociologists could not entirely escape.

In the writings of many other early modern French sociologists, particularly, Emile Durkheim (1857-1917), the evolutionary approach was reflected. He argued that change tends to transform the basis of social cohesion in society from the mechanical solidarity and characteristic of all societies. Organic solidarity founded in complex industrial societies. He held that technical progress tends to weaken the relational bonds among members of society.

Ferdinand Tonnies (1855-1935) propagandized the theory which was consistent with that of Durkheim. He felt that the individual's struggle for power characteristic of urban societies would result in culture disintegration.

For both Durham and Tonnies change did not inevitably bring progress, but it had both positive and negative consequences. Even under quite satisfactory economic conditions, there will, therefore, be people experiencing particular social problems. It is then convenient and quite usual to imagine that social change can be broken down into two strata: frictional social change and what I shall call disequilibrium social change. The conceptual distinction between the two variable and their common denominations varies somewhat from one policy analysts to another.

The British thinker Leonard Hobhouse (1864-1929) was strongly influenced by both Comte and Spencer. His theory of social change worked out a more rigorous way using historical and anthropological data. In Britain, many other early twentieth century social scientists, particularly Morris Ginsberg gave an optimistic turn to the pessimistic evolutionism of Spencer. They all believed that social change was inevitable and that the direction of social change was from simple, relatively ineffectual forms of organization.

Marriage institution and changing cultural patterns

Marriage is defined as the emotional and legal commitment of two people to share emotional and physical intimacy, various tasks and economic resources. (Olson and Defrain 2000).

Marriage is a cultural phenomenon which sanctions a more or less permanent union between partners, conferring legitimacy on their offspring. As an institution marriage can take on the form of either monogamy (being married to one person at a time), or polygamous (having more than one marriage partner at a time). It includes polygamy (where one man has two or more wives), polyandry (where one woman has two or more husbands). Also the eligibility of partners in any form of marriage is determined by either exogamy or endogamy. (Nicholas and Stephen 2000)

Social change a continuous process

Is the process through which values, norms, institutions, stratification systems and social relationships alter overtime. (Hess; Markson and Stein 1982; 1985).

No culture, not even that of simple societies is exactly the same as it was five hundred or five years ago. (Hess; Markson & Stein; 1982; 1985). Such conceptualization of social change may embrace a great deal of confusion and reluctance in efforts which may bring change. I prefer, therefore to avoid the term involuntary social change. It is now increasingly common to speak of demand deficiency change. Again there may a risk of confusion. If

by this is meant that the demand for social change is deficient with respect to economic factors and the aim is to identify the discrepancy between the two then this is precisely the same notion of what I call disequilibrium social change. But, usually, the intention seems rather to isolate a component of social change that may be attributed to a deficient demand of social services. The notion is the same as that of “Tonnie's social change” about which I shall be explicit in the subsequent chapters of this volume.

It is increasingly difficult today-and probably has been since the 15th century-to consider changes within any society without referring to broader trends in what Wallerstein (1974) called the “world system”. The term world system refers to the economic and political relationships among societies, particularly among the industrial states and the less developed nations (Hess; Markson and Stein 1985).

On the other hand, thinking of invasion entails the introduction new customs and beliefs or forces a group to relocate and adopt a different mode of cultural pattern. For example nowadays girls greet while standing, this on the other hand leads to girls not being submissive which pushes on until marriages whence undermining the institution of marriage their dressing has also changed from dresses and nowadays they are taking on putting on trousers which is completely a foreign practice in fact some of the married women also have adapted to this mode of dressing, the language we speak is of our colonial masters (English), other practices are like driving for married couples and such customs on a greater extent enhance the institution of marriage and on the other hand also they can undermine the institution of marriage. For example alcoholism, gayism, extra marital relationships, foreign ideologies like that of feminism which has greatly undermined the institution of marriage by instilling a doctrine of equality in rights with men whence undermining the institution of marriage.

There are other changes that have greatly undermined the institution of marriage like divorce, extramarital relationships, same sex marriages, single parent families. These undermine the institution of marriage in that either it causes a scarcity of men which leads to cheating and thus leading to extra marital relationships or it never allows men to settle down for marriage which leads to an increase in cohabitation and thus premarital sex which also affects the youth today.

The social exchange theory;

This perspective looks at personal interactions as if they are analogous to economic exchanges. That is human beings are assumed to be rational and their behavior is directed to the maximization of pleasures (getting rewards)

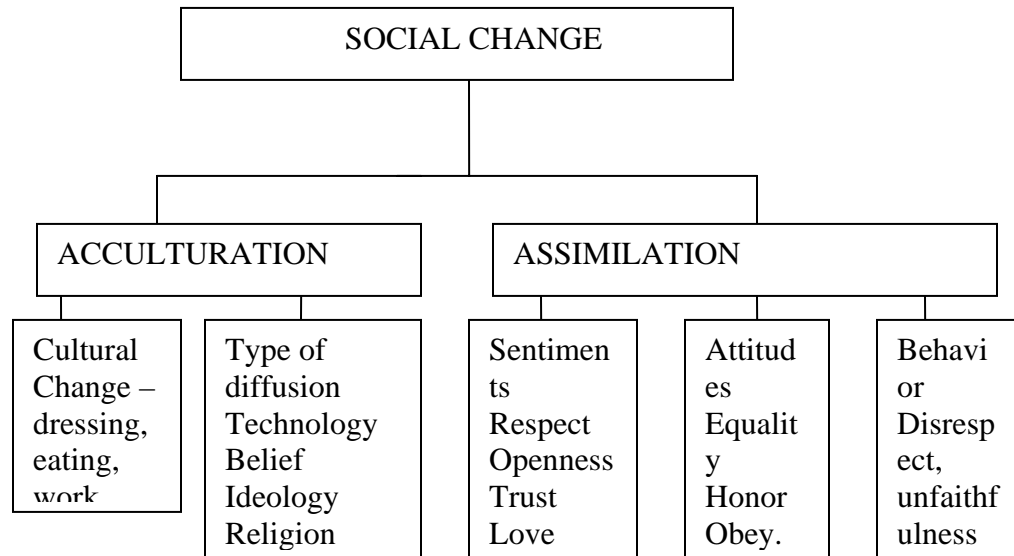
and minimization of pains (reducing costs). When a person is considering divorce for example it is as if he or she compares the benefits and costs of staying in the marriage with the benefits and costs of divorcing and then acts accordingly. The study considered the benefits and costs of social change on marriage and the costs and benefits of entering and leaving marriage. Individuals are assumed to have resources that they use in the social market place to exchange for profit. The profit is not solely in terms of money as economic analysis would have it, but can include a number of other things including social approval (Klein and (White 1996, Garry Becker 1981) pioneered social exchange views of the family) and in variation known as “rational choice theory” by Coleman James (1990). This is also applicable to other aspects of marriage and the family. For instance in marriage there are beliefs, values, norms and technology that can be used so those within the environment can be made choice over to see which fits the institution of marriage (Starbuck Gene 2002).

Equilibrium theory

The notion of equilibrium (balance) was borrowed originally from mechanics and biological sciences. The basic assumption of the equilibrium theory is that when change takes place in any one component in a system, it tends to spur further change in the other elements, which accommodate the new element and integrate it within the structure. The best known equilibrium theory is the structural functional view point analyzed by Talcott Parsons. The functionalists began to trace the cause of social change to people’s dissatisfaction with social conditions that personally affect them. Parsons defines change broadly as a special type Process characteristic of the social system.

This affects the marriage institution in form of women’s education and employment have the potential spur change among other family members such as children will have to be socialized by secondary agents like schools, and the negative consequence this has on the marriage is children may result to peer groups, incest due the parents absentness, broken families which give rise step-parents and this results in street children sometimes as well as unfaithfulness which greatly undermine the family although there is a great support of the family financially and other family relatives.

Conceptual frame work; Analysis of social change within the marriage institution



Contemporary marriage begins with an important assessment of the revolution in marital behavior since world war two, tracing dramatic events /trends in marriage age, cohabitation, divorce and fertility (Kingsley 1985). "It is a curious irony that marriage, which holds great importance and interest in human lives, receives almost no attention in social science." this was a notion put forward by people from an industrialized nation (Kinsley 1985).

Redefining marriage in the 19th century Characteristics of marriage

They were identified by Carl Fred Broderick 1984 a former president of the national council on family relations. Broderick found these characteristics to be common across income levels, education levels and ethnic groups in all societies.

Marriage is a demographic event. Each marriage creates a social unit in society.

Marriage is the joining of two family and social networks. When individuals marry they marry not only each other but their partner's family and friends. Their social networks may comprise friends of both partners but only those friends liked by both partners tend to remain friends of the couple.

Marriage is a legal contract between the couple and the state. Each state specifies the rights and the responsibilities of the partners.

Marriage is an economic union a married couple usually becomes a single unit for most purposes. as a group married couples are probably society's most important financial decision makers

Marriage is the most is the most common living arrangement for adults. Few people choose to live alone. Marriage is by far the most popular living arrangements for adults.

Marriage is the context of most human sexual activity .most married couples rate sexual activity positively, especially in the early years.

Marriage is a reproductive unit. Most married couples become parents and see parenting as an important goal and a valued purpose in their lives.

Marriage is a unit that socializes children .although children can also be raised by single parents, extended families, grand parents and other care givers.

Marriage is an opportunity to develop an ultimate, sharing relationship although many marriages fail, many others provide a supportive context in which people develop and maintain intimacy.

The institution of marriage faced many challenges throughout the next century especially during the time of emancipation. The passage of the thirteenth amendment intended to eliminate slavery, had the potential to do much more.

Early language used in introducing the amendment included the phrase that "all persons are equal before the law, so that no person can hold another as a slave".

Senators worried that such language had the potential to threaten the power of men as heads of households-some might argue that wives were not unlike slaves. Wives' domestic work was for the benefit of their husbands and wives held no independent rights to vote or own property. Making the point that wife entered this relationship voluntarily which made them distinct from slaves.

Through out the second half of the 19th century, dozens of these communal and separate societies sprung up in the Midwest and the northeast presenting a challenge to the institution of monogamous marriage. Social movements supporting a belief in individualism threatened to weaken the community 'glue' that was believed to unite people. The response was to make monogamous marriage itself the glue or the type of social bond that could unite a country.

Husband and wife in the 19th century were part of a complementary

relationship. Husbands perceived as the more innately individualistic partners were expected to take on the challenge of the new economy to support their families. While wives became the moral guardians of the home because they assumed to have more pious, pure nature spouses with their separate roles needed each other to create a whole. This separation of spheres also meant the community became associated more with the world of men, while women's world (family) was less a public concern.

However it did not take long for this system to change yet again, and with it the meaning of marriage. The first wave of the women's movement began with women working for the emancipation of slaves, but did not end after the passing of the thirteenth amendment. The first women's rights convention was held in 1848 in Seneca Falls, New York where women formed their own constitution demanding equal civil rights for all citizens regardless of sex. Many women committed to their domestic obligations were at the forefront of the reform movement at the turn of the century. At the same time; women were increasingly seeking advanced degrees and looking for ways to put their education at work. Together these women worked in the public arena arguing for a marriage between equal partners (Sercombe and Warner 2004).

Marriage in the twentieth marriage;

The industrial revolution resulted not only in the separation of spheres of work expected for men and women but also the separation of marital relations from community control. This situation led to what sociologist Ernest Burgess characterized as the transition from marriage as an institution to marriage as a companionship (Burgess and Lock 1945). An institution can be defined as a major sphere of life with a set of beliefs and rules that is organized to meet basic human needs.

Prior to the 20th century marriage held rather strict rules and beliefs about appropriate roles of husbands and wives, parents and children.

Marriage as the centre of family life served a number of important societal needs from economic to social.

As the new century got underway, a number of other social changes occurred that encouraged this movement of marriage away from its community control to a focus that was more personal based on companionship between wives and husbands.

These social changes included;

The changing experiences of the youth

A sexual revolution

Changing – life course patterns

The changing experiences of youth

The relationships between men and women prior to marriage went through some significant changes around the turn of the 20th century. Middle-class dating in the 19th century was characterized as ‘calling’ and took place within family homes. With urbanization and the development of a variety of entertainment options away from home (dance hall theatres) couples began dating or interacting from families. Another factor reinforcing this separation from family was the increase in education among youth this only affects urban regions and well to do families unlike rural area in the local village of Uganda. Because youth spent more time together, away from parents, there was a tendency to focus more on their personal growth and development of their relationships with romantic others (Coontz 1992). This focus carried forward into marriage with an exception of religious practices in Uganda like single sex schools, seminaries of preparing priests this does not apply because of the strict rules. Couples were relatively free to make decisions about marrying based on love, and less on the more instrumental considerations of earlier generations of the youth.

This relative freedom has continued and today we have a view of marriage as outlined above that has personal choice as a primary component.

A sexual revolution;

Most of the studies on dating in the early 1900 have recognized that heterosexual interactions in public places increasingly included sexual activity (Illouz 1999; Bailey, 1988) that is as couples got to know each other better they would increase their levels of intimacy, and there is some evidence that more individuals did not wait until marriage to have sex.

Once married, couples were able to get information about birth control, resulting in a separation of sexuality from procreation. This heightened attention to sexuality, both before and during marriage, hastened the shift of the meaning of marriage toward a more companion model.

Later in the century another phase of the sexual revolution occurred, following the somewhat conservative (and unique, according to Coontz 1992) decade of the 1950's we experienced a significant liberalization of attitudes regarding sex. Part of the impetus for these attitudes shifts was the technological innovations in birth control. Without the fear of pregnancy, sex could become even more associated with intimacy.

Changing life course patterns;

Partly as a cause, partly as consequences the changes just noted were associated with an increasing diversity in the structuring of the life course. Prior to the turn of the 20th century individuals would move somewhat more quickly from being a child to being an adult, from being married and having children.

Today the length of time from leaving parental homes to getting married has increased, and the ordering of life events is also more variable. Some continue to follow the traditional consequence of events, while others are having children before or outside of marriage and others are refraining from both marriage and having children.

More tolerant attitudes are also associated with assigning fewer stigmas to cohabitation and divorce and a growing acceptance of gay and lesbian relationships. What all these shifts have done is to help make marriage something that includes greater demands for affection, intimacy, and friendship known as companionate marriage. However for the first six years of the 20th century, this companionship did not have as a primary emphasis the notions of equity in marital roles. Assumptions about gender in marriage included women's primary responsibilities being toward domestic work and child care while men's first priority was toward economic support for wife and children. This came to be referred to as the specialization model of marriage (Karen and Rebecca 2004).

The last third of the 20th century saw a movement away from the companionate yet specialized marriage to one that is more independent and symmetrical.

Marriages have also become relationships in which both partners are expected to engage in behaviors once associated with only one gender or the other. One way we can see that changes in how couples approach marriage is through the rituals and ceremonies surrounding marriage. However note that vestiges of our past are still present among these rituals.

Over the course of the last 200 years, the meaning of marriage has taken a number of turns; it began as an instrumental relationship grounded firmly in the community. Slowly the community took on the obligations that were part of marriages (education of children, healthcare and marriage and family relationships became more private. marriages at one point were between companions (Male and female, of course) with complementary skills and natures that together would a strong foundation for family life. now marriages are more likely to be seen as something between partners in which obligations are negotiated based on interests and desires. Therefore it may be surprising that despite the greater emphasis on marriage being a satisfying relationship, the rates of being married are declining, along with the likelihood of having one “until death do you part” (Karen and Rebecca 2004).

The culture pattern of every society has its own set of role norms as well as its sanctions for its conjugal institutions. The society within which the marriage exists may not be the one in which one or both spouses originated, given present conditions of geographical and social mobility.

We shall begin with the social aspects of cotemporary life as it affects married couples, and to follow it with the theoretical framework for looking at the individuals resources qua marriage partners.

Marital stress and breakdown ought to be related to the powerful forces of social change affecting all aspects of living, not least the functions of the family (Henry V. Dicks 1967) pg 13.the family was called the social atom, the final recipient of all political and economic events which rain down upon it.

Some social scientists are concerned about the state of marriage in American society. They suggest that rising divorce rates and increases in cohabitation and child bearing out side marriage indicate a collapse in the perceived value of marriage (whitehead &popnoe1999).data collected as part of the

2000 census show that 58% of men and 55% of women are currently married; this is down from 67% of men and 62% of women thirty years ago. As the number of years spent between reaching adulthood and marrying increases so does the opportunity for premarital sex and cohabitation. Rising rates of single hood, cohabitation, premarital sex and non marital child bearing are all seen as challenges to the institution of marriage. Karen and Rebecca 2004 pg 242. however, a majority of Americans continue to want to be married and most do get married (Coontz, 1992; Goldstein and Kenney 2001).

The primary reason for the decline in marriage rates is that people are delaying marriage until later in life. Nevertheless, rates of marriage are changing and it is important to explore some of the reasons why. On the other hand in Uganda some regions like in the east actually quicken marriages and this is becoming a problem of teenage pregnancy, AIDS and is as a result of adolescence, lack of sex education, culture, and orphanage. and on the other hand some are not in support of monogamy but polygamy.

Delayed marriage;

Data show that since about 1960 the age at first marriage has been increasing (Fitch and Ruggles 2000). However if we take a look at data covering a longer period of time we see that these upward trends are a somewhat recent phenomenon. The reason for these trends include structural changes in the economy and occupational opportunities but also reflect broader cultural shifts in norms, attitudes and values of Americans regarding marital and sexual relationships.

In sum attitudes about marriage and sexual relations have changed considerably over the last several decades. Americans are now more accepting of premarital sex, cohabitation, less traditional domestic practices and child bearing and child rearing outside marriage. But the interesting finding from the body of research is that despite views that challenge traditions of marriage, the majority of Americans continue to endorse marriage, want to marry and eventually do (Ahlburg and Devita, 1992: Axinn and Thornton 2000). It appears today, much more than four decades ago that in Uganda why people may delay marriage is that weddings are nowadays becoming expensive resulting into the prevalence of cohabitation. Marriage still holds a special value in people's lives. Their expectations about marriage have changed but they still believe it is a good thing.

Women employment and the delay in marriage;

Economic opportunities for women are also related to the age at first marriage and the likelihood that women will eventually marry. However, the data indicate that women's employment opportunities do not keep them from marriage; instead employment only encourages a delay. In one way this relationship for women works in a similar way as it does for men. That is occupational success is increasingly dependent on higher levels of education. Time spent pursuing education results in the deferral of marriage. In addition women's earning potential also appears to make them better marriage prospects. This is the part of the argument that appears to contradict the old paradigm about what makes marriages work. (Karen and Rebecca 2004)

Becker (1981) suggests that marriages reach their peak of efficiency when one spouse (the husband) specializes in employment while the other spouse (the wife) devotes primary energy to domestic work and child care. A more recent conceptualization about marriage shifts the focus to a new home socioeconomics (Andrew Cherlin 2000) argues that we are in an economic climate that is not conducive to single-earner families. In this environment women with economic potential are more attractive to men. A considerable amount of empirical research supports this argument.

Oppenheimer et al (1997). Cherlin as well as others Gold Scheider and Waite (1991) suggests that a more realistic model for examining the relationship between economics and marriage is one that assumes "symmetry" in marital relations instead of specialization.

Current trends include fewer marriages, later age of marriage, fewer children, more divorce, more single-parent families and step-families, more working mothers, a great need for day care centers, more child abuse, more spouse abuse and less connection to kin networks (Poponoe and Whitehead 1999).

Statistics on divorce, domestic violence and alcohol and other drug abuse as well as stories of families in crisis, point a rather negative picture of marriage and family life today (Olson and DeFrain 2000 pg8).

For decades, many respected social scientists have predicted that the institutions of marriage and the family would not survive. For example in 1927, psychologist B. Watson predicted, "in 50 years unless there is some change, the tribal custom of marriage will no longer exist. He believed marriage would disappear because family standards had broken down.

The main point on which we must focus attention here is that ‘the family as a sacred union of husband and wife, of parents and children...living together has continued to disintegrate (Pitirim and Sorokin 1937). Sirloin’s thesis is illustrated in the way contemporary family discourse fail to adhere to the classical definition of the concept family. In contemporary times, both the father and mother work outside the home, they leave home at 5.00 am and come back at 9.00 pm. What transpires during their absence parents really know what their children get involved. Apparently, there is no relationship between parent and child and the moral duty of parents being role models to their children is completely eroded. This coupled with the new phenomenon of taking children to boarding schools children have become complete strangers. A little reflection explains current statistics on delinquent behavior such as the rampant exodus of children from homes to streets.



Fig 1: Picture showing explicit changes in trends on life vocations

The broad facts are well known. First and fore most, social policies which would be tools for the governments to participate in family welfares vary through time and from one country to another especially in the Great Lakes

Region. Governments work with the presumption that the families are there to look after children. This is a killing presumption because social change dynamic have taken a big negative multiplier effects on the family institution. Among other negative multiplier effects of change in family values worthy of particular consideration are unwanted/teenage pregnancies, high rate of school drop out and diseases such as HIV/AIDS as revealed by several studies in this volume.

The essence of conceptualizing the marriage institution, as emphasized above, to ensure beforehand that, as far as is possible, family life is the building block of all societies in all relevant respects. The word 'relevant' needs emphasis for two reasons. First, it is obvious that no society, that can grow sustainable without proper family and marriage values.

If such a situation could occur, it could imply quite a different diagnosis as pessimists and optimists disagree about how to interpret these trends and what to do about them. The pessimists see recent changes as an indication that marriage and family are in serious trouble and are declining in their significance to society they believe that we need to return to a more traditional value system to curtail these negative trends.

The optimists, on the other hand, see recent changes as a reflection of the flexibility of marriage and family and the ability of these institutions to adapt to the increasing stresses of modern life. They believe marriage and family will survive and thrive.

In fact, marriage and the family have survived overtime despite all the predictions of their imminent collapse. Moreover marriage remains the most popular voluntary institution in our society with about 85% of the population marrying at least once (Poponoe and whitehead).

In addition, let's look at article 33 of the constitution of the republic of Uganda clause 4

'Women shall have the right to equal treatment with men and that right shall include equal opportunities in political, economic and social activities'.

Clause 6 says laws, cultures, customs or traditions which are against the dignity, welfare or interest of women or which undermine their status are prohibited by this constitution. Employment is now an important criterion for marriage for both men and women is this fact or fiction?

Realities of marriage and family life;

Considering the reason that makes classical marriage and family life

endangered, we realize the contribution the institution provides to life itself. They can bring both great joy and terrible pain. A healthy marriage and family can be a valuable resource during difficult times. Conversely unhealthy or dysfunctional relationships can create problems that may persist from one generation to the next.

Even for a short time analysis, however, it is somewhat logical to consider marriage and the family as perhaps society's oldest and most resilient institutions. From the beginning of human life, people have grouped themselves into clans and families to find emotional, physical and communal support. Although social commentators for many years have predicted the demise of both marriage and the family, these institutions not only survive but also continue to change and evolve.

Feminists argue that marriage may rein force the subordination of women by men.

For example, it is clear that in many marriages men can be physically violent towards their wives without much fear of intervention by the police. In addition, there is substantial evidence from attitude surveys that marriage may be less beneficial to women than men. Certainly three quarters of divorce are initiated by women.

The growth of education in Africa

As mission education began to flourish the main target was naturally to extend the gospel teaching and so more and more bush schools were formed, while at the central stations a growing band of African priests and teachers were trained. When the output from mission schools began to exceed the demands of the missions themselves, the governments came in to train the boys-very rarely girls-as clerks and artisans in the many government services. Thus the system grew, with ever increasing government aid to the schools, with a major output of Christian teachers and with in service training and later some trade schools for the occupations outside teaching mainly with some branch of government. At this stage primary schooling was very widely dispersed save in the mainly Muslim and sparsely populated savannah areas in the west where koranic schools provided the small amount of formal education. But it touched the pupils lightly; that is huge numbers drifted away after two or three or four years, semi literate at best and there was still widespread difficulty in persuading African parents to send their children to school or allow them to stay on.

The second stage and this sequence was repeated in every country-corresponds to a sudden and widespread change of attitude among the African people. Suddenly the education became prestige, became the key to a job, the heartfelt ambition, children began to flood to the schools. The schools were inadequate, the teachers far too few; an immense and costly program of more building and more teaching training for the primary level was forced upon governments. This was almost an emergence; and on top of it, in recent years has been piled as political decisions on some countries to have universal primary education.

At the moment when this wave of extra children hit the school there were still few secondary schools in proportion to the first intake at primary level. This situation was at first masked by the enormous wastage rate during the primary course. But not only did more children enter ;they began to come earlier, to stay longer, to clamor for places in the higher primary or middle schools, and then to demand secondary education. This emergency falling upon a system which already had a broad base and every narrow apex, and forcing it to broaden the base still further has caused a critical shortage of secondary education throughout the area. Nor is it easy to expand. For full secondary teaching demands graduates or near graduates, of which in any country there were few among Africans and in east and central Africa virtually none.

A swift expansion of the numbers of secondary teachers, with the buildings and equipment they would need became and still is the overwhelming task in African education and one impossible to achieve very fast. Certainly Great Britain faced ever since the last war with bitter complaints from teachers and parents at the sizes of the classes and the shortage of teachers at home was in no position to help on a really major scale in Africa; nor was it easy to create African universities or higher colleges for training any faster because of the very weakness in secondary education and the increasing calls of African governments and the new industries for the products of the even existing schools. One result of this situation has been to create, in all territories the problem of the primary school-leaver –the boys with eight years of mainly literary education, too young for adult work unable to find a secondary school place, unwilling to revert to a peasant life endlessly filling application forms for clerical work, a socially and politically inflammable group of dissatisfied young people. It is a desperate race against time and primary education to find ways absorbing this group into the rural economy, apart from the small number that industry and commerce, on their present scale in Africa can employ and train in relation to this problem the lag in education for girls although of immense social importance is less pressing. Some cultures, though not inaccessible have resisted change far more strongly than others (Guy Hunter 1962).

The education of children in the old days consisted mainly in learning the various household activities in practice, by imitating their elders but without the help of much deliberate explanation. In the case of girls one can still observe it. At the age of three they are given small hoes and go out to work with their mothers and at little more handed a knife and told to peel plantains. By the time they are seven or eight they as quick at this as a grown up person. They are also given in calabash to scoop out, next they are taught how to wrap up food and set it on the fire.

Boys in the pre-school era had to get up early and sweep the yard in front of the house to be neat by the time the head of the household was ready to go out, then to fetch the goats and tie them up in the yard till the dew was off the grass, when they went off to herd them. In most cases the only work for which they needed actual instruction was back-cloth making; this they learnt by working with their fathers. When a boy made his first bark cloth, knife or pot unaided the father gave a feast to celebrate the event, at which parents performed the Kukuza rite. The object made was given to the mother or

grandmother. Nowadays a corresponding feast is held when a boy leaves school.

Girl's education was definitely oriented towards marriage, and in the performance of each household they were reminded that this was work which they would later have to do as wives. Specifically a girl was told to be agreeable to other wives, not to quarrel or be jealous if another seemed to be unduly favored with gifts –clothes or meat, not to steal food from the others plots but to work hard at her own, to listen to her husband and obey him and treat him and his relatives with respect, not to go visiting without her husbands permission, not to commit adultery. Of all the relatives among whom the child grew up the one whom he was taught to treat with most respect was the father's sister.

Marriage in the past

Although those of the Baganda ethnic group who like to dwell on the good old days when children obeyed their parents assert that in those days marriage was entirely arranged by the elders, their statements are belied by the actual native ceremonial of betrothal which presupposes an agreement made first between the couple themselves and then ratified by the girl's parents.

Girl's had actually a good deal of freedom –indeed the tears which they are expected to shed at their marriage are sometimes explained grief at the loss of it and many opportunities for making friends with boys at festival gatherings, the commonest of which were the termination of mourning and the rejoicing of the birth of twins, and in casual encounters on their expeditions to fetch food and water. The festivals probably presented the best opportunity of all.

Rules of exogamy;

Freedom of choice was limited by the rules of exogamy which prohibited marriage within a person's father's or mother's clans. This ruled out marriage with almost all the persons among whom a child was brought up .accidental breach of these rules is often said to be impossible because a person's clan is indicated by the name. But in fact people are often called by the personal and not the clan name and Christians nearly always use the Christian name. The attitude towards it does not seem to vary with the distance of relationship, it would be unlikely to occur nowadays except between persons who could not trace their genealogical connection, for in these days of letter writing and motor transport, and people keep in touch with relatives all over the country.

After the upheavals of the religious wars there were many cases where children captured when too young to know their family possibly before they had been given their clan name, married into their own clan.

Betrothal

Marriage took place at the age of 15 or 16. The girl signified her approval of a suitor by accepting various small presents, culminating in a new bark cloth.

The Bride price

The transfer of the bride price was and still is the essential act which legalizes the marriage. In the old days only slave women could be married without it. Nowadays among the highly educated natives the girls father waives his right to fix the amount, leaving it to the husband to give what he thinks fit, but even here there is no question of omitting the gifts. Compared with the bride –price, the ceremony in church is of secondary significance even to the most religious. Hunter Guy (1962).normally the banns are not cried Hunter Guy 1962 until the bride price has been paid. The presence of the bride's brother when the names are given to the clergyman being required as evidence of the payment but occasionally missionaries insist on the legalization of an irregular union by a religious marriage.

The nature of bride price has undergone various changes. At one time it consisted principally in beer though the father could demand a bark cloth for himself or his son and any delicacy which he particularly fancied such as meat, salt or tobacco. Later cowries were added and these presently came to be more important than beer. At the present day the most important item is a money payment, though is not always dispensed with and either bark cloths or cotton garments are sometimes given. There were also certain gifts which did not form part of the bride price proper; these were fixed by custom, not determined by the will of the girl's father and were not returnable if the marriage was dissolved.

Divorce and bride price in contemporary times

An opening comment has to be made. We are confronted with a phenomenon whose dynamic analysis is either quite partial or quite complex since the native courts cannot dissolve a marriage were they clearly cannot order the refund of the bride price. It seems that they refuse to do so even in the case of marriages by native custom. It is still voluntarily returned and when the question is considered from the point of the injured husband most

natives would agree that this is the only decent course. But the same people when they put themselves in the father's place regard the bride price as simply his legitimate return for the trouble of bringing up his daughter. From the point of the young man contemplating matrimony, the money payment demanded nowadays is a much heavier burden than the gifts of old times (Mari 1934).

I believe that the difficulty of the challenges in our contemporary marriage institutions is well realized within our profession. But since marriage partners are human beings they sometimes adopt attitudes that permit them to avoid the challenges. Among those attitudes, the least objectionable is to give up and remain silent on issues that are disabled the marriage institution. Indeed some of my colleagues that as social scientist we understand the phenomenon of marriage institution too poorly to say anything at all about it to our fellow citizens. Some even think that we cannot make a significant progress in our understanding of the phenomenon and so they work on other, academically more rewarding, and subjects.

A different attitude is to deny the phenomenon and to argue, for instance that, since any mutually advantageous move has to be made in our society by those who benefit from it, malfunctioning cannot occur and involuntary dynamics, therefore, does not exist without affecting the welfare of the society. Still another attitude is to become charlatans and adopt a simple remedy, for instance among the Baganda of central Uganda made the so called bride price a protectionist package of gifts that can not be refunded in case the breaks. The pricing and bargaining of women is still common among the Banyankole, Banyoro and Batooro of western Uganda, and several ethnic groups in the northern block of Uganda; this has been often assumed in the past and, indeed, it plays a large part in theoretical discussion about the sustainability of the marriage institution. The marriage institution has gone a lot of dynamics, over the past thirty years provides us today, however, with a much clearer view. Summarizing what we know about now, I may say that this behavior was found to exist but to be weaker with diverse negative multiplier effects than was expected, that it may at times be dominated by other causes and that its force varies through time and space with variations in behavior patterns.

Consequently, Comte saw in the evolution of human mind the cause of social process. He placed the achievement and maintenance of the good society in the hands of the intellectuals. Marx held that it was the class-

consciousness a mental awareness on the part of the members of the down-trodden proletariat of their common interests that would eventually give rise to the revolution to achieve a good society. Durkheim believed that “Collective representation” was responsible for social cohesion and hence for social mobility.

Determinants of collective behavior

Structural conduciveness

Structural strain

Growth and spread of generalized beliefs

Precipitating factors

Mobilization of participants for action

The operation of social control

Value added and Natural history

Population, geography and environment;

The population of every country is always changing both in numbers and in composition. The variables that are important are:

- Birth rate
- Mortality rate
- Migration so far as the study of population is concerned

The growth of population and the increasing migration to urban areas are the major trends in most of the societies. The size of the human population is in fact an important variable in the making of social change. Population, size, and density have operated as intervening variables. Population changes that have altered modern society.

The influx of a large group bearing a divergent culture influences those whose ranks they join. Internal population changes, such as a fluctuation in birth and death rates are also likely to produce social and cultural change. Increasing population produces profound defects in a society, including an increase in impersonal relations, the expansion of secondary groups and greater institutional differentiation and specialization.

Geographical Determinism

There are some scholars who propagandized the theory of Geographic Determinism. This was propounded by an American geographer, Ellsworth Huntington, who used the geographic factor to explain why societies change. Geography can impede or facilitate change by isolating or permitting ready contact between groups. The changes in the environment have profound

repercussions on culture. Natural disasters obviously have immense adverse consequences for social life. Similarly pollution, drought, soil erosion and the like can produce far-reaching economic and social consequences. The changes in the natural environment producing social changes arise from the interaction of man with his environment. For example certain types of farm practice have resulted in soil erosion which in turn has impoverished certain areas stranded populations produced floods and changed the economic base of the whole region. We must, of course, not neglect the fact that in free and modern societies, governments should put in place instruments as checks and measures to provide counter attack against the inevitable geographical natural hazards. In such circumstances, social policies have proved to be better instruments. In Uganda, the ministry of disaster preparedness, environment policy in Tanzania and water policy in Chad which presented in detail as illustrated below out of this concern.

CHAPTER FIVE

Statistical evidence revealing social change with in the marriage institution

It is increasingly difficult today and probably has been since the 15th century-to consider changes within any society without referring to broader trends in what Waller Stein (1974) called the “world system”. The term world system refers statistical evidence within systems such as economic and political relationships among societies, particularly among the industrial states and the less developed nations (Hess; Markson and Stein 1985).

The research revealed that in developing countries, the least number of people in terms of education are 3 who do not go to school at all and these are among the youth. This represented 3.75 % 5 attain up to primary level this represented 6.25%, 3 .75 among the youth represented those who had attained ordinary (S.1-S.4) and advanced level (S.5-S.6).

Among the married and unmarried 7 had attain only up to primary and secondary level,10 had attain secondary to tertiary level, 23 had attain tertiary and university level, 7 had attained university level (both couples) representing 8.75. This also tells us that there are very few couples who have attain both university level educations.

And the most educated respondents were at university and tertiary levels of education. Among the youth 16 of them were at university level of education and among the married and unmarried 23 were at university and tertiary levels of education. This represented 20% university attendants among the youth and 28.75 among the married and unmarried. The highest percentage represents 28.75 who were at university and tertiary levels this represents 46% among the married and unmarried education. While among the youth 53% were at university fulfilling the hypothesis that the parent’s level of education spurs an equal urge to reach that level on their children.6.25 % represented those who had reached primary level,3.75 had reached among secondary level and altogether

Today a more recent conceptualization about marriage shifts the focus to a new home socioeconomics (Andrew Cherlin 2000) argues that we are in an economic climate that is not conducive to single-earner families. In this environment women with economic potential are more attractive to men.

With the influence of industrialization, missionaries, introduction of education, the level of women position is changing in society today. Today women work, and this has generally contributed to the general welfare of the family and the marriage institution.

It is very good for women to work such that they can support their husbands and children; however this also sometimes could have negative implications on the institution of marriage.

The number of children is high at lower levels of education such as the primary and secondary level and fewer children at relatively higher levels of education for instance university and tertiary levels of education where there are more A's which represent 1-5 children, this is represented by the frequency of 23 out of 50 representing 46% and fewer children by both couples who have attained university education whence verifying the hypothesis that the higher the level of education the partners the fewer children they tend to have. 7 out of 50 were both university graduates this represented 14%. see table above where 14% also represented more than 1-5 children.

Altogether 66% had 1-5 children while 34% had more than 1-5 children. This verifies the hypothesis that the higher someone is educated the fewer number of children they produce. However this may not necessarily be true that the higher the level of education the fewer the number of children one will have. Other factor that may reduce the number of children is death. It is, then quite unusual to imagine that there has been a profound change in the value attached to children. People, especially women used to attach a lot of significance on big number of children because they used to have children as security, to help them in old age.

The brief summary of statistical evidence suggests that 93% among the youth want to get married only one time while also among the parents who were actually married 37 out of 40 were married once representing 92.5%. Whence verifying the hypothesis that the number of times the parent of the child is married spurs an equal chance or opportunity to get married.

However the researcher found out that most of these respondents were also Christians verifying another hypothesis that the religion one belongs to also determine the number of times one has to get married or is married. For instance the traditional religions found out by the researcher in Njeru were Catholics and Protestants while others were born-again implying 100% Christians and this has a restriction on the number of wives one has to take. For instance the religion of Islam allows one to have more than one wife but because none of the respondents was a Muslim so we could not get the other side of the coin. And on the other hand in the past before the coming of Christianity the traditional mode of marriage in Africa was polygamous but this today has faded out see related literature in chapter 2 by (Hunter Guy 1962). Further more today most people are in favor of monogamy than polygamy this is because of the problems associated with polygamy like financial constraints. In fact the researcher is in much more favor of monogamy than polygamy and advices others to take on monogamy for it is the best form of marriage and it is easy to sustain.

Among the youth, the most age group was 20-24 and out of the 30 respondents who were youth 24 of them were in the age group 20-24 this represented a percentage of 80 while the age groups 15-19 and 25-30 took the remaining 20%.so among the youth who were used in the sampling 80% fell in the category age of 20-24.

While among the married and unmarried the age group that was most represented was the age group of 46-50.

Fig 2: Shows percentage representation of age group among the youth

percentage representation of age group among the youth.

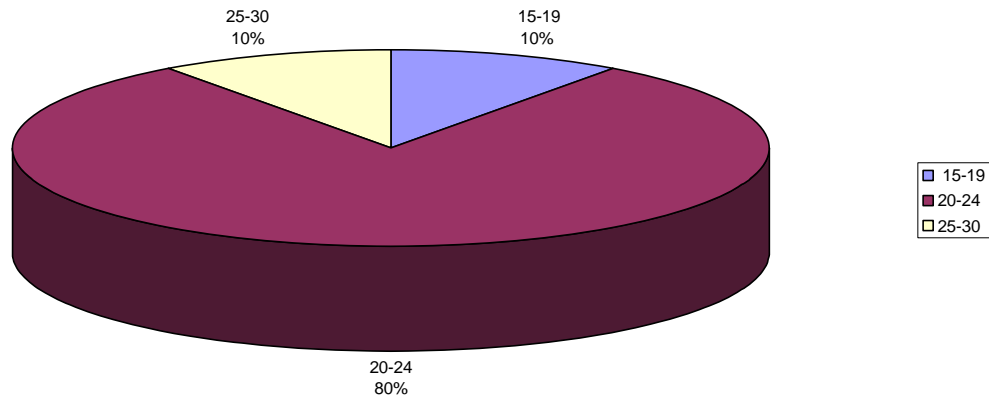
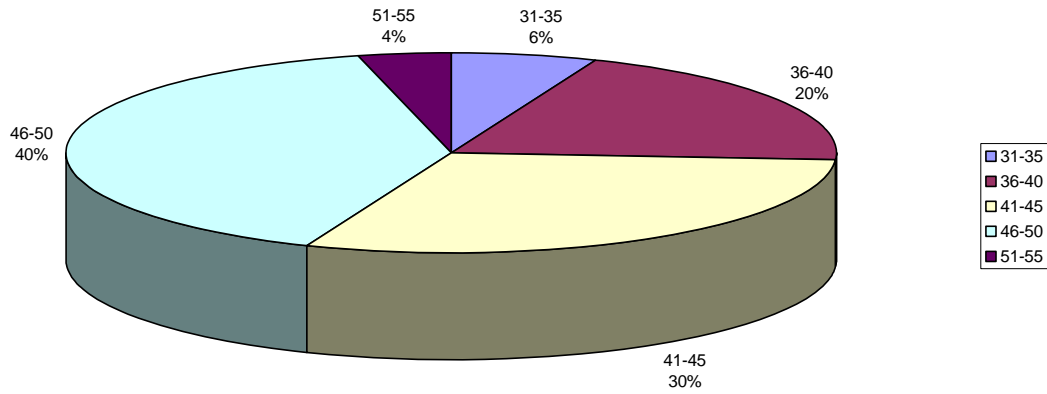


Fig 3: Shows Percentage representation of age among the married and unmarried

percentage representation of age among the married and unmarried



In a similar study, 16 male youth respondents 16 of them were not at all in favor of same sex marriages, likewise among the 14 female youth respondents none of them was in favor of same sex marriages this represented 100% of the male and female youth response showing that they were not in favor of same sex marriages in fact the hypothesis that same sex marriages have no bearing in Africa can also be verified in the other forms of marriage like monogamy and polygamy where by these forms of marriage out do same sex marriages. Among the married and unmarried the same response was got (35 male respondents and 15 female respondents) none of them was in favor of same sex marriages not even among the unmarried. Total representation of male and females who were not in favor of same sex marriages is $(35+16)+(15+14)=80$.giving us 100% of the entire respondents not being in favor of same sex marriages.

The response by youth to have a boyfriend or a girl friend was equal for those who had and those who did not have representing 43% for those who did not have. Also refer to related literature by (Seccombe and Warner 2004).where they said youth get into contact while at school and focus more on their sexual development .in fact this on the other hand represents a little more on premarital sex and increase of sex among the young and old and also a little promiscuity or permissiveness. further more those who once had and those who are not sure had an equal response in that they took up the remaining 14% which indicates anew style of life whence brought about by acculturation and assimilation

More studies reveal in harsh realities that 8 out of 30 of the youth parents are aware of their children having either boyfriends or girlfriends. This represents 27%.while 22 out of 30 youth parents are not aware that their children have either boy friends or girl friends. This represents 73%. All these are a sign of acculturation and assimilation on the institution of marriage since the institution of marriage affects both the young and the old. So the trend in which people get partners is changing and has changed from the one in the past where parents could get their children marriage partners. All this is brought about by social change and also verifies a research that was carried out by Seccombe and Warner 2004.

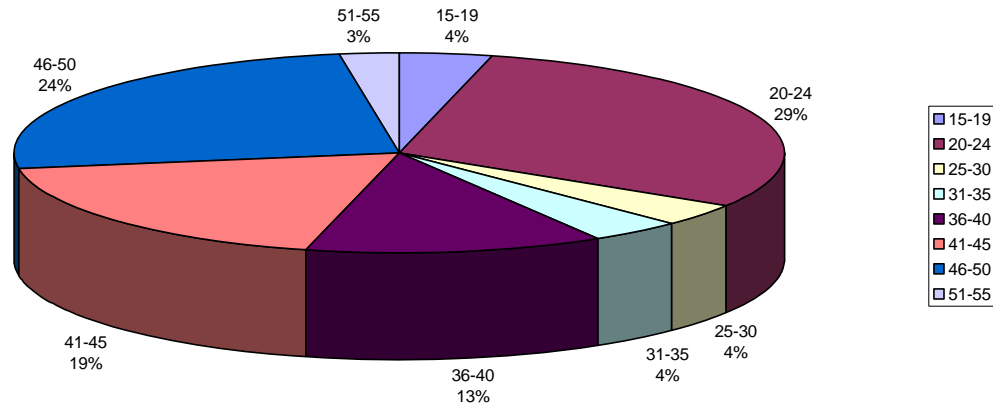
A study on contemporary technology and socialization patterns revealed that sex among the youth and those who were married and unmarried agreed that today technology was in the best form as compared to the one in the past. In fact among the unmarried when this option was asked they answered that

these times are modern whence edifying the institution of marriage. in fact today men and women enjoy technological advances like driving, medication, entertainment although on the other hand technology has also come with negative effects such as abortion,murder,pornography.16 out of 16 male youth enjoy entertainment today due to the advancement in technology likewise 14 out of 14 female youth enjoy entertainment today just as 35 out of 35 male in the category of the married and unmarried also enjoy entertainment like 15 out of 15 female in the category of the married and unmarried also enjoy entertainment today which is an equivalent of 100% of the respondents enjoying entertainment today. Technology also is a result of acculturation and assimilation which may be used for the institution of marriage either to modify it or destroy it.

In recent times, parents response indicated that sex was on the increase among the young and the old actually 20 out of 50 married and unmarried respondents agreed that sex was on the increase while 15 strongly agreed 12 strongly disagreed and 3 disagreed with at least 40% of the respondents agreeing that sex was on the increase. If we take the option of I agree and I strongly agree, then I disagree and strongly disagree to combine them then we shall have 70% of the respondents agreeing while 30% disagree. Which shows sex is on the increase both among the young and the old.

Fig 4: Pie chart showing percentage representation of various age groups the youth and the male and unmarried.

piechart showing percentage representation of various age grups among the youth and the maied and unmarried.



Married and unmarried respondents would allow their daughter to produce the baby while ten would allow their daughter to go for an abortion among the married and un married this represented 80% while 20% would take their daughters for an abortion

While among the female youth 11 would produce the baby and 3 would go for an abortion this also represented 79% among the youth would produce the baby while 21% would go for an abortion.

Out of the total respondents would allow producing giving us at least 80% while those who would go for an abortion would be 13 and this represents 20%.

40% partly support the boyfriend and girlfriend relationships while none of the parents altogether hates these relationships or disagrees with them.40%of the respondents are in complete favor of the boyfriend and girlfriend relationships while 60% of them are partly in support of them. This is a result of assimilated and acculturated changes.

Few people disagree and 20 strongly agree that the women's position has greatly improved. This is a result of acculturation and assimilated changes.

Unlike in the past where women were lower in status but because of a little equal rights their position has greatly improved. Article 33 (1) says women shall be accorded full and equal dignity of the person with the men. All these are changes brought about by acculturated and assimilated changes. See related literature in chapter 2.

With the influence of industrialization, missionaries, introduction of education, the level of women position is changing in society today. Today women work, and this has generally contributed to the general welfare of the family and the marriage institution (Seccombe and Warner 2004).

30% out of 50 would agree to let their children choose for themselves marriage partners while 17 strongly agree that children should now be left to choose their own marriage partners. While 2 disagree and 1 strongly disagrees giving a percentage representation of 60,34,4 and 2 respectively.

This is also another form of effects of social change on the institution of marriage where in the past parents chose for their children marriage partners.

Several contemporary studies show that 9 out of 14 youth girls would get married to a man who was less educated or earning less than them while 5 out of 14 would not agree to get married to a man who was less educated or earning less than them. This represents 64% and 36% respectively. This together with the married women findings whether wives would still respect, love their husbands if they were more educated or earning more disqualifies the hypothesis that level of education or level of income would determine the husband or wife one has to marry.

As a recap of the research the researcher decided to ask the youth to define what marriage is today and this is how the youth responded.

When the youth were asked how they viewed marriage today;
These are some of the replies they gave according to sex (female youth)
Some people enjoy their marriage because of trust worthiness while others are divorced and suffering
Ladies today yearn to get married
Cohabitation is on the increase

Marriage is about understanding each other
Men are marrying today when they are not ready

Male youth commented as follows;
Premarital sex is on the increase due to technology like using pills, condoms
abortion.
Marriage is not in the right state because of education.
Equal rights has brought problems in marriage
People are not sincere and genuine that is why marriages are not stable.
Marriages are not stable today due to women emancipation, poverty and
disease.
Employment today is the number one cause for turmoil in marriage.
Today women are after money in marriages

While among the married none of them could say that their marriages were
at stake. In fact the only way the married describe the institution of marriage
they benefit from it and they enjoy it.

**Some of the strategies to new changes that are affecting the marriage
institution**

We should have restrictive policies and regulations on the institution of
marriage. For example the enactment of the adultery law which was
supposed to be reviewed within two weeks from the 16th of April 2007 an
order by the inspector general. Article 30 of the constitution of the republic
of Uganda 1995 clause 1 states that men and women of the age 18 have a
right to marry and to found a family and are entitled to equal rights in
marriage, during marriage and its dissolution.

Massive sensitization and awareness programs to the youth especially who
are amidst the turmoil of these rampant changes and as such are derogatory
to the institution of marriage.

Encouraging couples to use the tool of effective dialogue
Improving working relation policies, which can enhance fair treatment at the
places of work, or in various organizations
Ensuring strict protective measures or policies that can protect young girls in
schools
Sensitization programs on killer diseases such as AIDS, and other sexually
transmitted diseases
Encouraging girl education, through massive campaigns

Empirical underpinnings of social change

The results than show the empirical figures and the reader should be in a position to judge the effects of changes in the contemporary family institution.

There are always several types of simple corrections one can sometimes make for a known bias that can be demonstrated arithmetically from the following hypothetical figures:

Several studies reveal that 64% were male while 36% were female. Where by 16 male were youth, 14 female were also youth, 26 male were married male and 9 were unmarried giving us 51 out of 80 respondents being male, 14 female were married and 1 was unmarried. Also most respondents especially those who were married and unmarried had 1-5 children and most married and un married respondents fell in the category of age group 46-50 while the youth fell in the category of age group 20-24 both male and female.

Only 3 out of 30 youth respondents had never attended school, 5, out of the thirty respondents had attained up to primary level 3 still had attained ordinary level, 3 advanced level 16 university level giving us 3.75, 6.25, 3.75 & 20% respectively, while among the married and unmarried 7 had acquired primary and secondary education, 10 had attained up to secondary and tertiary education, 30 had attained tertiary and university

Most of the respondents had at least attained up to primary level in terms of education

50% of the respondents were married while 37.5 were youth and 12.5 were not married

And the most type of marriage was monogamous which was as a result of social change.

The number of times the parents have been married will also determine the number of times their children marry.

Of course, the results depend strongly on the whole specification that education, employment, technology and religion are forms of acculturation and assimilation and these affect greatly affect the institution of marriage.

Certainly the fact that acculturated and assimilated changes have affected the institution of marriage cannot be disputed. In fact marriage today is not the marriage that was in Africa 1000 years ago. In the past marriage was polygamous where men could take on more than one wife, today this has completely changed because of level of education, level of income, religion.

For instance at the coming of Christianity which was as a result of the scramble and partition of Africa by the west (Europe, Germany, France), also these changes came. in reference to Waller stein's words of the world system 1974 that it is very difficult to refer to the changes today in primitive societies without referring to the industrial societies.

At a more specific level, we must also note that all acculturation and assimilation changes have part done extremely good and on the other hand they have also done extremely badly. But from our study they are not certainly perfect, but they perform better than alternative methods especially in the institution of marriage. In fact they have modified it more than destroyed it. As a reader the researcher advises that changes brought about by assimilation and acculturation could be for better or for worse so you need to be selective. Take on those things that you think or see that they will improve you. Rather than taking on every lifestyle that is brought about by these changes.

Charismatic leadership and social change

Some social scientists have presented the argument as to why charismatic leadership can be capable of inspiring great devotion and inducing significant change. Pareto another leading sociologist advanced a thesis that changes within society make the rise of elite position of men whose personal characteristics are appropriate to leadership under the circumstances of the time who in turn strongly affect those times. Interwoven with this idea of the interdependence of the social elite and society is a cyclical concept of social change involving three stages political, economic and ideological.

Actually, in order to make the facts fully consistent with charismatic change, Pareto explained that social change is brought about by the struggle for power among different groups. There are alternative periods of harsh rule by a vigorous and newly triumphant elite and a mild and humane rule by the declining elite. Recent writings on the role of elites in the maintenance and change of society have been more straightforward in the cause-and-effect tradition. There* has also been an analysis of the ways in which elites, political and otherwise, influence their times.

Types of social change

There are three types of change to which Parsons have directed his attention.

Circular process which refers to the way in which the policy fulfils the function of goal-attainment under usual conditions of uncertain and scarce resources

Growth which implies the amount of power increased or diminished in the polity.

Fundamental structural change

Every major structural change in a society involves three phenomena

Differentiation,

Integration

Strain

Basic needs in relation to social change

Every society must provide five basic needs in order to endure social change

- (a) Member replacement
- (b) Member socialization,
- (c) Production of goods and services,
- (d) Preservation of order, and
- (e) Provision and maintenance of sense of purpose.

The structural- functionalists believe that society, like the human body is a balanced system of institution, each of which serves a function in maintaining society. When events outside the society disrupt the equilibrium, social institutions make adjustments to restore stability.

Factors influencing social change

In every society, there are conditions which facilitate social change. In recent decades attempts have been made to analyze social change on the basis of studies in various fields.

Technological

The technology of a society is conceptually and distinguishable from every thing else in that it consists of the devices knowledge and skills by which men control and utilize physical and biological phenomena. The technology of modern Western societies is largely the product of the last few centuries. It has now come to be commonly assumed that technology of a people is the key to an understanding of their entire society. As more efficient techniques are acquired by a group, either through invention, or diffusion, the group's

relations to the environment are altered. Technological advancement increases the total goods available to the population

Ideological discourses and social change

The term ideology is used in many ways. It refers to a set of interrelated religious or secular beliefs, values and norms that justify the pursuit of a given set of goals through a given set of means. Throughout history, ideologists have played a major role in shaping the direction of social change. The role of ideas in the making of any social change has been long recognized by social theorists. Plato conceived himself as the architect of the good society, and in his design philosophers like himself were to be the guides to and guardians of social welfare.

Indeed, an attempt was made to fit social change discourses when Comte explained that the evolution of human mind creates the cause of social process. He placed the achievement and maintenance of the good society in the hands of the intellectuals. Marx held that it was the class- consciousness a mental awareness on the part of the members of the down- trodden proletariat of their common interests that would eventually give rise to the revolution to achieve a good society. Durkherm believed that “Collective representation” was responsible for social cohesion and hence for social mobility.

Determinants of collective behavior

Structural conduciveness

Structural strain

Growth and spread of generalized beliefs

Precipitating factors

Mobilization of participants for action

The operation of social control

Value added and Natural history

Population, geography and environment

The population of every country is always changing both in numbers and in composition. ^The variables that are important are:

Birth rate

Mortality rate

Migration so far as the study of population is concerned.

The growth of population and the increasing migration to urban areas are the major trends in most of the societies. The size of the human population is in

fact an important variable in the making of social change. Population, size, and density have operated as intervening variables. Population changes that have altered modern society.

The influx of a large group bearing a divergent culture influences those whose ranks they join. Internal population changes, such as a fluctuation in birth and death rates are also likely to produce social and cultural change. Increasing population produces profound defects in a society, including an increase in impersonal relations, the expansion of secondary groups and greater institutional differentiation and specialization.

Geographical Determinism

There are some scholars who propagandized the theory of Geographic Determinism. This was propounded by an American geographer, Ellsworth Huntington, who used the geographic factor to explain why societies change. Geography can impede or facilitate change by isolating or permitting ready contact between groups. The changes in the environment have profound repercussions on culture. An earthquake, a volcanic eruption, and other natural disasters obviously have immense adverse consequences for social life. Similarly pollution, drought, soil erosion and the like can produce far-reaching economic and social consequences. The changes in the natural environment producing social changes arise from the interaction of man with his environment. For example certain types of farm practice have resulted in soil erosion which in turn has impoverished certain areas stranded populations produced floods and changed the economic base of the whole region. Extreme changes in the natural environment produce social change by forcing a group to migrate to places where it is in contact with new cultures.

The demographic factors of change

Migration policies

Migration discourses in the Great Lakes Region has been prone to conflict and since many of these have been linked to ethnicity, they have generated a rich body of literature revealing in harsh realities the negative multiplier effects of the historical phenomenon. Push factors, force the migrants to leave the places where they were born and brought up (Jhingan, Bhatt and Desai 2004).

In the same view, Srivastava (1998) defined pull factors as those which pull or attract people and they migrate from other areas. Kulumba (2004)'s works on the Bakiga of Kibaale district, revealed a logical consistence of the push

factors when he gave it a congruent historical depth and comparative breadth with the migration of the Bahema and Blender of DRC. This has been the theme of much recent works, beside Kulumba, we may mention the works of Loam, (2004), Chou (2000) and the writers of the volume edited by Mukwaya (2004).

The above school of analytical thought, is illustrated by the historical account provided by (Kulumba 2004) and the volume edited by (Adelman and Sunrke 1999).

Migration in the Great Lakes Region has been characterized by what Srivastava (1998) categorized as push and pull factors. In this regard, the historical account in DRC, where the Belgian colonialists facilitated and encouraged the immigration of labor from Rwanda into north Kivu, illustrates Srivastava's thesis. Those transferred were called 'Transplantes' some came in Uganda (the Bafumbira).

The second wave of immigration to Uganda and Congo empowered the Tutsi to Hutu was masterminded by the colonial state, it was extremely violent and many Tutsi migrated into the neighboring countries of Tanzania, Burundi and Uganda.

Several researches have focused and brought greater visibility to conflict which force people to migrate and its attendant problems, however, the phenomenon itself is growing in significance.

There is one obvious exception to this last remark. Recent field studies starting with (Vlassenroot and Huggins, Kalungi 2004 and Rupiny (2004) have made notable analyses of conflict and migration in DRC, we can make the later as part of a cognitive activity and the former is certainly closely related in thought and action.

The argument considers the fact that Kalungi (2004) and (Rupiny (2004) drew this perception from their vast experience as conflict researchers in the GLR.

The reviewed body of literature on migration in colonial discourse used to be economic oriented and with profit motives. The argument considers the fact that the taxonomy on migration provided by (Jhingan, Bhatt and Desai 2000) and Srivastava (1998) entailed lack of employment and fear of persecution as migration factors.

The prime objective however, for the human trafficking in Africa was to provide cheap labor to their colonialists' plantations in DRC. After several decades as refugees in DRC the state under Mobutu issued a decree known as the 1972 citizenship decree'' gave citizenship to all Congolese citizenry including those Rwanda and Burundi who settled in the Congo before 1950. This historical account had a unifying effect upon the Congolese refugees.

Other dimensions of historical evidence documents that the decree was nullified when the nationals complained. In this context, I write in reference to (Mushemeza 2004)'s publication which gives a preface with an explicit account that, when the Rwandese migrants were franchised, they had no home to go and they had no home to stay.

Unfortunately, when a political practice put certain segments of people out of boundary, it creates an artificial climate where other people have to pretend and gloss over certain strategies which ends in retaliations and creates a continuum of conflict among migrants.

With the franchised migrants, the choice of resorting to conflict is usually life and death, the commitment unwavering, the resolve untiring for generations and the cause authentic to the very core. It is against this bench back and with survival sharp instinct that the migrants always judge the authenticity of some of the policies in the states where they migrant as a discriminating and they are forced to retaliate with violent conflicts as a defense mechanism.

Beyond the glossy wrappings of championing democracy, lies a hollow interior desperately lacking in substance and interweaved by a web of ethnocentrism existence.

In the same view, Rupny's ideas have parallels with the works of his contemporaries (Kalungi, and Rupiny 2004, Mushemeza and 2004 and Riggs 2000 Miall, Ramsbotham, Woodhouse 2000 and Miroslav Volf 1996). Rupiny and Volf are independently remembered for two key contributions to the development of conflict literature when they concurred with the Marxist perspective which advocates that ethno nationalism is always a result of ethnic social class distinctions. Those at the highest at the class hierarchy end up exploiting the disadvantaged groups.

Yinger in Rupiny 2004 defined ethno nationalism as a reaction of disadvantaged ethnic groups in a molt-ethnic society to redress existing power, wealth and social inequality. In the same view, instrumentalists claim

that ethnic conflict is often caused by social economic factors other than attempts to exert an identity claim. They result from inequitable policy paradigms.

Change agents

Change is often introduced by individuals. They are called change agents. Change agents maybe government officials, public officials and specialists in different fields. They may also represent religious interests (missionaries), social reform^ groups, political parties or commercial interests. Usually, the change agents are strongly committed to the ideas they advocate. They are convinced that the adoption of their measures will improve life styles. Their success in this Endeavour depends upon how they conduct their activities, the social situation in “which they are to operate and their own image and position in the social structure.

The greater the prestige of the change agent, the more likely is the acceptance of the proposed innovation. The most powerful factor in n successfully introducing social change is that the change agents must be thoroughly familiar with the values, cultural patterns and interpersonal relationships of those with whom they work.

Change can usher in a host of social problems. It may even cause social and cultural disorganization. Changes in ideas and other forms of non-material can also threaten the stability of modern society. The rate of change in contemporary society is so high that it presents a problem of future shock, resulting from people’s inability to adjust to rapid and sweeping changes. Change often makes people uneasy as it uproots them from familiar surroundings, meanings, habits and relationships creating fear and anxiety. The disruptive consequences of change are manifold. Introduction of new elements into a culture often promotes or intensifies social conflict. Many traditional cultures have been destroyed due to contact with and domination by technologically advanced societies with which they could not cope up.

Evolution theory works with the assertion that nothing stays for ever. It works with a wider spectrum that involves studying the process of change in different systems.

It asserts that change should be there, but gradual and that it should start with forming a commission or group of experts who can provide consultancy, recommend the use of new objects of knowledge to solve a particular problem.

The theory is relevant in this situation in that it suggests change in its assertion that nothing remains static

The extensive structural changes that have come to exist in the Great Lakes Region as a result of social-economical transformation leads us very easily to the notion that an improvement in the society can be brought about through deliberate human effort has persisted in one form or other at various times. This is the fundamental and ideological basis for the designing of social policies which can lead to all sorts of efforts of social, legal economic reforms.

Evolution theory and contemporary assertions

Evolution theory has three characteristics

1. Change takes place in a predetermined direction
2. Change takes place from simple forms to complex forms.
3. Change involves trial and error

In general, the first characteristic can be termed as the inevitability of gradualism. That is, change is necessary but it should be gradual. It is further assumed to take place through a planned series of invents in a direction in which it is planned to occur.

The second characteristics can be termed as a necessary progress. This characteristic confirms that society grows from simple form (policies) to complex forms.

Policy makers who espouse with evolution theory work with assertion that nothing stays forever. And the evolution theory is one of the pillars that can help policy makers design favorable policies. The evolution theory works with a wider spectrum that involves studying the process of change in different systems. The evolution theory works with the following assertions.

1. Change should be there but gradual

Guidelines for implementing change in different systems.

- . Implementing change primarily concerns designing and enactment of new policies. This involves overcoming the natural existence to change that can emerge and getting individuals to behave in ways consistent with both the short run goals of change and the long run system strategy.

- . There is always resistance to change but systems should make arrangements and ensure that strategies are designed and used to control resistance during the implementation of change through designed policies.
- . Identify and surface dissatisfaction with a current state.
- . As long as people are satisfied with a current change they do not desire for change. People need to be unfrozen out of their inertia in order to be receptive to change. The greater the pain and dissatisfaction with a current state (policies) the greater the motivation to change and the less the resistance to change.

Approaches through which dissatisfaction can be created

Clarifying dysfunction policies

Predicting greater pain unless changes are made is a good example that is elaborated in the dynamics that characterized the education and poverty alleviation policies discussed in the subsequent chapters of this volume.

Increasing feelings of relative deprivation and cognitive dissonance

Dissonance theory

When behavior is not consistent with attitudes and behavior it causes discomfort. Social psychologists term this discomfort cognitive dissonance. Dissonance theory focuses on the following mechanism that people's behavior can be changed so that they are more consistent with the attitudes they adhere to (Baron and Byrne 2000).

At national level, scientific data base can be an important tool to initiate a process of change

3. Help victims or clients reach optimal balance of discomfort and hope through creating discomfort and anxiety.
4. Upsetting equilibrium by provoking embarrassment and crisis.

I believe that the school of analytical thought provided by Easton in Hara Das (1995), here again points to the fact that strikes and interest aggregation that compel the designing of new policies can be put to use. It is probable that under this process of interest aggregation, policy makers either in organization or political systems maybe forced to revisit the existing policies that may not be providing answers to contemporary problems.

This confirming of the legitimacy of current beliefs at revolutionary level that the use social policies as a tool can lead to change in the polity and social regimes as illustrated in a series of discussions and case studies presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER SIX

Case study illustrating evolution theory

Quality Education in Schools through Training (QUESTT)

Uganda has been contracted by the Irish Aid (DCI) to deliver the Enhancing Community Participation in Education (ECPE) component for their QUESTT project in the two districts of the Rwenzori areas of Uganda. This component seeks to raise the awareness of communities about their role on supporting their local primary schools and the benefits this can have for the community and their own children. LCD Uganda will design and deliver a participatory course for a selected group, including school management committees (SMC) and PTA representatives, local leaders, and head teachers. The course will have a right based perspective outlining responsibilities and benefits of community involvement in the life of their primary schools.

Other services provided by LCD:

LCD also provides these services below:

Empowering the local community

Supporting district department effectiveness

Providing learning opportunities for all school age going children.

Brief information about VSO Uganda:

Voluntary Services Overseas Uganda (VSO - U) and international development agency that works through volunteer professionals to fight global poverty and disadvantage. This agency is working in partnership with LCD in order to make work of community development easier due to the fact that they complement each other to achieve success. They are experienced UK head teachers/ school inspectors who were invited to come and work alongside the district inspectors in Masindi district.

Mission statement of VSO:

“Sharing skills – changing lives”

VSO approach

VSO has a very individual people-to-people approach to development approach. Instead of sending food or money, they send men and women from a wide range of professions. They work in partnership with colleagues and communities to share skills and achieve change together.

In Uganda, they work with more than 50 volunteer professionals in two main programs.

Under participation and governance programs, they aim to strengthen the capacity of people to demand for basic services and practice “good governance”.

While at the same time, they aim to strengthen the capacity of service providers to supply quality basic services and practice “good governance”.

The objectives of VSO Uganda

To build the capacity of civil society organizations to better represent their constituencies and to obtain high quality services from the appropriate service providers on their behalf.

To build the capacity of service providers to put good governance into practice with specific focus to strategic planning, accountability, responsiveness, effectiveness and efficiency

Our disability program aims to reduce the barriers to full participation in society by people with disabilities by promoting inclusion of people with disabilities.

To build the capacity of the disabled peoples’ organization (DPOs) to better represent people with disabilities at the district level.

To promote the inclusion of people with disabilities (PWDs) in VSO–Uganda and our partners

To increase the inclusion of people with disability issues in existing basic and specialized service delivery systems and organizations.

Community Organization:

LCD therefore provides services that benefit the whole community but not individuals. Services provided by LCD are improving education at primary school level. With the introduction of UPE and USE by the government of the republic of Uganda, primary school education has become free of charge but the quality was too poor due to high rate of pupil enrolment. LCD therefore seeks to add quality to the quantity of education so as to benefit each and every Ugandan who is of school going age though the project is not yet wide spread but it is gradually expanding to benefit other schools and communities of other districts of the country as well.

Social group work:

LCD has therefore made it easier for children of school going age to access quality education through improving the quality of education especially with the introduction of the UPE program which is a policy put in place to provide free primary education to every Ugandan child of school going age including those who had dropped out of school due to lack of expensive school dues that were difficult for the some poor parents to afford. The ability of all children to attend the now free primary and even secondary school education makes them come together as a group to solve their own problems.

Social skill training technique:

When using this technique, the team from education Department especially VSO-Uganda provided training to pupils and community members so as to create positive peer groups develop human attitude through the motto “**sharing skills, changing lives**”. The team mostly applied this technique by going out to various project primary schools under the LCD schools program within Masindi district mainly to sensitize the youth on HIV/AIDS awareness. In such sessions, the team would make video shows available to them concerning the permissive acts that may lead them to contract HIV and its drastic impacts on them, and probably how to prevent its prevalence among them. Under this technique also after presenting the shows to such intended beneficiaries mentioned above, the team would ask them to explain to what they learned as they watched the movies and we could also explain to them what they did not know about HIV/AIDS. The team worked with Kiryandongo Church of Uganda primary school that is one of the project primary schools under the LCD schools program to sensitize the youth on HIV/AIDS awareness which enhanced positive social life skill in them as far as HIV/AIDS is concerned.

Assertive training techniques

This technique involved teaching the head teachers from of various project primary schools on Schools Management budgets (SMB) and how to improve their school performance. The training was aimed at sensitizing the Head teachers about the importance of keeping reports about expenditure and drawing plans earlier enough for school programs and also following them as scheduled. A case example we handled was; when LCD intervened a Head teachers meeting at Kabalega Primary School for training the Head teachers about the above mentioned subject.

The hierarchy of needs theory:

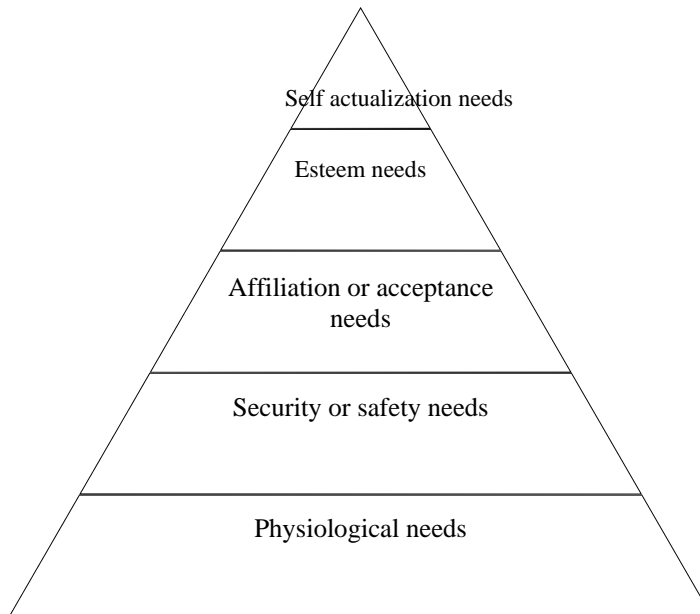
The theory was postulated by a psychologist called Abraham Maslow. He categorized the needs and further ranked them in hierarchy. Maslow was of the view that people endeavor higher needs after and only after satisfying the lower needs in his hierarchy. He assumed that before people can satisfy their most basic needs, they will not endeavor to seek for those needs which are not so necessary for their survival. His theory implies that the needs of people are endless to the extent that people will always seek to satisfy some needs of the different nature even though they may seem to have all they need for their wellbeing.

The basic human needs placed by Maslow in an ascending order of importance are as shown below: -

Physiological needs

These are the basic needs for sustaining human life itself. Such needs include; food, water, warmth, shelter and sleep. Maslow took the position that until these needs are satisfied to the degree necessary to maintain life, other needs will not be met by people. Other needs according to Maslow that flow in his hierarchy after people meeting the physiological needs include; security, Affiliation, Esteem and self – Actualization needs.

An illustration of Maslow's Hierarchy of needs



The beneficiary schools would come to the agency with differing needs and problems. For instance; others were lacking school latrines, accommodation for teachers, sanitation equipments such as water tanks, scholastic materials (Text books and teaching and learning aid) among others. Therefore, the immediate solution to such needs and problems was the field worker could put down the names of the various project primary schools to be considered for funding in the next financial year and such assistance would come in the form of scholastic materials (Exercise and text books), Building latrines, providing water tanks, providing teaching aid materials, and building teachers' quarters among other things. The field worker considered such provisions to be very necessary for sustaining welfares of the needy schools hence enhancing their lives and studies

Advocacy role

The role of advocacy or a spokesman calls for social justice and protection of human rights especially for the disadvantaged groups of people such as; orphans, women, poor, widows, disabled among others. It is employed to promote community awareness on orphan's care and educating them. The

major aim here is geared to promote social justice and protection of orphan's rights as other normal children in the community

Broker role

This involves introducing additional information to help the clients change. Education is a way of improving people's potentials and enables them to overcome difficult situations. Basing on the above role, we educated the community volunteers through teaching them in one day training on the importance of increasing parental and community participation in school programs and the importance of keeping both the boy and girl children in school.

The agency should continue promoting community awareness on orphans' care and educating them through advocating for their rights.

For the services that the organization does not provide to certain clients, it should be in position to link them to other agencies which can provide such services.

Due to inadequate information disseminated to the people in the society about social situations, the agency should struggle to teach some community workers to work with the intended communities identified to have complex problems.

Higher Education in Tanzania:

Tanzania's Development Vision 2025 proposes "a well-educated and learning society" as one of five major attributes. The others are "a high-quality livelihood; peace, stability and unity; good governance;" and a "competitive economy capable of producing sustainable growth and shared benefits." Education and knowledge will instill "a developmental mindset and competitive spirit.

Tanzania's development vision is to graduate "from a least developed country to a middle income country with a high level of human development, by the year 2025." Education is seen as "a strategic change agent for mindset transformation" To solve the "development challenges ahead, the education system should be restructured and transformed qualitatively with a focus on promoting creativity and problem solving." A strong economy and good governance are the main preconditions for realizing the vision. Other highlights:

Tanzania would brace itself to attain "a high level of quality of education in order to respond to development challenges and effectively present competitive leadership in the 21st century will hinge on the level and quality of education and knowledge." Tanzania should be a nation with a high level of education, a nation which produces the quantity and quality of educated people sufficiently equipped with the requisite knowledge to solve the society's problems, meet the challenges of development and attain competitiveness at regional and global levels. Basic sciences and mathematics must be accorded signal importance in keeping with the demands of the modern technological age. Science and technology education and awareness of its applications for promoting and enhancing productivity should permeate the whole society through continuous learning and publicity campaigns." Information and communication technologies... are a major driving force for the realization of the Vision.

Source: Planning Commission, Development Vision 2025.

The national Higher Education Policy (1999) lists the major problems facing higher education in Tanzania:

1. appallingly low student enrolment;
2. gross imbalance in science relative to liberal arts;
3. Gender imbalance;
4. Poor financing;
5. Unregulated, uncontrolled proliferation of tertiary training institutions;
6. A tendency to distort the real worth of academic programs

A number of strategies have been proposed to address these problems. For example, higher enrolments can be achieved by expanding public facilities and encouraging private universities, cost sharing, affirmative action to expand female participation, more non-residential places, efficiency gains and distance education. Although the policy favors increased official funding for higher education, the idea of an earmarked education tax, mooted elsewhere as a means of "ring-fencing" education spending, is not mentioned.

Higher education curricula should be geared towards ... the changing world of science and technology and the corresponding ever-changing needs of the

people. As agriculture will continue to be the backbone of the economy, agricultural-related disciplines and technologies shall be given priority.

Training and research objectives shall target the development and promotion of a strong indigenous base of science and technology to enable Tanzanians to solve their development problems.

The policy is broadly similar to that contained in the Education and Training Policy (MOEC, 1995) summarized in Appendix 1. Many of the policy recommendations are expected to be incorporated in the draft higher education act, discussed below.

Equilibrium theory and social change

The notion of equilibrium (balance) was borrowed originally from mechanics and biological sciences. The basic assumption of the equilibrium theory is that when change takes place in any one component in a system, it tends to spur further change in the other elements, which accommodate the new element and integrate it within the structure. The best known equilibrium theory is the structural functional view point analyzed by Talcott Parsons. The functionalists began to trace the cause of social change to people's dissatisfaction with social conditions that personally affect them. Parsons defines change broadly as a special type of process characteristic of all societies as explained in the ICT policy and the Tanzanian education policy.

Source: Tanzania Ministry of education

CHAPTER SEVEN

CYCLICAL (RISE AND FALL) THEORY

As analytical frame work is needed fro the discussion of policies intended to explain social change. It must start from the main features of the phenomenon which asserts that gradual change exists within evolution theory and abrupt change can only be explained by revolution theory. The cyclical theories assume that all entities and societies in particular exist in tripartite, they grow, reach a peak and then inevitably decay). Mention should also be made of recent theoretical research in managing change in organizations which clarify that when things are going on well or on the (rise) i.e. making good profits, that is when companies should invest in research on new product development to come up with new products and avoid the fall. Historians and social thinkers have looked upon each civilization as conforming to the cyclical process of birth, growth and decay (Hara Das 1994). Indeed any science except mathematics contends that facts can only be explained by means of studying and observing by other fundamental ones; at the root of logical chain, there always some unexplained facts which can use the cyclic theory to study their raise and fall. Cyclic theory is, therefore, not at fault in considering the sequence the occurrences and reoccurrences of events when designing social policies, if these occurrences have been proved to exist. Hara Das has expressed this thus:

Within the span of five thousand years, a great many civilizations-
Egyptian,

Babylonian Cretan, Greek, Carthaginian, Roman and Islamic, have risen
, flourished for a time, and then have disappeared.

The apparent rise and subsequent fall of the civilizations
of the past is all too easily equated with the life cycle of the
individual human being, who is born, grows to maturity, ages and then dies.

The protagonists of the cyclical theory consider social change
to be normal and inevitable. The historians with theoretical leanings
were not impressed by the eighteenth century idea of progress or the
evolutionary theory. The earliest “version of the cyclical theory was
presented in 1725 by Giovanni Battista Vico. Later it was
documented by Edward Gibbon in his monumental work

“Decline and fall of the Roman Empire

His cyclical concept was the major theoretical framework that was used by historians. Historian H.G. Wells sought to analyze history following the standard rise-and-fall pattern.

Of course, explanations of the cyclic theory are (or would be) useful for subsequent scientific progress especially in developing new regimes of knowledge even if (or were) lacking, it would still be wrong to over look the observed facts in the appearance and disappearance trend.

Oswald Spengler, the German thinker, became famous for his special application of the cyclical concept. He conceived of cultures as relatively autonomous and distinctive systems, each with its own style and unique destiny and theorized that every society moves through four stages of development: childhood,” youth, mature adulthood and old age. He contended that the West, which had given birth to industrial society, was gradually losing vigor and beginning to stagnate (Hara Das 1994).

In this regard, Oswald observed that after the First World War, while the western society had come to depreciate in strength, military and otherwise, the people of Asia had emerged from the centuries of lethargy and were on the march, challenging the power and effectiveness to the West. Therefore political, military, technological and organizational dominance was about to shift from Western block to the Eastern (Hara Das 1994).

The cyclical frame of reference has not, however, always led to pessimism regarding the future of the Western society. Both Pitirim Sorokin (1889-1968), a sociologist and Toynbee, a historian, have found in it cause for hope that the Western civilization may survive. Sorokin’s theory of social change actually differed only in one major respect from that of his predecessors (Hara Das 1994).

Where his predecessors saw successive generations of people entering and eventually departing from the cycle of history, he believed that societies are constantly moving between the two streams of sensate and ideational cultures. A sensate Culture is one in which all the various manifestations such as art, literature religion and ethics, appeal to the sense and satisfy sensual and other desires and the concentration of the means of civil and military administration. In Weber’s theory, there is always the possibility of

the emergence of a charismatic leader who is capable of exerting a far-reaching impact on society.

The cyclic theory and HIV/AIDS

This theory advocates that elements of society disappears and reappears. It further entails that the disappearance and reappearance of such elements occur in a regular and predictable pattern for a period of time. It has the dimension of activism in contrary to the fatalistic dimension which believes that any social condition can be changed in form of policies or laws.

Where exactly we draw the line the line between classical and contemporary, social policies can, then, only be decided by convention. But a conventional distinction is not a useless one. Quite the contrary, as long as the convention is known and used consistently in space and time, it may considerably help to organize our thoughts about the phenomenon under examination. This line of analytical thought played a fundamental role in examining the existence of our society devoid of HIV/AIDS. The following questions emerged; what were the values that were adhered to in our societies before the advent of HIV/AIDS. Answers to such questions revealed that women used to get married when they were virgins. The activists' of HIV/AIDS campaign adopted a cyclic theory by a advocating for abstinence as a strategy to fight HIV/AIDS pandemic. In contemporary times, unlike in the past, abstinence in form of virginity to women and penisity to boys should be embraced by both genders. It losses meaning the girls abstain and marry when they are virgins, then the future husband is promiscuous which would, of course lead to death for both of them.

Most of what I say here does not depend on precisely where the line is drawn. It depends only on the observation that, for any feasible and sensible convention can lead to designing of equilibrium in policies. Similarly, if we have to discuss policy measures intended to act on existing social problems, such cyclic policy frameworks can prove to be a better instrument.

Basing on such a theory, in the Education and Youth Alive Department focused on the prevalence rate of HIV/AIDS among people; youth in particular in Masindi district. We realized that in as much as the prevalence rate of HIV/AIDS reduced dramatically to around 4% in the last 10 years, and again there was public out cry especially from the Ministry of Health that HIV prevalence rate has risen to 6.4% currently, we started asking

ourselves what made HIV prevalence rate to reduced and increased again. We got the idea from the cyclic theory which advocates that a phenomenon like HIV/AIDS disappear and reappear in the society. That is to say; it can reduce and increase in its prevalence rate. Therefore, this depends on the measures geared to mitigate its challenges.

In such a way therefore, the team from LCD department of Education and other Health and Youth Alive Department took a measure to go out to the primary schools to sensitize the youth in particular on HIV/AIDS awareness in order to prevent them (youths) who are vulnerable to contracting the deadly pandemic in the district.

All in all, basing on the above theory, the organization has to do the following: -

Establish an annual HIV survey in the communities with in Masindi district sp as to monitor its prevalence.

Continue to sensitize the public on HIV/AIDS to ensure awareness.

Where his predecessors saw successive generations of people entering and eventually departing from the cycle of history, he believed that societies are constantly moving between the two streams of sensate and ideational cultures. A sensate Culture is one in which all the various manifestations such as art, literature religion and ethics, appeal to the sense and satisfy sensual and other desires and the concentration of the means of civil and military administration. In Weber's theory, there is always the possibility of the emergence of a charismatic leader who is capable of exerting a far-reaching impact on society.

Whereas functionalism argues that the various parts of society retain their identity and support each other in the policy making arena, the cyclic theory varies in the aspect by emphasizing the following features:

1. The elements of society disappear and re appears. (history repeats itself)
2. The patterns are usually from order rather than change.
3. The disappearance and reappearance occur in a regular and predictable pattern through time and space.

Adaptive strategies

Yehudi Cohen a re-known anthropology defined the concept of adaptive strategy as a group /society's system of economic production. It is based on

the analysis of how a particular society derives its livelihood and continues its existence through time and space.

The concept of forging was surrounded by uncertainty. When a man went to hunt he wouldn't know whether he would get a catch. There was a shift to domesticated animals.

Through education people got different skills which led them into job market. The standard of living of people increased and the elements of society disappear and reappear. They disappeared in the contemporary times e.g. unemployment both in a white collar and agricultural industries. The downing implies very low standard of living due to unemployment, job insecurity, etc. Policies are needed to be enacted to protect people from job insecurity and unemployment i.e. Liberalization Policy and Employment Policy. People designed things like transport, build schools for their endured and survival.

- (i) Projects that should be established by different professionals
- (ii) Counseling centers
- (iii) Day care centers
- (iv) Old people's homes
- (v) Research centers

6. Community: Collectivism versus individualism. When a person has lost a relative he needs people around him.

Fatalism versus activism

I shall not avoid speaking of fatalism and activism because these terms are used to mean two different things that should be differentiate, and is sometimes used to mean both at the same time. On the one hand, fatalism refers to what maybe attributed the belief that everything has a definite destiny which may not be changed by any form of action or fore knowledge i.e. things happen beyond human understanding. Fatalism looks at bad things as being inevitable and nothing can be done about them. Everything is natural and normal the way it is. Fatalists usually believe that nature will, in the course of action, determine social conditions as a result. Fatalism leads to perception of information as being permanent; a belief that makes society to have pessimistic tendencies.

On the other hand, activism is a belief that every undesirable condition can be eliminated through human action. Activists are usually optimistic, pro-

active as well as reactive. Activists tend to exaggerate what a social problem is.

Activism condition is rooted in the belief that anything is subject to human control. It goes on to say that society is dynamic. This means that people are not comfortable with the static of society values. This is the philosophy behind the principle of revolution.

Social planners and social policy makers ought to realize that both cases are extensive philosophies and need to be married, i.e. Activists must be controlled while Fatalists activated and motivated policy makers need to make independent judgment when designing policy.

Examples of cyclic theory include:

Ecumenism: The concept of ecumenism is when different people with different goals and vision come together to form a forum e.g. Catholics, Orthodox, Anglican come together to form a forum and develop change of the bible.

Education

One clear fact is that formal education in Uganda was started by religious establishments, that is to say, it was under private entities. The government having realized the importance of education to development, it decided not to leave schools to private sector. During Obote I regime in 1966 a national policy was designed and implemented, taking over all the schools that were existing at that time. In order to avoid confusion, let me point out that the rate of policy endorsement may not take more than two and a half decades. Cyclic processes may take its effect on society.

These concepts have appeared as convenient analytical tools in theories of policy making processes especially when used to predict the future. The predictions may not concern us here, except for some quite marginal references on occasions when we have to consider designing policies which can provide answers to contemporary problems. For the main part, our problem is to explain disequilibrium policies and how to study ways of reducing it but not to inquire about the consequences on other social variables, except from some feed back relations when these variables to welfare of the people will have to be taken into account.

We should, moreover, note that some policies such as privatization policy as recorded in the statistics does not necessary give the best measure that can provide sustainable solutions; instead, they have enhanced corruption in the civil service. This line of thought can be illustrated in the prediction that when there is a change in the political system, the new policy makers may question the source of the funds which private proprietors used to construct million dollar schools and commercial buildings. Indeed, there are reasons to believe that the cyclic theory may prove a better discourse and the state passes a policy that may lead to transferring all the private establishments in form of schools to the government.

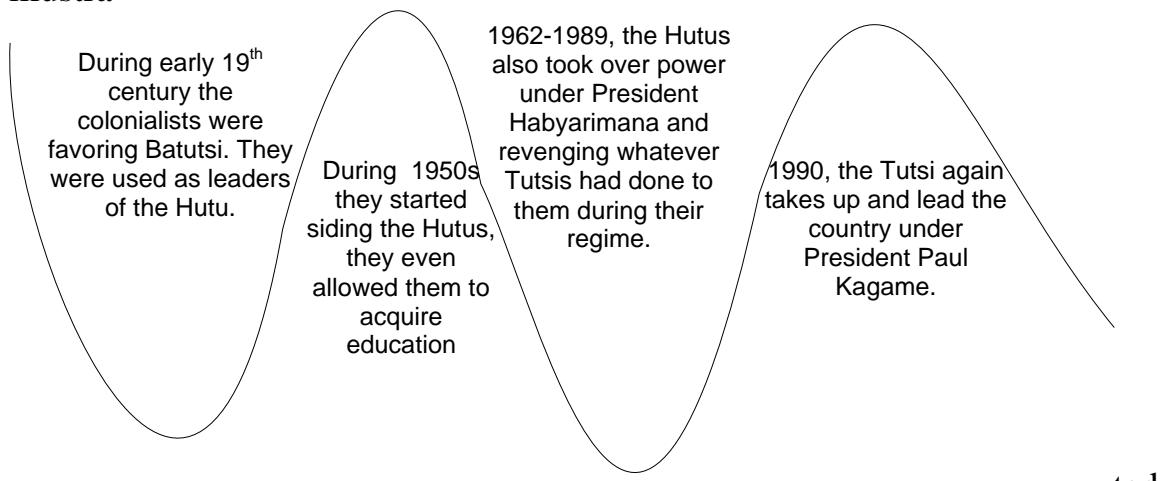
Indeed it is hard to believe that such a phenomena may happen but one way to settle the argument is to consider how the Asian were Expelled from Uganda by Idi Amin, their properties consificated by the government, only to be invited back by another regime after two decades in 1987. This classical transition was out of a World Bank policy which stated that if Ugandan new regime wanted to borrow fro World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF), then of course the Asians have to be given back their property.

I need not argue at length that public opinion especially when Ugandans were very far from accepting the idea of returning the property they acquired at free cost more or less to the Asians. The accepted view is that the property were returned to the Asians albeit some (Asians) were corrupt, claiming what did not belong to them.

Let us, also consider the so-called Micro-finance institutions use the cyclic theory when designing the group dynamics policies basing on the classical adaptations of human beings existing in groups (ethnic groups). Even individuals who would otherwise not be in position to access formal credit facilities can do so using groups.

The cyclic theory emphasizes that elements of society disappear and reappear and the disappearance and reappearace occur in a regular and predictable partner for a period of time. Before leaving this discussion of the cyclic discourses, I might add two side comments, one on methodology, the other a recent line of related research involving the chronicle conflict between the Tutsi and the Hutu of Rwanda. During the early nineteenth century, the colonialists were favored the Tutsi sidelining the Hutu which caused a lot of conflict between the two ethnic groups. In the 1950s they again started siding with the Hutus instead and in 1960 the Hutus took over power also and do the same to Tutsis and again in 1990 the Hutus under

president Habyarimana were also over thrown from power and today, it is the Tutsis that are governing the country as illustrated



by figure 1 below.

Figure 5: showing cyclic trends in the Tutsi-Hutu identity

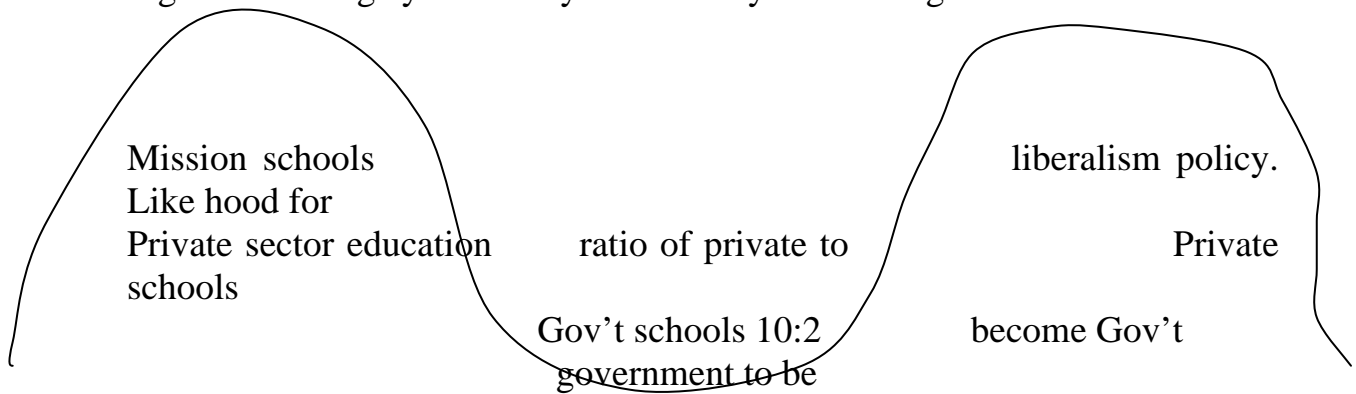
Cyclic theory and social policy development

In contrast of what other social scientist seem to claim, the ability to explain an observed fact is not a precondition for science to take this fact into account and to built on it new theoretical arguments. This simple consideration means that social events can be observed and recorded either empirically or in narratives that they exist, occur and later disappear and eventually reappear. This means that social problems which exist in the present may after some time disappear due to intervention but later on reappear as time goes by. This cause for policy makers to perform policy reviews, adjustments, and monitoring an evaluations. Cyclic theory aims at causing order rather than changes. This is because anything can be subjected to human control as it's a belief under the activism paradigm.

Another paradigm fatalism is a belief in natural occurrence e.g. the elements of pattern reappear in the cyclic theory were used in the education policy designing e.g. in 1967 private education existed under the missionaries , later the government took over, private schools were liberalized then only a

few children attained this education, the education sector was privatized so that all children would get education, its through this cycle that the private schools in future may become government again as it was in 1967.

Fig 6 illustrating cyclic theory in school systems in Uganda



Relatively, good and recent information from Rwanda is available to provide underpinnings that revolution theory takes place from simple forms to complex forms first days of the genocide seemed simple and solutions were easy to get but they reached the complex form which made it difficult to find solutions. There were experts who could provide consultancy recommend the usage of knowledge to solve the problem but instead they were also involved in the problem.

The relevance of this theory can also be found in two concepts:
Fatal and Activism.

Fatalism versus activism

Fatalism is a belief that everything has a definite destiny which may not be changed by any form of action or fore knowledge i.e. things happen beyond human understanding. Fatalism looks at bad things as being inevitable and nothing can be done about them. Everything is natural and normal the way it is. Fatalists usually believe that nature will, in the course of action, determine social conditions as a result. Fatalism leads to perception of information as being permanent; a belief that makes society to have pessimistic tendencies.

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Social planners and social policy makers ought to realize that both cases are extensive philosophies and need to be married, such that activists must be controlled while Fatalists activated and motivated policy makers need to make independent judgment when designing policy.

Nature and implication of revolution in relation to social policy

The concept of revolution is multi-dimensional and covers not only the political but also the social economic and cultural aspects of life. Revolution brings a transformation basically in the sphere of political power. These transformations always have spillovers to the policy making arena. This argument finds its root in the assertion of social policy perspective which documents that the decision of the stronger always determines the policy direction (Social policy as an ideology). Thus this revolution constitutes establishment of a new order radically different from the preceding one.

Most often than ever, the transformation affects to pillars of policy formation in any entity or organization, for example, the movement. Before it came to power, it had a focus of the empowerment of the disadvantage i.e. disabled, women, youth etc. Many policies have been developed to empower them. One of the policies is the equal opportunity policy which has some sub policies i.e. representation of levels of leaders documented such as Local Council III which includes 7 members, LCII, 10 members with 4 women on the council. This arrangement within the movement system was made from the cyclic theory.

Burundian policies which reflects the cyclic theory

An analysis of social policies in the GLR revealed that Burundi is experiencing disequilibria policies such as land policies that have not been purely static. For one thing, speaking of disequilibrium policies, suggests that the situation have moved. Reference to the common meaning of disequilibrium should, of course, not be given too much weight in our thinking since disequilibrium has here a different meaning, namely the observing of the characteristic representation of social policies.

Legal forms

In Burundi, after independence, all land accessed through a community based systems in the country where all to be registered and all future transfers were to follow the 1986 procedures as was outlined. In this same policy agriculture land fragmentation and increasing degradation of natural resource base were worked upon.

Burundi was formally colonized and in that time land policy was designed in the 1961, Land policy which was under customary tenure as part of the states domain.

Individual farmers only possessed rights to occupy and use land not owned and registered and held by European companies and church missions.

In Burundi scarcity of land is the most pressing issue in regard to agriculture and development. Land is held by fathers and passed on to the son. Mothers and sisters are not considered. The government is trying to design a land policy advocating the replacement of community based systems rather than adapting the system into a national system.

Burundi has remained a small holder on agriculture producers and almost no land was appropriated for European agriculture and industry except the

urban areas where marketing was done, church missions land and minor agriculture and mining concessions.

Today, different organizations have been accepted in Burundi to help the agriculturalists accomplish their duties by teaching them different methods of farming.

Social policy as a program or product

In August 2005 a new government was elected in Burundi after 13 years of civil strife that saw hundreds and thousands flee the country due to the animosity between Tutsi and Hutu communities. Especially after the assassination of the country's democratically elected President Melchior Ndadaye

Land pressure resulted when thousands of refugees returned home and disputes began to spring up, it became necessary to solve land and property issues and victims of war, the displaced, returnees and people who lost homes as a result of the war.

The government therefore formed a commission Nationale des Terres et Autres Biens (CNTB) to deal with land and property issues resulting from years of upheaval. This commission met with various groups of refugees land occupants of the land and refugees in Tanzania to get the insight of people's grievances and to find a path toward mediation thus helping to find solutions for the existing land problems.

CHAPTER EIGHT

Education policy in Chad illustrating the cyclic theory

Case study 3

History of education policy in Chad

The establishment of Protestant mission schools in southern Chad in the 1920s, followed by Roman Catholic and colonial state establishments in later decades marked the beginning of Western education in Chad. From the outset, the colonial administration required that all instruction be in French, with the exception of religion classes, which could be taught in local languages. As early as 1925, the state imposed a standard curriculum on all institutions wishing official recognition and government subsidies. The state thus extended its influence to education, even though the majority of Chadian students attended private mission schools before World War 2.

Education in Chad has focused on primary instruction. Until 1942, students who desired a secular secondary education had to go to schools in Brazzaville, the capital of the AEF. This restriction obviously limited the number of secondary-school students. Between World War I and World War II, only a dozen Chadian studied in Brazzaville. Once in Brazzaville, students received technical instruction rather than a liberal arts education, entering three-year programmes designed to produce medical aides, clerks, or low-level technicians. State secondary schools were opened in Chad in 1942, but recognized certificate programs did not begin until the mid-1950s.

At independence in 1960, the government established a goal of universal primary education, secondary Education, Higher education, Vocational learning and school attendance was made compulsory until age twelve. Nevertheless, the development of standard curricula was hampered by the limited number of schools, the existence of two- and three-year establishments alongside the standard five- and seven-year colleges and lycées, and the Muslim preference for Quranic education. Even so, by the mid-1960s 17 percent of students between the ages of six and eight were in school. This number represented a substantial increase over the 8 percent attending school in the mid-1950s and the 1.4 percent immediately after World War II. Although the academic year in Chad parallels the French schedule, running from October to June, it is not particularly appropriate for a country where the hottest part of the April and May.

Primary education

In the late 1980s, primary education in Chad consisted of a six-year programme leading to an elementary school certificate. In the south, most students began their studies at the age of six; in the north, they tended to be somewhat older. With the exception of schools that followed experimental programs, the curriculum adhered to the French model. Courses included reading, writing, spelling, grammar, mathematics, history, geography, science, and drawing.

Primary-school enrolment for the 1986-87 school years was more than 300,000 students. There were 6,203 instructors teaching in 1,650 schools, but 10 percent of the instructors were in non-teaching positions, yielding a pupil-to-teacher ratio of about sixty to one. Only about 40 percent of all primary-school-aged children attended class, and attendance was much greater in the south than in the Sahel or in the northern parts of the country. Approximately 2.8 percent of primary school children were enrolled in private schools, and most of these were in Roman Catholic mission schools concentrated in the south or near the capital.

Secondary education

In 1983 secondary education in Chad continued to follow French models. Primary-school graduates competed for entrance into two types of liberal arts institutions, the college d'enseignement general (called a college, or CEG) or the lycée. The college offered a four-year course of study, and the lycée offered a seven-year program. In both institutions, students took a general examination at the end of four years. College students who passed could be allowed to transfer to a lycée to complete their studies; successful lycée students continued at their institutions. At the end of seven years of secondary education, all students took comprehensive exams for the baccalaureate degree, called the *bac*, a requirement for admission to a university.

Students with primary-school certificates interested in teaching careers could enroll in a college or lycée, or they could enter a teacher training school. The normal school program was six years long. The first four years were devoted to general education, much the same as at the college or lycée, and the last two years concentrated on professional training. Students finishing this course were awarded an elementary-level teaching certificate. In 1986-87

Chad had sixty-one colleges and lycées. More than half of these schools were located in the N'Djamena area. There were 43,357 secondary students enrolled in the 1986-87 school year. In the 1983-84 school years, 5,002 college students took the exam, with a success rate of 43.5 percent, or 2,174 students; 3,175 students took place and 36.9 percent, or 1,173 students, passed. Although still low, the numbers of examination candidates suggested major improvements over 1960, when 2,000 students attended general secondary schools, and over 1968-69, when enrolment stood at 8,724. Finally, during the 1986-87 school years, Chad had five institutions for training primary-school teachers, with an enrollment of 1,020 students.

Higher education

When the country became independent in 1960, Chad had no university. For the first decade of the nation's life, students who wished to study beyond the secondary level had to go abroad. In the 1966-67 school years, eighty-three Chadian were studying outside the country; the following year, this number rose to 200. In the early years, almost all students seeking advanced education were male. The largest number went to France (30 percent in the academic year 1966-67, for example), but some Chadian studied in Belgium, Senegal, Côte d'Ivoire, and Congo. At that time, most students were pursuing degrees in education, liberal arts, agriculture, and medicine.

Pursuant to an agreement with France, the Université du Tchad opened in the 1971-72 academic year. Financed almost entirely through French assistance, the faculty of 25 welcomed 200 students the first year. By the 1974-75 academic years, enrolment had climbed to 500, and the university graduated its first class of 45. The imposition of compulsory yondo rites greatly disrupted the following school year, but after the overthrow of Tombalbaye and the end of the authenticité movement, the university continued to grow. Enrolment rose from 639 in 1976-77 to a high of 1,046 in 1977-78. Enrolment then dropped slightly to 974 in 1978

Unfortunately, the Chadian Civil War curtailed university activities in 1979 and 1980, when the first and second battles of N'Djamena threatened facilities and students alike. With the return of relative calm in the early 1980s, the university reopened. In 1983-84 the university had 141 teachers and 1,643 students.

In addition to the university, higher learning in Chad included one advanced teacher--training institution, the Ecole Normale Supérieure, which trained secondary-school instructors. Enrolment in the 1982-83 and 1983-84 school years came to about 200 students. Degree programs included history-geography, modern literature, English and French, Arabic and French, mathematics and physics, and biology-geology-chemistry.

Vocational education

In 1983 vocational education was offered at three lycées techniques industrielles (in Sarh, N'Djamena, and Moundou), and the Collège d'Enseignement Technique in Sarh. Enrollment figures for three of the four technical schools stood at 1,490 in 1983.

Primary-school graduates interested in technical or vocational training could follow two courses. They either could enter a first level, three-year programme (première cycle) at a college (after which they could transfer to one of the four technical schools) or they could enroll directly in one of the lycées for a six-year program. Students completing the three-year première cycle received professional aptitude certificates; those finishing the entire six-year course were awarded diploma.

Apart from the lycées techniques, several other institutions offered vocational training in Chad in the early 1980s. These included the Ecole Nationale d'Administration, which opened in 1963 in N'Djamena; a postal and telecommunications school in Sarh; a school for technical education related to public works; and the Ba-Illi agricultural school. Other Chadian studied at technical training centers abroad.

In the late 1980s, advanced medical education was not available in Chad. The only medical training institution was the National School of Public Health and Social Work (Ecole Nationale de Santé Publique et de Service Social--ENSPSS) in N'Djamena. Its enrolment, however, has been very limited; in 1982 there were only twenty-eight students in nursing, three in social work, and thirty-three in public health.

Quranic schools throughout the Saharan and sahelian zones teach students to read Arabic and recite Quranic verse. Although traditional Islamic education at the secondary level has existed since the nineteenth century, students seeking advanced learning generally have studied in northern Cameroon,

Nigeria, Sudan, or the Middle East. In Chad, modern Islamic secondary schools have included the Ecole Mohamed Illech, founded in 1918 and modelled after Egyptian educational institutions. Other schools included the Lycée Franco-Arabe, founded by the colonial administration in [Abéché](#) in 1952. The lycée offered a blend of Arabic, Quranic, and secular French education. Numerous observers believed that although the creation of a French-Islamic program of study was commendable, the administration's major objective was to counter foreign Islamic influence rather than to offer a viable alternative curriculum.

Despite the government's efforts, overall educational levels remained low at the end of the first decade of independence. In 1971 about 88 percent of men and 99 percent of women older than age fifteen could not read, write, or speak French, at the time the only official national language; literacy in Arabic stood at 7.8 percent. In 1982 the overall literacy rate stood at about 15 percent.

Reflection of the times in the Chad education policy

Major problems have hindered the development of Chadian education since independence. Financing has been very limited. Public expenditures for education amounted to only 14 percent of the national budget in 1963. Expenditures increased over the next several years but declined at the end of the decade. In 1969 funding for education dropped to 11 percent of the budget; the next year it declined still further to 9 percent. In the late 1980s, the government allotted only about 7 percent of its budget to education, a figure lower than that for all but a few African countries.

Limited facilities and personnel also have made it difficult for the education system to provide adequate instruction. Overcrowding is a major problem; some classes have up to 100 students, many of whom are repeaters. In the years just after independence, many primary-school teachers had only marginal qualifications. On the secondary level, the situation was even worse; at the end of the 1960s, for example, the Lycée Ahmad Mangué in Sarh (formerly Fort-Archambault) had only a handful of Chadians among its several dozen faculty members. During these years, Chad lacked sufficient facilities for technical and vocational education to train needed intermediate-level technicians, and there was no university.

In the 1970s and 1980s, Chad made considerable progress in dealing with problems of facilities and personnel. To improve instruction, review sessions

and refresher programmes have been instituted for primary-school teachers. On the secondary level, increasing numbers of Chadian have taken their places in the ranks of the faculty. Furthermore, during the 1971-72 school years, the Université du Tchad opened its doors.

Political Process in the Chad education policy

Another problem at independence was that the French curricula of Chadian schools limited their effectiveness. Primary instruction was in French, although most students did not speak that language when they entered school, and teaching methods and materials were often poorly suited to the rural settings of most schools. In addition, the academic program inherited from the French did not prepare students for employment options in Chad. Beginning in the late 1960s, the government attempted to address these problems. A number of model schools discarded the French-style of a formal, classical education in favor of a new approach that taught children to reinterpret and modify their social and economic environment. Rather than teaching French as it was taught in French schools to French children, the model schools taught it more appropriately as a foreign language. These new schools also introduced basic skills courses in the fourth year of primary school. Students who would probably not go on to secondary school were given the chance to attend agricultural training centers.

Battle of the competing Truths

In the late 1980s, the Ministry of Education had administrative responsibility for all formal schooling. Because of years of civil strife, however, local communities had assumed many of the ministry's functions, including the construction and maintenance of schools, and payment of teachers' salaries. So at the end of the day there was a bit of confusion as far as responsibility was concerned. The ministry of Education was aimed at enrolling a good number of children in school and making sure that they got quality education, however the ministry did not include maintenance which is usually up to the local communities to ensure.

The Legal Form of the Statute law in the Education policy is noted in the fact that at independence in 1960, government established a goal that school attendance and Universal primary education was to be compulsory until then age twelve. Statute law may also mean a commanding law. However the development of standard curricular was hampered by the limited number of schools.

Welfare policy is concerned:

Chad never had a University by the time it got independence. Most students went out of the country to attain university education and the number kept on increasing. Most students went to countries like; France, Senegal, Ivory coast, and other neighboring countries. This was not favorable to all Chadians since majority lived under the poverty line and could not afford to send their children to universities abroad.

The University of Chad was opened in 1971-1972. It managed to enroll 200 students for the first academic year and was almost entirely financed by France thus giving a chance to those who cannot afford to pay tuition for them selves. So the government made it a point to make sure that the legal form of welfare policy was employed thus benefiting the common man.

The education policy had less of the legal form, executive order since it was more of administrative. The policy was not a directive from the president but more like a decision of many that is a decision made by the members of the government administration.

Social policy as a philosophy, in this case societies collectively initiate sustainable solutions to problems that create undesirable conditions. In this case the government of Chad made an effort to solve the existing problems of limited enrollment in schools. Chad faced a number of problems especially during the Chad civil war. There was lack of security for both the teachers and students. There was looting in schools thus loss of property worth a lot of money. But the government of Chad was determined to minimize these problems, the ministry of planning and reconstruction reported the opening of 1982-1983 academic year, in 1984 the University of Chad was re-opened and also a number of previously operating schools were opened.

Social policy as a product or programme involves a series of social and economic activities that may be seen on ground. Just like all the other perspectives the education policy was characterized by the increasing of the education programmes that were implemented after the civil war. To show that the education was implemented was the increased enrollment of children in schools that happened to increase yearly;

In the Primary-school enrolment for the 1986-87 school year was more than 300,000 students. There were 6,203 instructors teaching in 1,650

schools, but 10 percent of the instructors were in non-teaching positions, yielding a pupil-to-teacher ratio of about sixty to one. Only about 40 percent of all primary-school-aged children attended class, and attendance was much greater in the south than in the Sahel or in the northern parts of the country. Approximately 2.8 percent of primary school children were enrolled in private schools, and most of these were in Roman Catholic mission schools concentrated in the south or near the capital.

For the secondary education, there were 43,357 secondary students enrolled in the 1986-87 school year. In the 1983-84 school year, 5,002 college students took the exam, with a success rate of 43.5 percent, or 2,174 students; 3,175 students took the back, and 36.9 percent, or 1,173 students, passed. Although still low, the numbers of examination candidates suggested major improvements over 1960, when 2,000 students attended general secondary schools, and over 1968-69, when enrolment stood at 8,724. Finally, during the 1986-87 school year, Chad had five institutions for training primary-school teachers, with enrollment of 1,020 students. The above show the effective implementation of the education policy and the changes and developments it has brought in the society.

Social Policy as a process was also used in the designing and implementation of the education policy:

Identification of the problem: This in this case was poor enrollment of children in schools. Due to a number of reasons such as political instability, few schools, limited facilities and high levels of poverty. This created fear of leaving children at schools during insecure times and failure to pay fees respectively.

Policy proposal: Due to the problems being faced by the people the policy was proposed in parliament to increase the levels of education in Chad, since after primary education most students wanted to go for secular secondary education but could not afford so at the end of the day a few who could afford would go for this kind of education in Brazzaville.

So the policy was passed on to enable the implementation of an education that would benefit not only the well-off but also those that can't afford.

Policy implementation: This was occurred with the construction of more schools and more significantly the putting up of the University of Chad which improved on the enrollment of students in University. Universal primary education and attendance was made compulsory up to the age of twelve.

Policy Evaluation: this was done by a report that was given to show the numbers of those enrolled in schools.

Social policy as a planning process that is perceived as the rational cognitive exercise involving the determination goals, generation and examination of an alternative course of action. When implementing the education policy the government looked at the institutions for higher learning. When the University was put up the government also put up vocational institutions, since not many people had a preference for university, there were those that wanted to do particular courses that were not provided by the university so an alternative was the vocational institutions. This was a part of the planning process of the Education policy.

Social policy as a field of study involved consultations from other disciplines in the search of building a body of knowledge. In this case of the education policy, history of education in Chad is looked at to identify the problems that could have hindered the development. Sociology and anthropology are also used in such a way that education involves a number of inter-relationships. Politics and economics affect the development of education in such a way that there were political situations that led to critical implementation of the policy.

Social policy as a framework for action was used in such a way that with the regulatory framework, the people that the government worked with the members of the local communities to implement the education policy, they also worked with the French who helped to build the university of Chad, and did not stop at putting it up but also went ahead to finance it.

In the legal frame work, involves identifying the constitutional support of the education policy. The fact that the government of Chad went ahead and implemented this policy showed that it was seen as legal in the Republic of Chad.

In the institutional framework, that involves working with the implementers of the policy, it involves what the government will work with to implement that policy. In Chad the government worked with two major ministries that is Ministry of planning and reconstruction, Ministry of Education and Ministry of finance who helped in construction of schools, enrollment of students, and financing of educative programmes respectively.

The principles of social policy that were used in implementing the education policy included the following:

Social justice was used in such a way that redistributive justice is used that is collection of taxes to improve on the education sector. That is to say all those that are working have to pay their taxes which taxes are used to improve on the education.

Social equality was used in such a way that it suggests that education is free. According to the Chad education policy education is believed to be free for all that's why Universal primary education is compulsory for all pupils till the age of twelve. To ensure that pupils by that age know the basics of reading and writing, grammar and language speaking. This ensures that every one is able to go to school, thus ensuring equality.

Social equity which means fair treatment, it stresses a double asymmetry between the government and the users of the social services. Horizontally this principle was used in such a way that the government ensured that an education service is harmonized to as many Chadian as possible through free education services.

Vertically the Chad government used the social equity principle in such a way that the old system of education where boys were the only ones going to school but now the girls are also encouraged to go to school, scholarships are provided for them to encourage them to go to school.

Social freedom principle was used in such a way freedom of education was exercised; girls can now go to school. And due to education different freedoms have also been exercised that is freedom of speech, education. Since people are now educated and such freedoms are taught in schools.

Social control principle was usually adopted in policy making-processed to achieve harmony and co-existence in the society. Equitable distribution of education resources through the construction of schools by the government of Chad was ensured.

Universal Primary Education in Uganda an illustration of cyclic theory

Education is a process by which society attempts to preserve and up grand the accumulated knowledge skills and attitudes in the formal setting in order to continuously forester society well being and persecute its survival.

Uganda system of education is composed of primary, secondary and tertiary education. There is both formal and informal education; the primary education was expanded by introducing Universal Primary Education In 1997. Plans also under went to make secondary education free in 2007. It is also important to note that education system of Uganda is comprised of both private and public provides.

The system of education in Uganda has structure of 7 years of primary education, 6 years of secondary education (divided into 4 years of lower secondary and two papers of secondary school) and 3 to 5 years of post secondary education. The present system has existed since the early 1960s.

For example; primary education in 1989 the last years for which official figures were available, the government estimated that more than 2.5 million youngsters were enrolled in primary schools of which about 45 percent were female.

Secondary education in 1989, secondary schools enrollment on all levels 265,000 pupils of this numbers, 238, 500 were enrolled in forms, one through six in government aided secondary school which is of great importance.

Post secondary education it was established in 1992 and that is Maker ere university and other institutions which are needful to the people today.

However Education policy is of great importance in the following ways.

Education is a source of investment to people because a source of employment to the people who attained education .it also provides a source of employment activities to the people or citizens of Uganda which increase the income earning opportunities to the people. For example teachers, text books stationary, uniform manufactures.

It controls population growth rate, due to the education of a girl child they spend too much time at school instead of producing, and also educating people about family planning which reduces the number of dependants and eradicating poverty.

Education is the source of tax which increases on the tax base of the economy. It provides taxes to the economy through taxing the private institutions like secondary schools, colleges and universities which leads to the development of the country.

Education is source of skilled manpower; it provides labor force to the country like accounts, economists, engineers, doctors which facilitates the smooth learning of all economic activities which is a great importance to the nation.

It leads to the improvement in the proper health, when people are educated they tend to invest more in their health with children although the food consumption remains constant. In addition by investing more income in

health this improves the earning of doctors, health centers which increases the purchasing power of goods and services and also good health.

Education fights illiteracy of the people in the country. It fights illiteracy through educating children and also introduction of adult education, which is the best weapon to fight against poverty.

There is development of infrastructures which facilitates the economic activities due to education when education process is to take place, schools are built this facilitates the development of the area in form of infrastructure like roads, houses in form of hotels, banks, health centers the best example is around the urbanization in Uganda.

The introduction of universal education or free education has reduced the burden of paying school fees because every one has access to education.

Education policy has led to the recognition, empowerment of the people in the country that is they hold high positions in the country because of knowledge and skills they acquire from school. Like the girl child education.

The perspectives used was a product or programme, where social policies are understood to involve a series of activities that are symbolic and which can be seen taking place to deal with existing problems. Social policies are supposed to bring out visible change in society and to facilitate betterment of society for the well being of people.

Establishing universal primary education involves putting up new structures to accommodate the increasing number of pupils and they should actually be seen going to school, when there are visible outcomes.

Through the product perspectives the government involves in active labor market which sums up a variety of government policies to maximize the number of people's employability through additional training and to give personal advice to individual on types of work they do. For examples institutions should set up mainly vocation skill training like poetry, carpentry so as to improve the wellbeing of the student.

It has often been argued by Rawls 1967 in (Mwine 2007) that "that each person is to have an equal right of the basic leadership and life opportunities. For example the establishment of universal primary and secondary education, it was mainly for both sexes not only men but even girls. That is

girl's access to education not only at secondary school level but thought education system is receiving government attention.

A profound example is given by the former vice President Wandera Kazibwe in June 2000 at the launching of National Strategy for girl's education in Uganda. She noted that "despite the introduction of UPE universal primary education the percentage of female enrolled in primary school is still lower that of boys.

It forces behind universal policies derived from horizontal equity which advocates for food universal and broad education. Like universal education for every one, vocation programs, health extra, this caters for basic needs of a person.

As for the changing structure of education system in Uganda, we could on accession in the eighties and nineties point to the opportunity theory as relevant because it points to the effects of increasing proportion of women to access education. Opportunity theory encourages girl child education so that they have equal opportunities which can help them acquire human capital that can empower them to compete favorably in the labor market. But it can only be seen that such shifts only explain a quite small and slow change of aggregate unemployment of women.

Education policy is of great importance to the people in the county because according to the perspective of product, principle of equality and opportunity theory it clearly shows that the base line used like the establishment of free education for all people as an equal distribution of resources which has lead to the development of the country because the big number for girls are educated.

The formulation of UPE policy also improved the as training teachers, building classrooms, provision of school equipments among others as collective efforts. Therefore making it possible, to say that formulation of the Universal Primary Education has followed a epistemological positions in the Ugandan education system.

Increased literacy level in Uganda

The government implemented UPE policy with sole aim of reducing illiteracy rate in the country; it has to some extent achieved its goal through providing free primary education for all, special education for the blind, deaf and even adult literacy. All these have contributed a lot to the development

of Uganda since most people know how to read. The proof of the proposition of UPE have had dimension of especial education establishments. Examples of such institutions include Gulu School of the blind, Lira school for the deaf and Madera Girls' High School for the blind in Soroti which has contributed to calm down illiteracy rate in the country.

Increased number of pupils in schools

This policy has led to over population at schools, this is because the policy now advocates for all children under school going age unlike I 1997, 98 and 99 where it was restricted to only four children per household. This freedom now is contributing to poor performance of pupils due to large population which is very difficulty to manage and control by teachers. Another local example is that, other schools have become too small to accommodate all the pupils under free universal primary education and as a result, they end up attending lessons under the trees as evidenced by the New Vision, Wednesday February 1st 2005 pg 13.

The conceptual problem

Many people view UPE and interpret it in different way depending on one's personal perception. Many people perceive it as a political trick which is not benefiting them, yet most of the problems perceived it as one of the social services hence challenging UPE program.

Much as the government has taken this role, parents also have the share for the success of UPE by contributing and this can help the to combat the element of dependency syndrome. For example, most people in rural areas can not afford to cater for the materials like books, uniforms hence rendering this policy/program unsuccessful.

Poor working conditions

UPE has not embraced the entire school age going groups because other vulnerable children like street children can make it through universalized education because of other factors and as a result, it needs to be comprehensive. Mention should also be made to the Low salaries for teachers, poor housing facilities and social welfare services which would motivate teach efficiently.

Already it is clear that the characteristic representations of social policy have been adhered except the legal framework. Apparently, Universal Education in Uganda is not a compulsory education. The general conclusion is that implementation of a policy does not guarantee the usage of the social services which are interpreted from it. One way to induce guarantee usage of

the products of social policies is to adopt the legal framework. If such a situation could occur, it would imply that if a parent is found with a child of school going age, who is not attending school, then that parent will be prosecuted because he has committed an offence. The punishment, in this regard may include warning, community service and 1-2 years in prison for first, second and third offence respectively

School drop-outs

One point which should be born in mind is that the Universal Primary Education is also associated with a high increase of school drop-outs, such that even adults who had not got opportunity of attaining education in their affirmative years are now days joining the program. This is especially in rural areas of Uganda and war affected areas like northern districts of Uganda. This gives chance for teachers on tempting situations to abuse such pupils either physically due to their ages who later on feels discouraged and leave school, or sexually abused leading to un wanted pregnancies, defilement hence school drop-outs as witnessed by many schools talked about over the Radio.

Evidence in the extent of universal primary education in Uganda has remained somewhat circumstantial since it has up lifted literacy level but this has not stopped the issue of absenteeism due to very large number of pupils which is difficult for teachers to manage, monitor and control. This has contributed to poor performance by most schools under universal primary education program yet most private schools are beating up such government schools, because of limited number of pupils for easy management by teachers.

A number of new innovation mechanisms of UPE also worthy highlighting are that it has enabled the poor people to get access to education as a social service hence it a reduction of illiteracy levels in our society.

UPE today supports many families in terms of feeding because, most UPE schools are provided with meals and pupils eat lunch at school. This is a great contribution from the government especially to the people in IDP camps such as the three northern districts of Uganda which is affected by insurgency and armed conflicts, most of them do not have food and therefore depend on school foods provided by United Nations.

Universal Secondary Education (USE) policy

USE was implemented and designed at a broad definition aimed at helping a wide population of people that covered the whole country. The top-to-

bottom approach was used to implement where government designed the policy from top government institutions and later accepted by beneficiaries.

Theories used in the implementation of Universal Secondary Education (USE)

Cyclical theory was used during the implement the of Universal Secondary Education (USE) policy. The theory mainly emphasizes that elements of society disappear and reappear in order that change and patterns are always in order rather than change.

This theory helps policy makers (Universal Secondary Education policy) carry out analysis of previous occurrences in society and their impact on the society. This theory was used to predict, explain what will occur after UPE.

Social control principle was employed during the implementation of Universal Secondary Education (USE) as a policy. This principle reflects the forms of social provision to create social order and harmony in other wards fitting into the society values and profiles. Achievement of social control can be obtained from a varying degree of controlling the adolescents who would engage in delinquent strategies.

It's however important to note that the action plan by the government has yielded less success due to the limited sensitization on the ground and limited materials i.e. school infrastructure, teachers and other scholastic materials to boost the whole programme of Universal Secondary Education.

Special education policy in Uganda

Education policy is one of the parameters of state funding which provides illustration that the state plans for the welfare of its citizen both in short and long term objectives. Education is a process by which society attempts to preserve and upgrade the accumulated knowledge skills attitudes in the formal setting in order to continuously faster its society well being.

The government's implementation of the PEAP (1997- 2017) as a basic frame work for social development in Uganda

The goal of the PEAP is to provide an acceptable minimum set of services which will benefit the poor, disadvantage and vulnerable by empowering them economically. They can improve their own welfare (Uganda Debt Network, 1998: 22, PEAP, 2002: 25). Education is one of the goals of the PEAP to eradicate poverty. The objectives of the PEAP are to ensure that

children with disabilities have an opportunity to self-reliance through access to education.

Disability: The lack of ability caused by impairment to perform an activity with a range considered normal for a human being.

Accessibility: is the right or opportunity of reaching, obtaining and using a service. For the purposes of this study, accessibility refers to the ability to go to school, opportunities to attain a formal education.

Special Education : Is the education of the children and adults who have learning difficulty because of different sort of handicap, blindness , partial sightedness, deafness, hardness of learning, mental retardation , social maladjustment , physical handicap ness, due to circum stances of birth, inheritance, social position, mental and physical health pattern or accident in later life.

Special educational needs: Some children have educational needs which are not met by the usual provision in a class. These needs may be the consequence of under-stimulation, social-emotional neglect or abuse, a traumatic experience, impairment or other condition that makes it difficult for a person to follow the regular curriculum and / or ways of teaching.

In order for these children to be able to develop their full potential, modifications may need to be made to the curriculum, teaching methods, teaching/ learning materials, and medium of communication or to the environment. For example, a child who cannot hear needs to use visual means of communication; a child who cannot see needs tactile instead of visual learning materials; a child with general learning difficulties needs a modified curriculum; a ramp should be provided instead of steps for a child who uses a wheelchair.

“Children with special educational needs” is often used to substitute “children with disabilities”.

Special needs education: This is education which provides appropriate modifications in order to meet special educational needs. It includes preventive, compensatory and therapeutic education. It is learner centered, flexible and adjustable to individual needs and potential. For example, Brailing equipment or lenses should be provided for children with visual impairment.

Special education: Refers to education specially designed to meet the needs of children with special educational needs. This term is often associated with education provided for children with visual impairment, hearing impairment or mental retardation in special classes, special schools and special institution.

Lately it had been substituted with the term “Special Needs Education” emphasizing that other learning problems may call for special adjustments as well as emphasizing the idea of special needs in the (regular) classroom.

Impairment: This is damage to a part of the body, either through accident, disease, genetic factors or other causes. This leads to the loss or weakening of the part affected. For example, paralysis caused by the disease called poliomyelitis is an example of impairment.

Disability: This is the loss or reduction of functional ability of an individual due to impairment. It is also a limitation of opportunities that prevents people who have impairments from taking part in the normal life of the community on an equal level with others. There may be physical or social barriers to full participation. For example, a person whose legs are paralyzed cannot play football.

A handicap: is a disadvantage or restriction of activity, which is a result of a disability. Handicap can be avoided if the society provides all possible help to enable a person with a disability to be independent. A person who is not given opportunities to become independent is handicapped and a person who is given opportunities to become independent and does not utilize them is also handicapped.

Normalization: The approach or philosophy that maintains that people with impairment, disabilities or handicap must be seen as a natural part of society. This means that their needs and quality of life must be guaranteed through the same laws, legislations and services like the rest of the population. These include services such as medical care, social security, education, work, recreation and vacation

This also means that people with disabilities have, like other people, obligations and responsibilities towards society.

According to the concept of normalization, it is normal for children with a disability to lead a normal life. Because of this, it may be viewed as normal for them to develop slower as other children do, and it may be normal for them to develop differently.

The environment should modes of communication and facilities must be adjusted and curricula must be flexible so that all children can be included in the same schools.

Integration and inclusion are steps toward normalization, which is a long lasting process.

Integration: Refers to provision of educational services to children with special educational needs with in the regular school system.

When integrating children with disabilities, they should be prepared in special groups or during individual sessions to make them fit in the regular classrooms. However experience has shown that this model has often resulted in too little interaction between children with and without disabilities. This led to the introduction of inclusive education.

Inclusive education: is based on the idea of normalization, expecting the environment (curriculum, means of communication, teaching methods, educational materials and other environmental factors) to be adjusted to the needs of learners with special educational needs.

Children: According to the laws of Uganda a child is any body below eighteen years. Therefore a child is any one who is from seventeen years and below.

Special school: A school for children who can not successfully integrate into the public / regular school system.

The propositions that I have already stated I the provided in the findings and on which we must concentrate our inquiry which can lead to disequilibrium is also based on the following historical accounts which is as follows.

Historically, formal education in Uganda, which began in 1898, did not consider education for people with disabilities. It was until far back as 1952 when sir Andrew Cohen was the Governor of Uganda then had a blind relative enacted a law in the legislative council (colonial parliament of Uganda) to provide education for the disabled person. This clearly shows that failure of children with disabilities to access education is not a recent issue, it began during colonial period.

The proof of the historical accounts consists of several parts. First special education encompasses a range of specialized teaching programmes in special education (SPED) schools which cater to children with autism, or intellectual, sensory, physical or multiple disabilities. SPED schools are

operated by voluntary welfare organizations (VWOs), with the support of the ministry of education and the national council of social services. The aim of all SPED schools is to develop each child capacity to its fullest potential, with the long-term objectives.

The social security and supplemental security income disability programs are the largest of several federal programs that provide assistance to people with disabilities. While these two programs are different in many ways, both administered by the social security administration and only individuals who have a disability and meet medical criteria may qualify benefits under either program.

Even taken together, these reasons can only explain a small part of the actual changes in the education system in Uganda, the 1989 Education policy review commission (popularly known as the Kajubi commission) recommended that basic education should be a must for every citizen, the goal being to achieve UPE in as near future as possible (Kajubi Report 1989, p. 43). The same report points out that government had not yet assumed enough responsibility for the education of the blind, and the mentally and physically handicapped. The review commission can not fully explain the large fluctuation of neither the education system in Uganda nor its current trends in the Great lakes region.

The report however also emphasizes special education approach rather than the inclusive approach promoted by UPE. The Uganda government ministry of education and sport White paper, 1992, to a large extent adopted most of the Kajubi commission recommendations and attached a time frame for the attainment of UPE that is by the 2010 for children between 6 and 13 years (the government white paper 1992, p.42). But like the Kajubi report, the white paper simply looks at integration in terms of having small special education units in ordinary schools rather than absolute mainstreaming. However important to note is the commitments in the white paper to exempt all CWDs from paying school dues. However the statutes, policies and laws can not per se ensure the education of children with disabilities.

The hypothesis of changing disequilibrium policies in the education system has much more explanatory power for a number of observed facts than alternative hypothesis provided by (Muyinda and Barton 1995) who expressed this thus.

“Disabled children have little access to social services especially rehabilitative and education. Most schools do not have special facilities for the disabled children, and parents may be unwilling to invest in a disabled child since resources are scarce.”

It is indeed, conceivable that, given that the provision of special education remains the same; more interesting is the study of the possible impact the factors hindering PWD to access education. Search theory have shown that, not surprisingly education PWD experience harassment by teachers (Mujeres (2002) and other adults appears to be particularly wide spread in residential schools and also acknowledge that sexual or disability harassment in school as a barrier to learning for girls with disabilities.

High Educational costs and house hold poverty Barton and Wannai (1994:80) argue that general access to education in Uganda is affected by educational costs and household poverty : gender inequalities ; political instability, per distribution of schools and low perceived value of educational school related and social economic factors acting independent easily or interdependently , continue to the problem of accessibility for CWDs.

UNICEF, (1989) and not PED (1992) said that secondary and higher education in Uganda is neither free nor compulsory. Parents often see the required fee is investment for their own future. Parents of minority groups like girl children and children with disabilities may not feel the same way about paying fees for children who may not be able to advance academically.

Report from WHO state that girl’s access to education is affected by their socio –economic status of their family, their ethnicity, whether they live in urban or rural areas and a host or other factors.

Distance to school and from school

According to head of Mengo Hospital occupational Unit (1998), some parents of the children of the unit fail to take children back to their homes this in the end have tried to discourage them to continue with education.

A few social policy studies have tried to grasp the effect of lack of trained special needs education teachers. Recent may here be made to recent study by MLG (2000:3) based on the statistics released the average pupil teacher

ratio stands at 1.74 although it rises according to regions and rural–urban disparities. The study considers trained personnel to be the standard deviation, between attainments of education to a variable which measures the need for recruitment of special needs personnel.

According to the Ministry of education and sports, the teacher pupil ratio in lower classes (1-3) stands at 1:110 where as that of middle upper classes (4-7) is 1:55 and one of those trained school special needs education teachers might be the only 2 in the all school all these pose a challenge to children with disabilities in accessing education.

The main point on which we must focus attention here is that vertical equity in contrast to horizontal equity evokes the principle of “to each according to need. Inquiry about the role of vertical equity follows not only from the natural development of theoretical reflections per se but also from the now frequent concerns of policy makers with the restoration of and designing of affirmative action policies such as gender policies (Mwine 2007). This is why, at least in Uganda, there is a great eagerness to know whether classical vertical equity is more than a purely theoretical possibility. One can think of two reasons that, at sight, the boy child is valued more than the girls whether they are disabled or not. Thus the disabled girl child has a double disadvantage due to these negative attitudes and issues with their accessibility differ from those of their male counterparts for example girl with disabilities may experience sexual harassment and rejection at school and at home . They also are expected to perform certain gender roles despite their disability. Therefore this calls for government, parents, guardians, local leaders, and the problem by setting up policies that can call for inclusive education.

Clearly, the full upward flexibility of horizontal equity is not a realistic hypothesis to make for modern policy planning. But the fact remains that horizontal equity refers to the equality principle of “like treatment for like people in like circumstances.” In other words, it is treating people with the same problem using the same solution. For example UPE policy has treated its people horizontally in a way that both the rich and the poor families have to benefit but the government has failed to provide special education equipment like wheel chairs, crutches for example to the physically handicapped as guides to push them around and this failure to benefits from UPE.

Even with the introduction of UPE in the education sector, families under poverty have difficulties in affording the required uniforms, pens, books and scholastic materials it has made some children with disabilities to quit education and some have not been in position even to step in class.

Sexual harassment by male teachers was revealed by 4% of the respondents raise the issue being done by male teachers in most schools. This has mainly been faced by the girl children with disabilities; this has made some girls to perform poorly in class and even drop out the school. One disabled girl expressed this view as thus:

“My class teacher could always want to sleep with me but I could refuse. He threatened to fail me in exam but I reported that issue to the school Headmaster (physically disabled child p. 6”.

Mention should be made of recent qualitative studies which revealed that the long distance to the school has also been a key factor hindering children with disabilities failing to access education. It was realized that parents and their children want to access services, but are unable due to lack of transportation. Therefore in the end some children with physical disabilities (movement impairment) have ended giving up with the education. They also went a head by saying that terrain and slippery wants amplifies the barrier, and they suggested that in order to overcome distance and difficulty with the terrain children with disabilities must depend on their families and communities, if they are to get to school.

More interesting is the study that provided a revelation that the revelation that failure to provide food for children with disabilities at the school during the day has been another hindrance for CWDs to access education at school, which has also contributed negatively to their performance. When the researcher asked the school administrators they revealed that UPE grant was too little to cater for meals and some parents wither do not have enough food or choose not to send food behaving that UPE provides meals for other children.

Inadequate trained special needs education especially when the school has a total of 185 children with special needs yet there is only 1 trained special needs teacher for these children. These have tended to strain the teacher in the end affecting the caring of CWDs. It was also realized that because of

the big class size with about 78 pupils in each class in the end CWDs do not receive the amount of attention they require.

Nicknaming of the disabled children was also reported to be one of the factors that have tried to deny some CWDs to access education. Simply because, the peers of children with disabilities would participate in name calling and bullying. In extreme cases, the peers would beat CWDs. It was reported, the teacher would respond differently, some pushing the offenders while others would ignore the problem encourage the continuation to the stigmatization and the end may have ended up dropping out of the school. Commenting on this aspect, a disabled child says this;

They nickname and beat us and when you report to the teachers, the culprits are not punished, it then becomes habitual that everyone teases you because they know you cannot chase them due to your disability and the teacher will not punish them (physically disabled child P.2)

Parent's negative attitude towards their children with disabilities was also reported by the respondents to be one of the barriers for children with disabilities facing to access education.

Some parents have tried to consider CWDs as being useless, claiming that they can't be productive in fulltime therefore it's not necessary to be taken to school. Therefore the end they have ended up remaining at home without having access to education. Inadequate Brails, this has been a problem to most especially to children with visual impairment. Children with visual impairment have tended to face this problem because of the school failing to provide enough Brails to these children since they can't write like other children therefore because of the as some one being forced to but these materials, which was revealed that parents can't manage to purchase these materials since they are few expensive.

One more recent study suggests that unconducive physical school environment which is lack of physical infrastructure has been identified from four cohorts which concluded that such environment has prevented CWDs from integrating them into the conventional school system. Children with motor impairments hearing impairments, visual impairment and mental illness have found difficult to cope, and often decide to drop out of school. When the study was carried out the researcher find out that the school had ten ramps, stones in the comp and (Bricks) few sanitation facilities, corridor one not widened enough; the school terrain is not that well labeled.

Crawling was a big problem for those with movement disability especially when it is raining and the rough terrain at the school and the research own observation revealed as because of absence of hand books knee boots and artificial some children with disabilities have tried to give up their education and drop out-some of CWDs had the following views.

Negative attitude of some teachers towards CWDs was also revealed that some teachers have negative attitude towards CWDs when the respondents were asked why they tend to do so, the response was that the work of teaching a disabled child was a kind of burden it makes them strain themselves, so they better teach the physically able child who can pick up very fast.

Little knowledge by some teachers on how to teach children with disabilities was also revealed, 60% of the teachers at the school lack knowledge on special head education therefore the end a child with disabilities have finally failed to get exactly what he/she was supposed to get at the school.

CHAPTER NINE

Factors hindering children with disabilities to access education depending on their types of disabilities

Movement difficulties

Mention should be made of recent theoretical research intended to clarify that 70% of the children with disabilities have movement difficulties have highly hindered by long distance both from the school and to their homes, it has made some disabled children arrive late at school and fail to pick up with the lesson. Eventually, they gain nothing which result into dropping out of the school. Lack of mobility aids and appliances like hand boots and knew boots has mainly been in areas when a child visit a toilet, which at time tend to be so wet on the floor and dirty they end up starving, rugged terrain areas have also hindered their movement both at school and outside the school. This has made pupils drop out of the school.

One pupil was reported saying:

“The toilets are very dirty and slippery and since I have to crawl, it becomes a nightmare so I starve myself at school so that do not have the urge to ease myself” P.2 child with movement disability

24% reported that the problem of nicknaming and bullying children with movement difficulties have been hindering them from continuing education. Derogatory names such as “Mulema” meaning disable was reported as commonly used by other fellow pupils. In the end children with movement disabilities are discouraged and end up dropping out of the school.

In accessibility school physical infrastructure like ramps, squeezed corridors has also denied some children (movement disabilities) from accessing education at the school. Lack of ramps at the door of classrooms have prevented some children with movement disabilities to have access to classroom freely until they are assisted by carrying them and in addition to that some are poorly constructed which can't even allow a wheelchair because of it many have decided to drop out of the school.

Visual Impairment

Visually impaired children face a challenge of lack of white cane which is used to guide the child during movement. It is done in order to avoid being injured by some dangerous objects such as stones and to avoid getting lost in and outside the school. This has discouraged some pupils to drop out of the school.

Guide in the school compound has also been a big hindering factor to access education. These pupils lack a person in the school who can guide them by directing them where to go and what to do.

Inadequate attention by teachers in classes such as P.2 and P.4 is one of the biggest common problems. There is a negative attitude that some teachers tend to have towards these children because teaching consider guiding these children as a burden.

Lack of Brail materials, was reported as the cause of poor performance most especially in science subjects.

Lack of friends: children with visual impairment don't have friends at the school. Most children fear to associate with them, as a result they have remained lonely and desperate this has made some quite education.

Hearing Impairment

The study revealed that 60% of schools lack of qualified personnel to teach in sign language at the school is the biggest challenge. It i.e. equally important to pay attention to the issue that was mentioned earlier that the schools only have one special needs education teacher who can't teach all different types of disabilities at the school. This gives the teacher less time to attend to children with hearing impairment.

The respondents revealed negative attitudes from parents coupled with high costs of hearing aids like computers, with very expensive as one the major difficulties in accessing verbal information. Finally, 4% revealed poor perception of what is said by parents or teachers. Despite the obvious difficulties faced by children with disabilities, it is also imperative to note that there is a general absence of counseling services which can help them to cope with the identified challenges.

Speech difficulties

Children with special difficulties face challenge of failure to express themselves to teachers, peers and parents as was revealed. A pupil may want to know or understand what exactly the child is trying to say. Some even fear to be laughed at by their fellow pupils in the end they don't get much in their education.

Nicknaming and bullying at the school was also revealed by 245 of the respondents, in that children/pupils have tried to use derogatory names like "kasiru" meaning you are stupid as has made some pupils to do away with education.

Inability to actively participate in class was usually a result of fear to be laughed at by their fellow pupils. Inability to be understood by others has been also a great challenge in accessing education; this has made some of the questions of the disabled children not being considered as very important.

40% of the study revealed that children with mental retardation/learning difficulties are faced with problems such as slow hearing. They can't learn very fast like other pupils. It has resulted into poor performance, large class sizes makes it hard for teachers to give special attention to slow learners, negative societal attitude that they can not gain from formal education this has made some children with mental retardation remain at home and some do away with education fear to be abused because of the poor performance by their parents.

Children with multiple disabilities are faced with a problem of being considered by the society as useless. Simply because that they have more than one type of disabilities, difficulty in communicating is when a child speaks there are difficulties in hearing. There is also a belief that they are unimaginable, this has made some drop out of school.

Findings clearly indicate that boys and girls with disabilities face different challenges in accessing education. The main challenge of a boy child with disabilities being negative societal attitude as revealed by 40% of the respondents, followed by inferiority complex, isolation, overworking, sexual abuse as was revealed by 62%, over protection and overworking contributing to 8%, biological problem contributing to 6% and finally neglect as revealed to be at 4%.

For a girl child with disability the major challenge is child sexual abuse as revealed by 52% of the respondents, closely followed by overworking mainly in domestic work as revealed by 16% of the respondents 20% of the respondents also revealed that the protection, torture and isolation has been among challenges facing a girl child in accessing education 3% reported inferiority complex, 4% revealing negative attitude of the society towards girl child to have access to education, this is because they have been regarded as source of wealth 5% being because of biological problem like menstruation period which tends to disturb them in classes that making them uncomfortable in classes and finally neglect from the parents towards these children as who been a key problem that have denied some of these children in accessing education at the area of the study.

A disabled child comments as follows

“Iam finding a problem of defilement here at school by fellow pupils so

I sometimes fear attending school (Pupil in P.6)

Disabled girls are raped and defiled by normal and reputable men who identify with them at night or way lay them on the way to school or at night when they get pregnant they are abandoned (Physiotherapist).

Therefore the above findings clearly illustrate that although both boys and girls may face similar challenges in some instances these challenges are gender specific for instance girls stand higher risk of child abuse as compared to boys.

How to solve the problem and challenges facing children with disabilities in accessing education

It was recommended that sensitization of school staff and pupil on disability issues should be done so that they are aware of the existence of disability. The community as being a normal issue, it will also eliminate the negative attitude that some teachers tend to have towards these children.

The provision of ramps at the entrance of the buildings and public places so that a child with disability or PWDs (physical disabilities like a person using a wheel chair can be able to access such places.

Provision of mobility aids for example wheel chairs, tricycles to aid mobility of these disabled children/pupils. Adaptation of toilets/pit latrines specially made for PWD. The

Construction of more special needs schools in the districts should be done by the government since children with disability can not be accommodated few schools available.

Training of more personnel in special needs education and encouraging of inclusive education at all levels of education is paramount.

CHAPTER TEN

Revolution theory

Revolution theory has been the object of a large number of social policy studies explaining abrupt changes. The general conclusion is that, revolutions may occur due to several factors; material conditions, which entail uneven distribution of resources in the society and ideological factors and the desire for the achievement of a different order. We have just looked at three important factors that might explain the dynamics of the revolution theory in policy development. Each one of these is valid in it but can only explain a small part of the actual fundamental relevance of the revolution theory to social policy planning. Even taking the effect of all three together does not invalidate this conclusion. In Uganda, Kenya and Rwanda for instance, unemployment multiplied by ten in the eighties and nineties on the average. We can venture to say that our three factors raised social conditions which required the citizen to resort to revolutions of some sort to bring in change that developed relatively equilibrium policies. Commenting on this aspect Cicero says thus;

Cicero, in his *de republic*, defined the terms of revolution as a disagreements among the citizens divide themselves into several factions John Milton liked up revolution with the maintenance Of freedom and wanted the existing government to be changed. Cicero, in his *de republic*, defined the terms of revolution as a disagreements among the citizens divide themselves into several

factions. John Milton in Hara Das (1992) linked up revolution with the maintenance of freedom and wanted the existing government to be changed.

Actually, in order to make the facts fully consistent with the revolution theory, we need also to explain why revolution theory would be inversely correlated with social policy design and implementation. This is sometimes done by saying that a change by revolution oftentimes changes existing disequilibrium social policies.

Aristotle was the first political thinker who made a detailed study of revolution and suggested its causes as a change in the constitution of the state. The replacement of one form of government by another or a change in the type of the rules may amount to a revolution (Hara das2004). According to Aristotle The credit however, goes to John Locke who said thus;

The government is bound by the terms of contract to guarantee the natural rights of the people to life, liberty, and the people have the right to life, liberty, and pursuit of happiness and the people have the right to change the government by revolution, if it fails to protect or guarantee their rights.

Was that authority was shifted from a land-owing aristocracy to a commercial middleclass.

The liberal theory of revolution

The liberal theory of revolution supports the preservation of the existing state of social, economic and political life. The liberal theorists justify a return of the past as an act of revolution and due to this the liberal theory is accused of being reactionary, anti-change.

In Plato's political philosophy, a revolution may be interpreted as the establishment of the ideal state of a three class polity based on the principles of division of labor specialization of functions (1980), Hendrik and Harmon 1972).

This was necessary as Plato thought to purge the evils and the corruptions from the society. After this the revolution comes to an end there is change there is no need for any more change after the establishment of the utopia or the ideal-state.

The new liberal thinkers have examined the role of sociological and psychological factors in bringing about a profound change by the forcible seizure of power (Hara Das and Choundry 1992). While the new liberal thinkers have accepted the Marxian definition of revolution as the forcible seizure of power, they have rejected the Marxian logic that economic factor alone is the cause of all revolutions (Dronberger 1971, Freund 1976 Baumrind).

Any government which exercises its authority without the support of the people or without legitimacy and uses that power for exploiting and oppressing the people and the illegal perpetuation of its own authority is likely to be overthrown by the organized violence of the people. There is no need of any class-consciousness for such revolutions, as Marx has tried to analyze (Hendrik and Harmon 1972); the fact is that "revolutions are violent civil disturbances that cause displacement of one ruling group by another which has a broader popular basis of support. To avoid civil disturbances can be avoided through the designing of favorable social policies. Actually policies are revolutions factors.

The new liberal thinkers attribute not one but may cause to the revolutions such as economic, sociological and psychological. Revolutions may have different phases, stages, degrees or areas of involvement (Dronberger 1971, Freund 1976, Baumrind, 1980), Hendrik and Harmon 1972). Whatever may be the immediate occasion for the revolution, there is a simmering discontent among the people which leads to the revolution.

The psychological factors which lead to a revolution are also considered important by some writers. Political alienation precedes a revolutionary

outburst Schwartz in (Hara Das and Choundry 1992). It springs from a psychological conflict between an individual's own value hierarchy and the contradictory values that he perceives to be operative in the political system. In brief, it may be said that political alienation leads to the outbreak of a revolution. A social policy which disfranchises other segments of the society forces the marginalized to engage in revolution as illustrate by the dynamics of Rwanda revolution below.

Kenya political violence illustrating the liberal theory of revolution

Kenya's bread-basket rift valley province experienced some of the worst violent ethnic clashes following disputed polls. Hundreds of homes and farms were. Most of those affected are Kikuyu, the countries largest and most powerful ethnic group. Long-unresolved issues related to unfavorable land policy and tenure of the province's fertile land tend to erupt into violence around the time of elections as candidates pledge to correct past "injustices" of land policy to win support (New Vision February 2008).

In post Kenya, following the Marxist path., the roots of the Rift Valley land conflict lie with the former colonial power, Britain: post-independence land policies; and the tendency for all political issues to be viewed through the lens of ethnicity. Vast arable tracts of the Rift Valley were designated as White Highlands, reserved for European settlers. The pastoralist communities, mainly Kalenjin and Masai, were simply moved away.

In the run-up to independence in 1963, Kenyan political parties argued over whether the land should be returned to the indigenous population under a federalist system of government or kept under the control of a centralized state. Those who favored the latter option, in the form of the Kenya African National Union (KANU), which went on to form a government under President Jumbo Kenyatta, a Kikuyu, prevailed. The land policy favored the Kikuyu, they acquired titles of big parcels of land which they do not cultivate but use as mortgage in commercial banks, leaving the native ethnic groups frustrated with out land for cultivation as a source of livelihood. Similarly, these Kikuyu are referred to as telephone farmers compared to absentee land lords in Kibaale districts in western Uganda which have experienced high intensity violence.

Inequitable land policies causing conflicts among the nationals among different ethnic groups have emerged as a second generation problem after ethnic conflicts and it is no longer merely a source of conflict but a resource

for its perpetuation (Huggins, Musahara, Mbura- Kamugi, Oketch, and Vlassenroot 2005).

Characteristics of revolution

From above illustrations some generalizations regarding the ingredients of revolutions may be made;

Although a revolution is primarily a political event, it is bound to have socio-economic and cultural dimensions (Dronberger 1971, Freund 1976 Baumrind). (1980), Hendrik and Harmon 1972), political dimension of revolution signifies a change in the existing authority. The purpose of revolution is to change the 'unjust' authority and treatment of people by a just one as perceived by those who spearhead the revolution.

Idealistic – liberal theory of revolution

This theory of revolution is different from both the liberal and Marxian theories. The idealistic-liberal theory puts emphasis on an ethical, spiritual or cultural upheaval through which a group of persons seek to establish a new basis for existence. The advocates of this theory argue that, a revolution is not merely a political process, but a part of the unfolding of human personality and feelings of frustration. A revolution therefore is a movement of historical significance among different ethnic groups, directed towards the achievement of higher moral end. Revolution was described as a fact of nature by Immanuel Kant, the father of modern idealism (Durenberger 1971, Freund 1976 Baumrind 1980, Hendrik and Harmon 1972)

Hegel in (Hendrik and Harmon 1972) justified and almost glorified revolution and identified it with the process of unfolding of history and the development of civilization. Hegel's concept of revolution is embedded into his theory of dialectical progression, in which he combines logic and metaphysics resulting in the union of thought and being. He praised the French Revolution as an event of world historical significance. Hegel's thesis contains in itself its contradiction which is a combination of both the theses and the anti-thesis; but represents a higher stage of development on the path towards progress. This process of conflict and reconciliation continues till the ideally rational stage is reached (Hara Das and Choundry 1992 (Dronberger 197).

The concept of revolution is multi-dimensional and covers only the political but also the socio-economic and cultural aspects of human life.

Revolution brings a transformation basically in the sphere of political power; also affect the socio-economic and cultural spares of the society in board terms it may be identified with drastic changes in the political system whether peaceful or violet (Hendrik and Harmon 1972). But in specific terms it has come to be identified as a sudden fundamental and major transformation of a political and social transformation. Thus revolution is used interchangeably with outburst, upheaval, unrest, agitation, and rebellion. Hence there is difficulty in formulating a precise definition of the revolution. According to Litter in (Hara Das and Choundry) 1992), a revolt is a rebellion against the established authority, while revolution is a sudden and violet change in the political system or government of a state. In the words of (Dronberger 1971, Freund 1976 Baumrind), a revolt is a collective and ordinarily violet action by which a group rejects the authority as well as the established social standards, and prepares to attack and destroy them.

Kenya land policy illustrating revolution theory

Since British government assumed control of “unoccupied land” of indigenous people, and presented it to European farmers as 99 year leaseholds. All the land was taken in possession of the crown and African people were made tenants at will of the British.

Since Kenya got independence the constitution concerning land had not been revised/ changed. The existing constitution probably existed during the colonial times has facilitated the protection of private property rights even where they are acquired in an illegitimate manner.

This has deprived the principles of social equity, collective justice and distribution justice, a fundamental pillar in social policy planning among people of different social classes especially the underprivileged such as women, young children, youth, HIV/AIDS orphans. This has resulted from government failure to accountably govern issues of land, which occurs under a regime that does not facilitate meaningful participation. Therefore Kenyans expressed immense dissatisfaction with the inequitable distribution of land in the country. Many Kenyans do not have access to land due to discriminating policies. There is thus a need to facilitate better access to land especially for individuals and groups who have historically been denied such access.

Women, children, minority groups and persons with disabilities have been denied ownership of and access to land rights as a result of discriminatory

laws, customs and practices. Present regimes should advocate for land equitability by improving land rights of vulnerable groups, because land rights of vulnerable individuals and groups are not protected and are subject to bias and discrimination. Further more, absence of cohesive institutions to represent their interests in addition to negative perceptions, discriminatory and inequitable practices due to gender and stigma against vulnerable groups undermine their will to access land.

There is need for government to;

- a) Develop mechanisms for identifying, monitoring and assessing the vulnerable groups with a view to facilitating their access to land;
- b) Provide for the participation of the vulnerable groups in the decisions making over land and land based resources; and
- c) Protect the land rights of the vulnerable groups particularly the orphans.

A political process as a mechanism of designing land policies

Social policies are always influenced by political system especially in the policy making arena such as the parliament, the majority always influence the policy making direction. It is crucial to recognize the centrality of policies in the creation of welfare policies. These political factors help explain why policies change so rapidly and why policies are developed that do not deal effectively with social welfare problems.

In Kenya it was expected that the transfer of power from colonial authorities to indigenous elite would lead to fundamental restructuring of the legacy on land. This did not materialize and the result was a general re-entrenchment and continuity of colonial land policies, laws and administrative infrastructure.

Previously, Kenya has had no clearly defined laws on how to manage land, leading to a breakdown in land administration. Disparities in land ownership, tenure insecurity and squatting have occurred, often resulting in conflict. The absence of a land policy has also opened the door to environmental degradation.

The draft national land policy of October 2006, drawn by the government, seeks to address the issue of land administration such as access to land, land use, redistributions and the proliferation of slums. These activities have been severely criticized since the new document fails to spell out practical

solutions to land problems in Kenya, particularly concerning the historical injustices that deprived some segments of the society of land.

Public consultations, displeasure was exposed over how those who fought for independence under the auspices of the Mau Mau have been ignored by authorities which have failed to resettle fighters stripped of their land by colonists. Formed in the 1950's the ex-freedom fighters have been treated in a very dismissive and perfunctory manner by past governments.

In an interview with IPS former Mau Mau combatant John Kiboko is one who experienced this neglect and has this to say, "My land in Kirinyaga (Central Kenya) was taken away after I and other fighters ran to hid in the bush, rejecting arrest by British soldiers in 1953," he told IPS of the Five-acre plot that was confiscated in 1955 by colonial rulers.

Human rights bodies documents that more than 1000 former freedom fighters had their land confiscated. Many have since died. The land was seized under the Native land rights confiscation order of the 1955 Kenya proclamation Rules and Regulations.

Banned by the colonial regime, the Mau Mau remained a proscribed movement during the first post-colonial government of the late Jomo Kenyatta, and even during the second administration-led by former president Daniel Arap Moi. This made it difficult for the rights of the Mau Mau members to be addressed (Widner (1983).

The current government of Mwai Kibaki lifted the ban in 2003, allowing former fighters to register the Mau Mau war veterans Association, which has began pushing for the rights of its members-including those pertaining land.

Its not only former Mau Mau fighters who are asking for land to be returned. The Massai ethnic group is also demanding over a million acres of its ancestral land that was signed away by an illiterate chief to the British over a century ago (Oucho 2002). Under the Anglo Massai agreement of 1904 the British were to have the land on a lease that would expire a century later. In august 2004 the Massai duly held a protest demanding the return of their land only to be disposed by police (Widner (1983). Therefore, there is need for the current constitution to be changed to say that in the event of illegal acquired land the government has an upper hand in designing a land policy which can and redistribute it favorably (Oucho 2002).

Chronology showing the key events in the Kenyan revolt

December 27 2007: Voters elect a new president and Members of Parliaments. Most opinion polls put Kibaki's opposition rival Raila Odinga of the Orange Democratic Movement in the lead.

December 30 2007: Kibaki wins election by narrow margin of 230,000 votes and he was hurriedly sworn in.

December 31 2007: The government floods the streets with security forces and maintains a ban on live TV broadcast after riots convulse the nation.

January 1 .2008: A mob torches a church killing over 30 people.

January 2. 2008: Kibaki's government accuses Odinga's backers of "ethnic cleansing" as the death toll from tribal violence reaches about 300.

January 3. 2008: Attorney general Amos Wako calls for an independent investigation into the election. After hours of police clashes with thousands of protesters, the opposition calls for a planned demonstration.

South Africa's Nobel Peace Prize Archbishop Desmond Tutu begins stated on a mediation process.

January 4: it is announced that Ghanaian President John Kufuor, chair of African Union was to visit Kenya to start on the mediation process.

Kibaki said he would accept a re-run of the disputed election only if it is ordered by the court.

The United Nations revealed that the unrest had uprooted 250,000 people, and that about 100,000 displaced people in the Northern Rift Valley could face starvation. The International Red Cross made an urgent appeal for aid.

January 5: Kibaki said that he was ready to form a government of national unity to end the turmoil, but the opposition rejects the offer.

January 7: The death toll reaches 486, according to a government committee.

Odinga called for planned protests after meeting the US envoy Jendayi Frazer.

January 8: Kibaki announces 17 ministers of his cabinet.

Protesters respond by burning barricades in Odinga's western strong hold in Kisumu and killing members of the Kikuyu ethnic group.

Africa Union chairman and president of Ghana John Kufuor arrived in Nairobi to start on the mediation process.

January 10: Kufuor leaves Kenya saying both sides have agreed to work together with an African panel headed by former UN Secretary General Kofi Annan. However, Kibaki and Odinga, amid recriminations, did not meet or agree on how to end the crisis.

Riot police fire tear gas at around 70 pro-opposition women who blocked a road in Nairobi.

February, 2008: Violence and riots continued

March, 2008: Both sides agreed to form a coalition government a strategy which helped to alleviate the conflict and violence

April, 2008: Opposition leader Leila Odinga was shown in as the Prime Minister and several members of the opposition were elected as cabinet ministers.

May: Several Kenyan refugees who had migrated to Uganda were handed over to the Kenyan government.

The Marxian theory of revolution

Karl Mark had made significant contribution to the theory of revolution (Hara Das and Choudry 1992) but his concept of revolution different from the liberal interpretation of revolution.

Marx has explained the major political revolutions of the modern age, as the result of long-term social and economic developments in which new forms of economic exploitation and property ownership steadily develop. Thus, a political revolution also becomes a social revolution, when it involves the conflict of social classes (Dronberger 1971, Freund 1976 Baumrind).

The capitalist society, which tries to invert its new rules of production and distribution, establishes new means of transport and communication, exploits the laborers for its own benefit and extends its business to aver new markets, leading to monopoly capitalism and imperialism (1980), Hendrik and Harmon 1972). The workers are integrated and organized and become class-conscious. Through their organized power the workers are able to overthrow the capitalist system in order to free themselves from the increasing misery and degradation of the capitalist society. Marx calls this a socialist revolution. When the socialist revolution is complete and the capitalist order of the society is destroyed, the proletariat capture states will power and the decisive forces of production and distribution will be concentrated in the hands of the working class. At this stage the dictatorship of the Proletariat' is established to destroy all the counter revolutionary forces. Steps will be taken to change the ideas, beliefs, customs and

convictions and the ways of life of the people to bring them in tune either the norms of a socialist system.

Decentralization policy illustrating the Marxists theory of revolution in Rwanda

Since the feudal era, the chiefs in Rwanda adopted and used a system of “de-concentration” consisting of delegating some powers to his representatives who, oftentimes, governed as foreign conquerors. Except for a short period under the first Republic during which burgomasters were elected, until today the people has no control over the action of its rulers who are accountable only to the authority that appointed them. In the old system, it was the chief in charge of pasturelands, the chief in charge of farmlands and the chief in charge of the army. During the second Republic, it was the Prefect, the regional military commander and other heads of departments representing various ministries. Under RPF regime, it is the regional military commander, the Prefect and other RPF cadres.

In order to govern in the name of the people, everything should be done to bring power closer to the people. In practical terms, this means that elections should be instituted at all levels. From the person in charge of the smallest unit of administration to the prefect, elections should be held under universal suffrage. Political parties and independent candidates promoting a social program should have the possibility to compete in the elections. Election winners should govern with a definite mandate, a mandate with a time limit. Promotion of free and independent press should be necessary in order to keep the people constantly informed.

The system of decentralization, which consists of granting some autonomy to regional administrative structures, should be favored. At the communal and protectoral levels, important decisions should be made by elected representatives of the people. Therefore, conventions made up of elected representatives of the people and reflecting the local political makeup of the population should be instituted at those levels.

Conclusively therefore, to comprehend the genocide in Rwanda requires one to go beyond the blame generally accredited to France, Belgium, the international community, and the attack of 6 April 1994. Most observers concur that the attack was the detonator, but even if it had not happened, the genocide would probably still have occurred. The application of the tools of conflict analysis as well as the conflict theories to the genocide give one an extra mile to explore what exactly happened, how to resolve it and avoiding

a re-occurrence. However, it is widely known that all tensions in Rwanda are political in nature, ethnic rivalries being only a corollary of political tensions, a corollary often used as an instrument instead of solving a fundamental issue, that is, a fair sharing in political, economic, and cultural power, and social justice as well.

Chronology of key events illustrating the revolution theory in Rwanda

1300s - Tutsis migrate into what is now Rwanda, which was already inhabited by the Twa and Hutu peoples.

1600s - Tutsi King Ruganzu Ndori subdues central Rwanda and outlying Hutu areas.

Late 1800s - Tutsi King Kigeri Rwabugiri establishes a unified state with a centralized military structure.

1858 - British explorer John Speke is the first European to visit Rwanda and concluded without evidence that the Tutsi are foreigners, a theory which lead to social stratification and enhanced ethnic ethnocentrism and conflict between the Tutsi and the Hutu.

1890 - Rwanda becomes part of German East Africa.

1916 - Belgian forces occupy Rwanda.

1923 - Belgium granted League of Nations mandate to govern Ruanda-Urundi, which it ruled indirectly through Tutsi kings.

1946 - Rwanda- Burundi becomes UN trust territory governed by Belgium.

Independence

1957 - Hutus issue manifesto calling for a change in Rwanda's power structure to give them a voice commensurate with their numbers; Hutu political parties formed.

1959 - Tutsi King Kigeri V, together with tens of thousands of Tutsis, forced into exile in Uganda following inter-ethnic violence.

1961 - Rwanda proclaimed a republic.

1962 - Rwanda becomes independent with a Hutu, Gregoire Kayibanda, as president; many Tutsis leave the country.

1963 - Some 20,000 Tutsis killed following an incursion by Tutsi rebels based in Burundi.

1973 - President Gregoire Kayibanda ousted in military coup led by Juvenal Habyarimana.

1978 - New constitution ratified; Habyarimana elected president.

1988 - Some 50,000 Hutu refugees flee to Rwanda from Burundi following ethnic violence there.

1990 - Forces of the rebel, mainly Tutsi, Rwandan Patriotic Front (RPF) invade Rwanda from Uganda.

1991 - New multi-party constitution promulgated.

Genocide

1993 - President Habyarimana signs a power-sharing agreement with the Tutsis in the Tanzanian town of Arusha, ostensibly signaling the end of civil war; UN mission sent to monitor the peace agreement.

1994 April - Habyarimana and the Burundian president are killed after their plane is shot down over Kigali; RPF launches a major offensive; extremist Hutu militia and elements of the Rwandan military begin the systematic massacre of Tutsis. Within 100 days around 800,000 Tutsis and moderate Hutus are killed; Hutu militias flee to Zaire, taking with them around 2 million Hutu refugees.

1994-96 - Refugee camps in Zaire fall under the control of the Hutu militias responsible for the genocide in Rwanda.

1995 - Extremist Hutu militias and Zairean government forces attack local Zairean Banyamulenge Tutsis; Zaire attempts to force refugees back into Rwanda.

1995 - UN-appointed international tribunal begins charging and sentencing a number of people responsible for the Hutu-Tutsi atrocities.

Intervention in DR Congo

1996 - Rwandan troops invade and attack Hutu militia-dominated camps in Zaire in order to drive home the refugees.

1997 - Rwandan- and Ugandan-backed rebels depose President Mobutu Sese Seko of Zaire; Laurent Kabila becomes president of Zaire, which is renamed the Democratic Republic of Congo.

1998 - Rwanda switches allegiance to support rebel forces trying to depose Kabila in the wake of the Congolese president's failure to expel extremist Hutu militias.

2000 March - Rwandan President Pasteur Bizimungu, a Hutu, resigns over differences regarding the composition of a new cabinet and after accusing parliament of targeting Hutu politicians in anti-corruption investigations.

Kagame elected

2000 April - Ministers and members of parliament elect Vice-President Paul Kagame as Rwanda's new president.

2001 October - Voting to elect members of traditional "gacaca" courts begins. The courts - in which ordinary Rwandans judge their peers - aim to clear the backlog of 1994 genocide cases help them to accept responsibility as a mechanism of peace building.

2001 December - A new flag and national anthem was unveiled to try to promote national unity and reconciliation.

2002 April - Former president Pasteur Bizimungu is arrested and faces trial on charges of illegal political activity and threats to state security.

2002 July - Rwanda, DR Congo sign peace deal emphasizing that Rwanda pulls troops out of DR Congo and DR Congo to help disarm Rwandan Hutu gunmen blamed for killing Tutsi minority in 1994 genocide.

DR Congo pull-out

2002 October - Rwanda pulled the last of its troops out of DR Congo, four years after they went in to support Congolese rebels against the Kabila government.

2003 May - Voters back a draft constitution which bans the incitement of ethnic hatred.

2003 August - Paul Kagame wins the first presidential elections since the 1994 genocide.

2003 October - First multi-party parliamentary elections; President Kagame's Rwandan Patriotic Front won with absolute majority.

2003 December - Three former media directors found guilty of inciting Hutus to kill Tutsis during 1994 genocide and receive lengthy jail sentences.

2004 March - President Kagame rejects French report which claimed that he ordered 1994 attack on president's plane, which sparked genocide.

2004 June - Former president, Pasteur Bizimungu, is sentenced to 15 years in jail for embezzlement, inciting violence and associating with criminals.

2005 March - Main Hutu rebel group, FDLR, says it is ending its armed struggle. FDLR is one of several groups accused of creating instability in DR Congo; many of its members are accused of taking part in 1994 genocide.

2005 July - Government begins the mass release of 36,000 prisoners. Most of them confessed to involvement in the 1994 genocide. It is the third phase of releases since 2003 - part of an attempt to ease overcrowding.

2006 January - Rwanda's 12 provinces are replaced by a smaller number of regions with the aim of creating ethnically-diverse administrative areas.

2006 December - Father Athanase Seromba becomes the first Roman Catholic priest to be convicted for involvement in the 1994 genocide. The International Criminal Tribunal sentences him to 15 years in prison.

Characteristics of revolutions

There is rather a small observed variation in revolution theory, because real changes can hardly be made consistent social change hypothesis unless it is understood that revolution maybe primarily a political event, socio-economic and cultural dimensions, the political dimension, they signify a change in the existing policies. In the case of revolution, although the transformation may be drastic and fundamental, it may be the result of a very long struggle towards the achievement of the ultimate goal. A revolution may take place to counter the process of transformation inaugurated by the first revolution. This is sometimes described as counter-revolution by the people in power (Hara Das and Choundry 1992, Dronberger 1971, Freund 1976 Baumrind).

This term can best be frequently in by the Rwanda revolutions discussed in this chapter. Some political scientists have presented argument as to why some revolutions do not yield positive results in form of favorable social policies. Actually, in order to make facts fully consistent with revolution theory, we need also to explain the existence of. In a quasi-revolution some important leaders may be asked by the people to assume power impose some drastic changes. Thus the leader is himself a beneficiary and not a maker of the revolution. The negative and positive aspects of revolution also form the basis of classification of revolutions.

Stages of revolution

Revolution is not one sight event; it refers to a series of events. It is not satisfied with the overthrow of the established government (Hara Das and Choundry 1992); it is also concerned with the establishment of the new order in its place, maybe taken as the duration of the revolution and the various developments during the period constituted the stages f a revolution.

The leaders in a society exploit the discontent of the people against the established government and convert this into revolutionary strategy to overthrow the existing order and establish a new order in it place (Dronberger 1971, Freund 1976 Baumrind).

The second stage of the revolution is always more at a more specific level, where we must also note that the fore casting performance of the revolutionary leaders come to power, can be valuable at least for the following one to two years. They are certainly not perfect but they perform batter especially when they become confronted with of the realities and difference of opinion and the battle of competing truth which divides the policy makers into what Hara Das referred to as “moderates and extremists’. It is evident from history that these two groups engage in confrontation (Dronberger 1971,

Freund 1976 Baumrind) which results in the victory of the ‘extremists’ and the suppression of the ‘moderates’ and all other opposition through violent methods which lead to designing disequilibrium policies .

The third stage is identified with making desperate efforts by the revolutionary leaders to achieve the revolutionary goals and ideals. The over-enthusiasm of the revolutionary to implement their programs leads to a reaction, which entails a period of convalescence (Hara Das and Choundry 1992, Dronberger 1971, Freund 1976 Baumrind). The stages of revolution can best be illustrated by the Kenyan ethnic violence “in revelation”

Path-breaking analysis in Kenyan conflict by Oucho (1994) suggest that Kenyans were not organized themselves for decolonization. This process generated a number of legacies that influence political interaction in Kenya today.

Africans in general were not represented in the colonial arrangements for their governance. The only way out for them was to perform political and welfare associations.

In terms of consequences, Oucho (1994) discusses the initial pressure groups that manifested Africa’s concerns over how they were being ruled. On June 7, 1921 Harry Thuku a clerk at the Treasury in Nairobi set up the Kikuyu Association to oppose colonialism which had dispossessed young Kikuyu of their lands, and to protect Kikuyu cultural practices. The young Kikuyu association changed its name to East African Association to have a wider appeal but was disbanded in favor of the Kikuyu central Association when Thuku was denied and later deported to Kismayo.

Jomo Kenyatta, who had been associated with this ethnic-based organization from 1924 until 1926, joined it formally and became its Secretary General in 1928.

In December 1921, in western Kenya anti-colonial activities among the Luos and the Luhyas formed the young Kavirondo Association, which was renamed Kavirondo Taxpayers Welfare Association. Such were the beginnings of anti-colonial pressure in Kenya. These pressures increased after world war II, as many more organizations were formed all over Kenya as platforms for the struggle against colonialism. Dedan Kimathi later became the foremost military leader of the arm uprising against the expropriation of Kenyan lands and denial of freedom by the colonial administration.

The followers of Kimathi, in what was duped the Mau- Mau uprising, came from the kikuyu, although the Masai lost more land, and others like the Luhya also lost some. The Luos were not, in the large part, affected by the

problem of expropriation of land by the colonial authorities. However, the Luos contributed to decolonization through political organization and milder forms of protests.

President Kibaki, opposition leader Odinga reached a compromise after a revolution crisis.

President Mwai Kibaki and opposition leader, Raila Odinga spoke to reporters as they stood together next to former UN chief Kofi Annan, in a symbolic gesture after weeks of violence sparked by disputed elections, in which close to 800 people died.

Uganda's President Yoweri Museveni traveled to Kenya trying to mediate between the two rivals. Museveni, who returned home yesterday, held a number of meetings separately with the two rivals.

Museveni proposed that they should be power sharing, a judicial commission of inquiry into the December 27 elections and investigations to establish who has been master-minding the post-election killings in Kenya.

Kibaki had insisted on direct talks with Odinga, who had refused to meet without the presence of a mediator. The opposition leader, who claims he was robbed of victory in the elections, made no reference to the vote and called for patience.

Kibaki underlined his victory in the close-fought elections – which drew criticism from international observers – and called for peace.

When the pair shook hands, hundreds of onlookers cheered. After the meeting, Kofi Annan former UN secretary general told reporters that: "I think we have begun to take some fair steps towards a peaceful solution."

Odinga and other officials from his opposition Orange Democratic Movement (ODM) agreed after meeting Annan to call off planned protests.

Somalia: Some questions in the dynamic analysis of revolution

It appears today, much more than ten years ago, that social policies must be viewed in a dynamic setting of revolution theory and political analysis because their consequences evolve and extend far beyond the time at which they are introduced. The usual model of revolution theory analysis is however, static. Much attention must, be devoted to studying of how analyses of social polices that evolve from revolution dynamics should proceed.

It must be sad from the start that my discussion of this essential dynamic analysis will remain tentative. Revolution theory does not yet provide the kind of solid framework which we should like. Thus, we shall have to satisfy ourselves with a survey of the

various aspects that must be examined, and with consideration of some preliminary attempts at building models in social policy whose various elements can deal with as many policies of states in the Great Lakes as possible as they are illustrated in Dr. Ali Abdullahi M. Barkadde thesis of Somalia below.

According to Dr. Ali Abdullahi M. Barkadde, Somalia lacked skilled political leadership. Leaders in Somalia rose to power either by a corrupt or untransparent patronage system, since most of their leaders have never gone beyond primary school. This led to brutal actions and led to chaos and death over time due to conflicts between different clans and communities.

Secondly, the clan system which was used by the dictatorial regime of SiadeBarre in creating hatred between clans that resulted into conflicts that led to genocide in parts of Somalia and enmity and mistrust in different clans.

The Djibouti conference of 2000 also is a root cause of conflicts in Somalia as it made a mistake by using the clan system in curving up Somalia. In not more than two years according to the Somalia land net of August 24th 2002, the resolution of this conference to influence the clan system caused more chaos in safer zones of Somalia and its influence in the towns of Mogadishu was inevitable since they failed to control even a quarter of that city.

Lack of finance and technical assistance

After the cold war, the commerce and industry of Somalia collapsed which resulted in mass unemployment. The then government without technical assistance started printing money to cover up the holes in its budget which led to hyperinflation. Therefore the Somaliland people turned to be beggars in their own countries hence conflicts between clans.

Institutional corruption

After the collapse of the dictatorial regime of Siad Barre, the then government and the outside world mistakenly encouraged institutionalized corruption. According to Dr. Ali Abdullahi M. Barkadde, to him a beggar has no choice but at this time it was the beggars that were corrupting officers at IMF and the World Bank with its kickback and the multilateral bodies dished out funds without proper screening (scrutiny) hence leading to conflicts.

Corruption and collusions

There was a centralized form of government in Somalia that encouraged corruption and collusion. During this period transparency was compromised

in Somalia. It may have prompted different groups to arise against the government in power hence conflicting.

The dilemma of “one state, one city” in which all power and development is concentrated in the capital city of Mogadishu also led to regional imbalances and inequality hence struggle for power which was an inevitable conflict

The colonial factor

During the colonial rule in great lakes region, they used their policy of divide and rule. This happened in Somalia and as we speak today they are communities which at once belonged to Somalia and now are living in Kenya who are referred to as the Kenyan Ogaden, though may be comfortable but East to West home is best, Even those in Ethiopia struggle to be back in Somalia

Foreign Interference

Another factor which is also a root cause of conflict in Somalia is the presence of neighboring countries in their politics. For example the Zenawi administration of Eritrea has been arming several clans in Somalia living on the two sides of the borders of Ethiopian and Kenya with the aim of perpetuating a status quo.

While the Ethiopian military is also active in the south and parts of northern regions of Somalia and it has always publicly threatened war against the Islamic courts union of Somalia, all these leads to the rise of conflicts in Somalia.

Presence of arms

The presence of Ethiopia in Somalia has forced its bitter regional rival Eritrea to pledge support and arms to the Islamic Courts Union where Eritrea follows the old say “**the enemy of my enemy is my friend**” hence causing constant conflicts in Somalia.

Another root cause is that IGAD members and the Arab League denies Somalia a chance to reconstitute into viable or even states which has continuously led to conflicts among nationals as clans fight against each other.

A conflict theory that explains the existence of the conflict of Somalia can be discussed below:

Identity theory in Somalia

Since Somalia has about the would be five states these are Punt land, Somalia land, Banadir, River land, Juba land and all these do not share commonalities in their way of living, the identity theory explains the existence of conflict in this country.

Land;

For example the nomadic people of Somalia have no access to land they turned to be wanderers. This has caused suffering hence conflicts.

Leadership; every clan would want to rise into power but unfortunately dictatorship and corruption is high in Somalia which leads to conflict.

Religion;

The Islamic court of Union does not want to give chance to other denomination to rise to power hence loss of identity which leads to loss and suffering.

Development is taking place in town of Mogadishu therefore there is lack of identity to other areas and those Somalis living in exile feels that they are loosing out their identity.

Government policy suggested is foreign policy;

First, through this foreign policy helps other countries in the great lakes regions to intervene using different organizations to solve or manage a conflict.

For example, it was through this policy that Somalia today is experiencing at least 20% of peace due to intervention of other countries.

This has been done through constant discussions on how Somalia can overcome conflicts affecting it. It is through these discussions that same recommendations have been made. For example in 2002, it was resolved that tribalism and clanism should be done away. This was to help in dividing a political cake. The clan system was condemned because it had no end it was recommended to use regionalism, parties and civil society in encouraging competitive politics.

Under the foreign policy, members in the Great Lakes Region also recommend that members of the dictatorial regime like of Siad Barre, the captains of Fundamental Organization war loads with bad records should be

disqualified from running for the presidency. This was to help future leaders to draw a lesson if rise to power.

Decentralization policy;

Decentralization as a policy was to help Somalia people to utilize meager resources and corrupt leaders were to be sidelined hence encouraging vibrant leaders to emerge from the current ashes of anarchy in Somalia (Shinn 2000). Shinn, advocated for creating of federal states of Somalia like Punt land, Somali land, Banadir, Riverland, Jubaland as the creation of the above states would create inter-state competition in economic human and infrastructure development in order to lessen conflicts.

This policy would also help the president to rotate between the five states, the prime ministers and post of president should only be ceremonious as each federal state should have their own legislation, judiciary and elected prime ministers.

Another advantage is the capital city of Somalia should be placed in a place that is new and should not be claimed by any state as its own territory.

External aid debt incurred should be divided equally between the five states whereby the then president would be a signatory to the international bodies after consultation with the states. The period of office shall be a maximum of two for four year terms to avoid conflicts.

All the above recommendations were made in order to see that the Somali government comes up with policies that can help solve conflicts or manage them.

Under the foreign policy, it can help to solve conflict or manage them by inviting knowledgeable, skilled, ethical professionals equipped in carrying out non-official facilitation.

This can organize informal, non-directive workshops that bring members of conflicting parties together in face to face small group problem-solving discussions moderated or facilitated by informal panels of outside consultants to help participants (Somalia people) to understand and resolve their problem. This involves problem solving workshops, conflict analysis, dialogue facilitation, third party consultation, and truck two diplomacy. Decentralization policy can also help to generate insights and creative solution to the problem and lastly it helps participants (Somalia people) to

identify their own ability of solving conflicts on a small scale but to the larger political decision making process hence reducing conflicts.

DRC Congo and its revolutionary dynamics

Congo and the functional theoretical dynamics

The democratic republic of Congo is involved in the inter ethnic conflict among the Banyamulenge (Congolese Kinya-rwanda speaking people) and the allies

This ethnic conflict began way back about two decades ago in the eastern region of democratic republic of Congo. this conflict has called the involvement of over seven nations directly such as DRC Congo Republic of Rwanda, Burundi, Uganda, Chad, Namibia, Zimbabwe and more than three other foreign nations that are involved directly; these are United State of America, Belgium and France among others. This has affected more than three million people who have died and many others faced and are facing the consequences of this conflict directly or indirectly.

History of the conflict

The Banyamulenge consider them selves pure Congolese and thus are fighting for their rights to live in their mother land Congo. On the other hand, thinking of a long time solution to the problem, we must, of course, consider the current policy frameworks that can help to resolve the conflicts in DRC Congo. The common situation is one in which the physical capacity social policies can are not equitably structured and harmonized to be accessed by all Congolese people. This looks like a frequent situation, since it is obvious that some policies have disfranchised certain segments of the Congolese such as the Banyamulange.

But an unlikely situation, could, of course happen, so it becomes a question of fact whether it does or not. We can turn to functional reasons that I can give in a moment, theory for the answer but, before proceeding to policy recommendations or testing, we must set up a theoretical model of analysis that can be taken as a good first approximation of the actual perception of the Congolese perceptions. For reasons that I can give in a moment, discriminating policies, or any similarly aggregated one, provides such a first approximation. We must, therefore while retaining our concern for equitable social policies, wait until policy specification is available before we can implement.

Considering the second reason that makes classical policy implementation, we realize that the Banyamulenge, the Congolese government and the native of Congolese consider the Banyamulenge as “pure Rwandese among the Tutsi community” which is one of the two ethnic groups young in Rwanda. The Congolese government and other citizens are forcing them to leave Congolese territory as soon as possible to their mother land Rwanda (Shema Rutagengwa 2005).

Colonial policy and African boundary analysis

Even for a short term policy analysis, however, it is somewhat misleading to concentrate attention on contemporary ethnic conflict per se. The genesis of the problem started with the greed and corrupt nature of colonial land policy frameworks, which demarcated African boundaries without putting into consideration the traditional ethnic boundaries.

The Berlin conference 23rd February 1885 when the great countries sat without the participation of Africans and divided Africa into different nations caused the conflict. By allocation of new nation boundaries a big part of Rwanda became Congolese land. This had to make people formally Rwandese before the conference to become Congolese after the conference since all those people on that land were taken to Congo land. This has brought up the conflict among the people who were living on the territory belonging to the democratic republic of Congo and the people who were added to democratic republic of Congo after the Berlin conference.

In other words classical conflict is likely to increase with time when regional greed over resources, national identity and state exist. The force of this reason can not however, be evaluated except within a revolution formulation because the Banyamulenge Kinya-rwanda speaking Congolese were not given rights over the resources and were denied citizen ship. This brought a riot among the native Congolese and the Banyamulenge.

Under the power of Seseko Mobutu, the Banyamulenge were chased out of DRC Congo in 1995. They joined Laurent Kabila and defeated Mobutu in 1997 had passed a decree to send the Banyamulenge out of DRC. After defeating Mobutu the Banyamulenge came back into DRC and were given administrative posts in Lauret Kabila’s government. Clearly, the full upward flexibility in the policy was not a realistic hypothesis to make for modern

policy planning because it created a status quo of designing inequitable policies and conflicts in DRC Congo

The Banyamulenge conflict existence can also be explained in the functional theory;

Functional theory is one of the most influential theories in social policy. The theory builds society as a well organized system and the most members agree on common values norms, groups and their roles fit together in a unified whole,

Functional theory has two categories, the modern functionalism and the classical functionalism.

The modern functionalism has the following assertions;

The parts of the society are not well integrated as parts of the biological organisms.

It shows that there is some independency of functions in relation ship to parts of the society

Lack of independency of subsystems usually causes tension among the various parts.

As the result the harmony is inevitable among societies.

The Banyamulenge conflict in the eastern DRC can well fit in the modern functionalism for stance the Banyamulenge are not well interrelated with the native ethnic groups and have no independency from others for they are all on pressure every day. However the classical functionalism basic assertions do not much with the conflicts wholly. It has the following basic assertions;

The different parts of society work together in harmony which is referred to as functional differentiation or specialization.

All parts of the society are beneficial and with out supporting each other the society would be imbalanced.

When components of society interfere into other roles, it creates role conflict and that part is said to be dysfunctional. This means that often changes are introduced to correct particular imbalances.

The classical functionalism explains the Banyamulenge conflict revealing that other ethnic groups in DRC are working together to eliminate them. They are supporting each other and thus are strong and have enough force to put the Banyamulenge on tension. Other ethnic groups are minor but through supporting each other, they have been able to influence the majority ethnic group the Banyamulenge.

It further explains the involvement of the Banyamulenge into the government which has led to the conflict as the classical functionalism points it out that the conflict arises when components of the society interferes into other roles.

The functionalism theory believes that all parts of the society are an organized system and all members agree on common norms and values and groups of their roles. This cannot be applicable for not all members of the society can agree, some will disagree. A case in point is Laurent Kabila who was supported by the Banyamulenge to over throw Mobutu. He went and gave the Banyamulenge posts in his government which the naïve Congolese were fighting against.

However in recommendation to the evolution theory, most of the groups if organized can make discussions which are effective than when they are divided. For instance the chasing of the Banyamulenge in 1970 was because of the integration of deferent natives of DRC.

The identified conflict is the land conflict between the Hema (pastoralists) and the Lendu (agriculturalists) ethnic groups in the Ituri region of Northern DRC that lasted form 1999-2006. The ethnic tension between the Lendu and Hima trace back to colonial days. The Belgium favored the Hema resulting into education and wealth disparities between the two. The disgrace continued into modern times, despite this the two people have for the most part lived together peacefully, practicing extensive intermarriages.

The long starting grievances concerning land policy issues that erupted into conflicts on those previous occasions in 1972, 1983 and 1996.

Much of the animosity resolves and the 1973 land use of the law, which allows people to any land they do not inhabit. And this forced the residents to leave 2 years later when ownership can no longer be legally contested. Unscrupulous use of the law forced families to leave their homes. Some Hems were appropriately attempting to take land form the Lendu using this tactic in 1999.

The competition of land for agriculture and pastoralist purposes

The role of the local disputes over land is thus, the Hema pastorists of north Kivu encroached on the fertile lands of Ituri that was originally owned by the Lendu who are agriculturists.

The international competition for Congolese resources prolonged the land conflict mostly over the resources in the Ituri region. In order to provide a rigorous proof of higher probability of revolution than classical policies, the argument should of course, be embedded in a dynamic functional theory; but at this stage, it already offers a hint that the proposition should be true.

The decentralization policy

The definition of sectors is not enough to determine a model that can explain policy equilibrium. We also need to specify a number of social policies in other countries that have brought change. Epistemological perspectives, then has a large premium. With this in mind, we may admit that decentralization variables can help to characterize social change as illustrated by the Ugandan decentralization policy below.

The decentralization policy; an illustration of social policy definitions

Objective of decentralization policy

To serve the districts through the coordinated delivery of services which focus on national and local priorities in order to promote sustainable, social and economic development in the district.

When National Resistance Movement (NRM) assumed power and took over government in 1986, President Museveni told the nation that NRM government was not a mere change of guards but a fundamental change. Since then, he has pronounced a number of policy changes in form of Election Manifesto, which he wanted to be implemented by different sectors and government ministries.

In the 2001 Election Manifesto, the President pledged to consolidate Good Governance, peace and security and looked at decentralization as one of the vehicles, which can be used to achieve these goals. The Ministry of Local Government has since 1992 when decentralization was launched made a substantial contribution towards the fulfillment of the President's Manifesto particularly in the areas of good governance, service delivery and poverty eradication.

The Ministry's mandate is consistent with the president's manifesto which is "To guide, harmonize, mentor and advocate for all local Governments in support of the Movement Government's vision to bring about socio-economic transformation of the country."

The Ministry's major focus is to assist Local Governments to deliver the following outputs;

- Good governance
- Service delivery and
- Poverty Alleviation

Ministry of Local Government coordinates, mentors, guides and directs local governments so that they can bring about good governance. This is part of the Ministry's vision which is "to have effective, transparent and accountable Local Government capable of delivering efficient and sustainable services to the people, thereby bringing about socio-economic transformation and development in the country."

A large proportion of the work of the Ministry of Local Government is to implement the policy of decentralization, which is supposed to generate good governance, provide framework for reduction in poverty and bring about sustainable development.

The policy of decentralization has been implemented by the Ministry through;

- Transforming powers, functions, responsibilities and services to popularly elected local councils.
- Facilitation of the democratization process by promoting inclusive representation and gender sensitive decision-making in local councils.
- Allowing local councils to develop and operate their own budgets by raising local revenue and allocating expenditure on service delivery.
- Conducting periodical/regular local council elections
- Placing emphasis on transparency and accountability in the management of public affairs.

There is no country in the world, which does not have any level of decentralization. However, the policy is relative from one to another because of the form and extent of decentralization they have chosen to adopt. Uganda has opted for an elaborate form of decentralization. Many countries in Africa have embraced decentralization but are reluctant to implement this policy, unlike Uganda, which took a bold step into the implementation of the decentralization policy.

It is also worthy noting that Uganda received an award for its outstanding performance in carrying out decentralization reforms in Africa. This was

during the Afri-cities Summit that took place in Yaoundé Cameroon, Dec. 2003.

Democratization process through Good Governance

Council elections:

Decentralization policy is about sharing political power and resources between central government and local government. This was achieved with the gradual implementation of the policy as substantial powers have been transferred to LC's. To date, we have local councils, which are freely and democratically elected by Universal adult suffrage right from the village to the districts.

Local Council Courts:

Village and parish Councils are also entrusted with dispensing and administering justice. They also work as Local Council Courts. On average council handles two cases per week. We have 40,000 villages, therefore, over 80,000 cases and disputes are now resolved weekly. The local council's courts have promoted the rule of law because they handle cases expeditiously, fairly and cheaply.

Accountability:

Writing books fort accounts and producing final accounts to statutory audit is the first step towards accountability and transparency. The ministry has, therefore, worked hand in hand with the local governments to build their capacity to meet the requirements on accountability. Financial management in LCs has improved dramatically and many higher local governments are able to fulfill this statutory requirement with minimum difficulties. The challenge now is to ensure that the lower local governments also meet these requirements.

Service delivery in local Governments

PEAP is the principle economic policy program in this country. LCs delivering services to the population is in conformity with PEAP goal.

The basic services which LCs delivers to the population include:

- Construction and maintenance
- Access to safe water
- Construction of schools and classrooms
- Provision of Agricultural Extension Services

Construction and rehabilitation of health centers

Besides shs 804 billion is transferred to LCs every year as government's contribution towards the cost of service delivery to local Governments and these accounts for 30% of the National Budget.

A number of projects and programs have been established under the Ministry and are aimed at improving the quality of service delivery.

With the devolution of powers from the centre to the local governments, there has been registered lack of capacity both at political and technical levels to fully execute their mandates.

Poverty Eradication in Local Governments

The Ministry has developed a number of projects and programs intended to improve the quality and quantity of service delivery to the population by the local governments.

The programs designed by the Ministry of Local Government are in line with the PEAP goals.

The local Government Development Program II:

This is the biggest development project, which the Ministry of Local Government is currently executing. The program seeks to improve delivery of basic services, engender economic growth and reduce poverty in line with the policy of decentralization.

The overall objective of the program is "to improve Local Government institutional performance for sustainable, decentralized service delivery.

Source: Mwine (2007)

In Democratic Republic of Congo, the multiplicity of feasible situations within a spectrum was spanned by the dismissal of Janssen and other Belgian soldiers which made any kind of political analysis untraceable if we would not make it from a policy analysis point of view. Quite naturally, we are led to the people in local space to support Tshombe because they felt he could stand in and help fight for their rights.

Each sector in the decentralization policy can then be said to be in the functional theory depending on the social service delivery.

Education policy in Somalia

One area in which there appear to be a gap in both knowledge and policy relate to

Abudullahi, Barkadde report which revealed that the number of educated people by 2002 was still low and the government needs to embark on it to reduce illiteracy level and inequality.

Evidence on the extent of education in Somalia remain somewhat circumstantial but this has not stopped Abudullahi, Barkadde to conclude that Somalia is a country in the GLR which is regarded as a sorry state due to economic degradation, social, political affairs, health because as stated earlier, the diplomatic efforts between some IGAD members and Arab league is costly as both denies Sudan a chance to reconstitute themselves into viable states or even state.

Government policy that enhanced the Rwanda conflict to illustrate liberal theories of revolution:

The main point on which we must focus attention here is that the simultaneous occurrences of revolutions and their impact on social policy development was until recently not taken cognizance of as a possibility in social policy planning. However, reconsideration of revolution theory and reconstruction of its multiplier model within a more fundamental fixed policy formulation has shown that this simultaneous occurrence is at least a logical possibility as illustrated by the genesis of the Rwandan revolutions below.

European notions of racialism, as structured at the time of German and Belgian colonization, were the engine behind this tragedy. In the 1920s, Belgian ethnologists analyzed thousands of Rwandans on analogous racial criteria. In 1931, an ethnic identity was officially mandated and administrative documents systematically detailed each person's "ethnicity". Each Rwandan had an ethnic identity card. The Belgians considered the Tutsis to be the superior race and systematically imposed their authority over the Hutus across the colonial administration and the access to education, engendering great frustration among the other Rwandans. The way people nourished themselves explained a large part of the frequent differences but it was not a perfect system: The Tutsis, since they raised cattle, traditionally drank more milk than the Hutu, who were farmers.

Some observers have also seen an induced replica of the Belgian linguistic conflict in the Rwandan problem. It is undeniable that the Walloons, who were the majority in the beginning in Rwanda, and the Flemish continued their ideological fights and also tried to gain supremacy over one another on Rwandan soil. In the 1950s and 60s, the back and forth of Belgian support

for the Tutsis over the support for the Hutus was articulated at the same time over Tutsis demands for political independence, like everywhere in Africa, and over the development of the presence of Flemish people in Rwanda who would see in the Hutu a people who were repressed.

Discussion of the Government policy that can resolve/manage the Rwanda conflict:

The government policy that can resolve/manage the Rwanda genocide is “The National Unity and Reconciliation Policy” under the National Unity and Reconciliation Commission (URC), which was established by the Parliamentary Law in 1999 to play an important role in building national unity. The Commission’s role in the process of creating a Rwanda for everybody is to create a well-functioning education system, to fight poverty and to develop a common identity without differences. “Rwanda has learnt its lesson. From now on everybody is a Rwandan, nothing more, nothing less”, says Patrick Mazihmaka, President Paul Kagame’s personal adviser. In order to create unity, a new set of symbols has been made; an example is the new flag, the new national anthem and the annual "Heroes Day" which sheds light on the national heroes.

Notably, all students attending the University of Butare must attend a six week course on reconciliation before starting their studies. Other policies include the following.

Guaranteeing the Independence and the Separation of the Executive, Legislative, and Judiciary Powers:

It may not be worthy, however, but of secondary importance for our present discussion that, no precise model of policy planning was offered by revolution theory as if static analyses which I presented earlier of a situation of generalized political policies are really imperative as illustrated in the Rwandan position below.

A semi-presidential regime with a Prime Minister is the most appropriate to the need for good governance of the country. The President should be elected under universal suffrage and shall be accountable to the people. He will have power to dissolve the parliament and call for new elections; under some conditions, the parliament shall be empowered to depose the president.

Candidacy for the president of the Republic should be presented by his political party.

Independent candidates could also be enlisted. The people should exercise power through its representatives in the Parliament. That is why the legislative power must be able to control the executive power. The executive branch is mandated to manage state power on a daily basis. Indeed, the Prime Minister should submit his government's action plan to the parliament for approval. The parliament shall, at any time, call upon a member of the Government and ask him to account to the people for his actions. The parliament shall be made up of representatives of the People.

The president of the first Chamber shall be elected by the members of parliament. In order to guarantee the independence of the judiciary, a High Council of the Judiciary shall be instituted with the aim of ensuring a sound management of the legal system; a Constitutional court shall also be instituted to ensure the constitutionality of laws, especially with respect to basic human rights.

Mutual Guarantees between different ethnic and Regional Groups:

Problems arising from regionalism and ethnocentrism are felt not only at the level of governance, but also in the appropriation of the following centers and levers of power:

1. The presidency of the Republic and/or the office of Prime minister, territorial administration as centers of everyday management of power.
2. The army and the security services, economy and finance, diplomacy as levers of power.
3. National education as a springboard for gaining power and controlling the economy.

To avoid the concentration of power in hands of one individual, one ethnic or regional group, it shall be made sure that those areas remain under the permanent control of the people. During the transition period, before the democratic process is firmly established so that people can be elected solely on the basis of their political parties programs and their competence, temporary measures aimed at reassuring and providing security to all regions and ethnic groups shall be negotiated between protagonists. To prevent any derailments, the parliament on behalf of the people, shall institutionalize interpellations of ministers.

With regard to ethnic representation, other centers of interest and cause for internal strife, negotiations aimed at establishing an administration

empowered to reassure and provide security to every citizen will be held between representatives of the ethnic groups. The Arusha Agreement, which the RPF negotiated with a veiled intention of ensuring security to the Tutsi ethnic group that dominates the Front, shall be used as reference for those negotiations.

Economic and social development by and for the People:

Human beings must be the focus of all development programs. Economic and social progress must exist for all. According to recent studies, 80 % of Rwandan population lives below the threshold of poverty. For conscientious politicians, this situation cannot continue. As more than 95 % of Rwandan population are farmers, in order to put the country back on the development track, the purchasing power of this mass of consumers must absolutely be increased with the view of developing the secondary sector (small and medium enterprises) and the tertiary sector (services).

To prevent the struggle for controlling access to limited resources from degenerating into social turmoil and conflicts, a political and economic system enabling the rise and the rapid development of a wide economic private sector and of strong and full-blown civil society should be set up. For this purpose, all important economic activities must be left under the responsibility of the private sector; the state should intervene only when major investments are required and for major social programs.

Education and basic health care are the two other priorities on which the government should focus its policy. The government should pledge to use all means possible to negotiate a Micro-Marshall Plan with foreign countries, friends of Rwanda, aimed at shouldering basic social security contributions needed for providing basic health services to the population and thus help them overcome various traumas experienced by the Rwandan people; the plan would also facilitate access to education, give a boost to farmers, during the phase of installing and consolidating revenue generating programs.

Basic primary and secondary education, regional economic and social development and basic health care should be under the responsibility of local administration. University and post-university education should be managed at the national level and should be under the close supervision of the people's representatives in accordance with mechanisms to be determined by the parliament.

In a nut shell, the Rwandan genocide stands alone for the way its organizers aimed to mobilize mass participation in murder. Far from hiding their objective, they advertised their goal of exterminating the Tutsi citizens of Rwanda in song and chant, through the press and over the radio. They exhorted Hutu to join the killing campaign, insisting that it “concerned everyone.” They carried out the worst massacres in broad daylight and in many communities they left the dead in full view. This is clearly expounded using the conflict theories and conflict analysis tools.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

Elitism theory: a negative of Marxism

Elites refer to individuals or groups of people who influence the government so that policies are made accordingly to their interests. The term elite in its most general sense refers to those positions in society which are the summits of key social structure, these maybe the higher positions in government economy, politics religion and in civil services According to Pareto the concept, elite implies superiority. He goes on to say that elites are the people who have the higher induces (opportunity) on their branch of activities.

Opportunity that can empower people in their conventional human vocations Elites are the people with high indices (opportunity) in society such as education and wealth.

Education

Wealth: Access to factors of production such as land, capital, labor

However the term elite are a relative one. It is relative to the community and high status and sense of group are themselves relative attributes. While in a general with Pareto, Parry and Gaetano in Hara Das (1992) defines elites as a small minority who appear to play exceptionally influential part in political issues and determine the social policy direction. He goes on to say that elites are people in society who possess a marked degree in qualities of intelligent character, skill and have capacity to cultivate original thought on particular issues.

For example: In the perspective of education some one who stopped in senior two is elite in some society. This underpins the concept of elite being relative. In some societies, people will not elect a leader with just a certificate and leave one with a degree. In university community, students are not elites. The professors, PHD holders are the one regarded as elites. In terms of wealth, a person who owns more land (factors of production) is also elite as compared to those with less land.

Characteristics of elites

Elites know one another

While making decisions they take one another into confidence despite the fact that they may or may not be knit together by strong group feelings, ethics or style.

The members are always in position that makes decisions which have major consequences on social or political life.

Defined parameters that are required for an individual to be elected in the policy making arena such as M P of the Uganda Parliament.

“A” level certificate in education bracket

Must be a citizen

Must be a registered voter

The reason why MPs are required to have a minimum qualification of ‘A’ level is because of the element of language and cognitive thinking.

The liberation policy has contributed a lot to the manufacturing of people in the policy making arena.

The elitist thinking is a negotiation of the Marxian position. The elite theorists were staunch opponents of socialism, particularly Marxian socialism. The elitist theorists reviewed by Hara Das (1992) such as Vilfredo Pareto, Max Weber, Robert Michels. J.A Schumpeter, Raymond Aron, Robert A Dahl and Gaetano Mosca developed theories which primarily aimed at refuting Marx’s theory of social classes. In the Marxist theory the concept of ruling class is highlighted and class struggle is perceived as a dynamic element causing fundamental changes in social structure and determining social policies. The elitist theories were critical about the theory of social classes as propagandized by Marx on two vital points. Firstly, they viewed that the Marxist conception of ruling classes is erroneous and demonstrated the continue circulation of elites, which industrial societies. Secondly they outlined that a minority, which actually rules. Thus the elitist theories oppose Marxism in a more general manner by substituting for the doctrine of a class which rules on account of its ownership of land or capital (Hara Das and Choudryn 1992).

Power elite in Rwanda

Minority taking majority decisions

The elite theories can be grouped into two broad categories namely the aristocratic and radial theories. The former school maintains that all societies have small groups of people whom rule over the vast majority. Without elites a society cannot be organized and no effective co-operation is possible. The elite theory assumes that individuals have an inborn desire for power and once in power they would do anything to remain in power. The elites have the means to do so since they control the social, material and political resources because of their command positions in the various institutions of the society. They use various devices to manipulate the mass

support. The manipulative powers of the elites have increased in recent times because of the greater concentration of power in the social institutions. Some argue that elites are both inevitable and necessary. Elitists believe that power structure of any society is determined by the character and the abilities of its political leadership. The core which takes the majority of decisions in the society and these decisions are of wider significance.

Wright Mills in Hara Das (1992) propounded the theory of the elite in his work – “The Power Elite” published in 1956 to explain the nature and dynamics of the American political system in the contemporary world.

Wright Mills as viewing elitism comments as follows:

This theory combines the features of the elitist theories advocated by European thinkers such as Mosca and Pareto with some aspects of Marxist theory of the ruling class in some sort of an uneasy compromise. It rejects the pluralistic or democratic elitist interpretation of the American policy given by liberal scholars such as Robert A. Dahl. Mosca and Pareto were of the opinion that elastic rule exists in all societies. They also viewed that political elite has to be clearly distinguished from economic and other elites. Wright Mills went on to say that the role of a power elite is a peculiar characteristic of developed society

Rwanda politics an illustration of elitism theory

Statistical data on elitism in Rwandan politics do exist. Its changes through space and time can be described with accuracy that is certainly not perfect but what compares with that achieved for many other subjects of behavior sciences. What is so described in this volume is not the fundamental behavior but rather its results while it affects the designing of favorable social policies.

Tutsis harbored feelings of superiority, a complex which was cultivated by John Speke’s thesis which was without evidence that the Tutsi migrated from Egypt, concluding that with their chiseled features; they are superior to the Hutu with stout physical features. The feeling of loss and suffering was on the side of the Hutus under the Tutsi king (Mwaami), where they lost their land to the Tutsis, denied the right to education, forced into hard labor which compromised their dignity.

When the Hutus came into power, (1959), they diverted the same painful situations towards the Tutsis. In 1973, after Habyarimana’s coup that ousted President Gregoire Kayibada, the Tutsis were denied secondary and advanced education, they were sidelined in the political affairs of Rwanda,

excluded from the army and public services and many of the Tutsi flee the country and started living in the Diaspora (Uganda and Burundi) as refugees. By 1990, over 20,000 Tutsis were raped and killed and this undermined the identity of the Tutsis and prompted them to plan to infiltrate and invade the country as a way to return home, and eventually culminating into the genocide.

The polarization or divisions that were experienced in Rwanda between the Tutsis and the Hutu were normally as a result of their looks and physical traits. This created a class of the governor and the governed, the Tutsis and Hutus respectively. Divisions arising out of mistrusts and hostility were further as a result of ethnocentric tendencies (belief that one's culture/tribe is superior to the other), injustices and inequalities, power struggle and clashes over land hence causing the genocide.

During the Tutsi reign, (before 1957), the Hutus were denied the rights to education; security and citizenship subdued by the Tutsis i.e. the chiefdoms were taken over with the help of the colonial masters, depriving them of their rights. This violation of human rights, including the basic rights inspired them to raise up against the Tutsi hence attaining power in 1959. Then in turn revenged to the Tutsis for the atrocities committed. This frustrated the Tutsis and forced them to plan, train their armies and prepare to agitate for their rights. This culminated into the genocide.

The existing social, economic and political structures in Rwanda fueled the genocide. One finds that during the pre-colonial times the people (Hutu and Tutsis) lived happily. The coming of the colonialist (Germans & Belgians) the Tutsis were favored and therefore oppression and exploitation was against the Hutus like said earlier on, they lost land, dominated over in all aspects, submitted to force labor and others. In 1957, the Belgians changed their loyalty from the Tutsis to the Hutus and thus the oppression and exploitation was directed towards the Tutsis. Such changing and altering of power from one ethnic group to another (Tutsis to Hutus) left the then dominated group marginalized and this posed to them injustices and inequality hence causing violent ethnic conflicts.

CHAPTER TWELVE

Functional Theory and Social Policies

The analogy that is used to illustrate functionalism theory is the human body. However, this analogy is highly idealized. This theory suggests that society performs essential function which are pre-requisites that without them, society like an organism can not perform or service. The function pre-requisites are performed by the major institutions or by sub parts of society. These may include the following

1. The system of economic organization that ensured production of goods and services.
2. Political organizations that sets the goals and priorities on which policy frameworks are designed.
3. The legal system that regulates conflicts and creates stability.

Functionalism has two strata: modern and classical functionalism.

Modern functionalism

Modern functionalism has three basic assertions.

1. The parts of society are not well integrated as parts of the biological organisms. There is some independence of functions in relationship to parts of the society.
2. The independence of the sub system usually causes tension among the various parts.
3. As a result of the above, disharmony is inevitable among societies.

The above assertions lead to the following conceptualization.

1. Inequality is a device by which society ascertains that the most important positions in societies are taken by the most qualified. Therefore, there are usually offered better rewards, compared to inferior jobs in a society.

2. Inequality is inevitable as all positions in society can never be equal in importance and all people can never be equally qualified for the most important positions.

This arrangement is beneficial to every one and creates harmony in societies. For example;

- 1 Institution like education.
- 2 Remuneration Policy: Certificate holder can never be paid the same salary scale with the degree holder.
- 3 Taxation policy: The rich are taxed higher so that the poor can access basic needs such as medical, food, infrastructure, education, safe water, etc.
- 4 Norms and values: PAYE, graduated tax, pension, NSSF.

Classical functionalism

This is the traditional /oldest type of functionalism. It has 3 basic assertions.

1. It asserts that the different parts of the society work together in harmony usually referred to as functional differentiation and specialization.
2. All parts of society systems are beneficial and without supporting each other the society would be unbalanced. This is referred to as functional equivalence.
3. When components of society interferes a particular society that part is said to be dysfunctional.

Structural adjustment programmes (SAPs). Those are policies designed by World Bank to correct particular imbalances. Decentralization policy was enacted to arrest imbalances in delivery of services. However, it brought /created tribalism (technical know who to get a job). In SAPs retrenchment was carried out to reduce the imbalances in employment. At one point in time, the state used to get jobs for people who had completed their studies and paid them heavily. The World Bank enacted a policy to reduce on government expenditure which resulted into massive retrenchment of people.

According to functionalism theory, all social systems have a tendency towards equilibrium that is maintenance of a steady state or particular balance in which the parts of system remain in the same relationship to one another. The theory asserts that systems have a tendency to resist a social change as change is regarded as disruptive. However, the conceptualization of integrated components can contribute to the enactment of holistic policies e.g. organizational policies of MFI implementing a development program it recruits accountants, social workers, sociologists, lawyers, etc to carry out different tasks in policy making process. The social workers will come in to advise the organization, bringing in the values of social work such as dignity, self actualization, self determination, etc. The sociologists may argue the organization using society and culture knowledge. Lawyers would help in making agreements with clients. So functionalism theory brings different functions. For one institution to make a policy it has to consider other institutions.

Implications of functional theory to welfare provisions

1. The functional theory identifies itself with the ruling powers and neutral concepts like integration, stability and social control. They serve to conceive the power of class relations and inequality that is involved in various forms of social policies. The dominant classes usually see no need for change and these un critical views creates a situation where the policies that are designed are aimed at keeping the disadvantaged in their humble positions.
2. The major role of professionals. For example, Social Workers are perceived as that of maintaining stability in society. This is due to the recognition of the attribute of authority in regard to a profession.
3. Functional theory advocates for remedial services or peace maker (sub system) services as opposed to institutionalism. Social workers therefore, when working with a functional theory tend to be target oriented with categorized strategies to development work or any situation that requires change in all the perspectives of social work.
4. Welfare services interpreted from social policies that are based on functional theory are always beneficial to the society if they operate to guarantee the existence of different parts of society, that is to say, academic parts such as social workers, engineers, lawyers etc. The maintenance and balance of social systems and the restoration of the equilibrium if there are imbalances

The analogy of parliament where policies are made – all people who are the consumers of the policy should be represented, for example, the women, disabled, youth etc. For policies to be favorable to consumers all people should be involved in enacting a certain policy e.g. policies concerning women should be enacted when women themselves are involved. It should not be done by men/male only. In parliament, there are some committees formed to deal with enactment of social policies, for example, social welfare, social services, development etc. However those policies have to be analyzed by professionals.

Peace null in enacting with authorities peace meal is where different professionals combine a body of knowledge to enact policies. For example, experts in development studies, social workers, gender, lawyers etc.

The Equal Opportunities Commission in the parliament is a commission created to oversee equality among people when distributing resources.

Committees in parliament are examples of sub systems that are observed by functional theory.

Kenya education policy an illustration of the functional theory

The long- term objectives of the government is to provide every Kenya with basic quality education and training, including 2 years of pre-primary, 8 years of primary and 4years of secondary/ technical education. Education also aims at enhancing the ability of Kenyans to preserve and utilize the environment for productive gain and sustainable livelihoods.

Political process;

Since independence, the government has addressed the challenges facing the education sector through commissions, committees and task forces. The commission proposed an education system that would foster national unity and creation of sufficient human capital for national development.

Battle of competing truth;

The conceptual frame work of the policy- making paradigm. Education being a source of investment to people it liberates people's minds at the same time it helps to change their attitudes whereby most people with education in Kenya is estimated at 10%of the total population which is 750,000. About 25% of these are children.

Welfare policy

Many countries in Africa have focused attention on increasing resources to the education sector in a bid to achieve the universal primary education by 200 goals which seems to be unattainable countries like Kenya are now faced with that problem with trade- off between enhancing the efficiency of education sector and increasing primary, secondary and tertiary institutions. As poverty increases and the level of investment in education declines policy makers and planners who look for innovative and viable strategies for improving the operation of the education system and making education promoted to national development.

The administrative policy

The ministry of education stipulates that the implementation of the 8-4-4 primary school curriculum requires that the average teacher to pupil contract hours per a week be 28 hours for standards 4-8 and 20 hours comprising to

40 periods standards 1 to 3. The meeting of this requirement indicates how efficient how the curriculum is being implemented and implies how cost effective teachers' salaries are.

Executive policy

In Kenya the minister of education and sports is responsible to parliaments that is forwarding the problems found in schools and also suggest ideas of how to improve on the education of Kenya since most of them are illiterate and also supply equal resources to schools and colleges.

The perspectives and ideologies

A cross – analysis of studies on efficiency indicate that emphasis has been on the manipulation and the operation of inputs and out puts whose price are easy to determine. The structural process learning time management, school management, class management and teacher pupil relationship. For which prices are difficult to determine have not been given much attention. Thus existing surveys have been unable to capture and map out learning times lapse and class room management and how they affect learning. There is doubt that the use of time in school, class management and school head managerial behavior has a direct impact on school efficiency because they affect hoe pupils learn and perform in the examination. There is need to interrogate the conventional efficiency analysis with the examination of the times

In Kenya the perception of inefficiency in education through the examination index has had structural and financial impact on schools, teachers, pupils and parents. As a result school management committee have to device ways of making sure that the right candidate are registered for the KCPE. This has led to introduction of extra tuition, coaching for which further fees are charged. Pupils have been forced to repeat classes or leave a particular school, at the same time pupils are generally over worked academically, and have little time for play. Parents are forced to bear heavy burdens, pay coaching, buying books and meeting cost of transport.

Indeed, there are reasons to believe that a better measure of the negative multiplier effects of education can often be found if one considers what has been called "the over loaded 8-4-4 curriculum" as one of the factors which affects pupils' participation in other attitude development programmes. The ratio of the pressure on which primary pupils in primary schools work is very rigorous and indeed I will later conclude that this variation prevents a

high universalization with other education systems in wider East African integration. It is conceivable, however, that better measures of performance might exist because pupils are taught 13 subjects nine of which are examined at the end of standard 8 stay in school from 7am to 5 or 6pm and have a short holiday has great negative multiplier effects on the performance of the children. These burdens reduce children's' playing time, and affect their motivation of learning.

History

We should moreover, note that the education policy in Kenya as recorded in the statistics does not necessarily provide the best measure of historical injustice. The best measure of the above thesis is the common phenomenon of strikes in schools which are due to poor feeding, very tight rules and regulations and absence of moral and career guidance

Geography

In sight of patterns of the distribution and take up of services, for example helps us to get an insight in the geographical features and ecological zones, Kenya has an approximate 582646 square kilometers comprising of 97.8% land, population and human settlement patterns estimated 30.4 million with an annual growth rate of 2.9% thus population distribution.

Politics and policy planning in Kenya

Where exactly we should draw the line between politics and policy planning can, then, only be decided by convention which helps us to investigate social policy aims and examine the political impact of social societies. We can understand through politics that decisions are made by public officials such as legislature, president and administrators.

For example the education rights of the vulnerable individuals have not been worked up on since they are voiceless and the government and the parliament appointed by the president are less concerned about them and they take them to be forgotten people since they are not highly qualified.

Principles of social policy in the education policy of Kenya

Horizontal equity

Poverty increases and the level of investment in education declines, policy makers and planners are looking for innovative and viable strategies for improving the operation of the education system and making education promote national development. How available resources can be used more efficiently in a bid to make education achieve its goals. As debates

constituents of efficiency in education continues our knowledge about this concept has to go beyond examination results and include rates of repetition drop –out. The debates take many forms for the sake of clarifying them in three categories.

The local level comprises of the position of the ministry of education in Kenya and the perception of practicing teachers.

The ideal view comprising our own perception on what efficiency in education should entail.

Our knowledge about what education school efficiency entails is limited. Very little is known about the efficiency with various school raise pupils learning and achievement. But as the official budget any allocation to education shrinks. Inefficiency is a problem that needs to be understood and solved.

Vertical equity is seen as follows;

The donor community also tends to equate quality with efficiency. In this regard World Bank basically studies and usually focuses on pupil's academics or cognitive achievements. The studies have identified the factors which do and which do not raise pupil's achievements. Although little information is available on how these input promote efficiency and ultimately raise pupils achievements World Bank review documents (1996) raise two important issues relative to debates or efficiency in education and mis-allocation of resources.

Structural functionalism

Functionalism as an approach is very old. It dates back to the days of Aristotle. He provides references in this regard in this Government. It was, Montesquieu who gave it a proper shape by propounding his theory of separation of Powers. The old theory of functional analysis of the structures of government was based upon the theory of separation of government into three organs. But in modern times various new factors such as women emancipation, massed based political parties and changes in communication media have brought into play a number of new functions. In its modern form, the stress on functionalism is derived from anthropological and sociological theories. The chief theorists like Malinowski and Radchieff Brown and sociologists like Talcott Parsons, Robert K. Merton and Marion Levy. These authors differ substantially in their concepts of system and function. But they have all emphasized that the ability to explain and predict in the social Sciences is enhanced when we think of social structures and institutions as performing functions in systems

Structural functional concepts and their implications

The basic principal of this theory is that every system has some structures which perform some functions which are necessary for the survival of the system, itself. This approach revolves around certain concepts mainly structures and functions. The meaning of these concepts must be understood before trying to analyze the structural functional approach.

Structures

The term structure can be defined as a pattern or a paradigm which may entail an observable uniformity in terms of which action. Another instances of structural functionalism between short run and long run objectives is reported by (Almond and Powell in Hara Das 1995).The two independently believe that by structures are the observable activities which make up the political system.

Almond here again refers to the structure as consisting of the following elements;

- 1 The objectives of economic base
- 2 Attitudinal and cultural patterns which are prevalent in members of the polity
- 3 Structure is composed of roles which refer to the arrangements within the system which performs the functions. When considering the dynamics of structural development in the Rwandan and Angolan polities, it is easy to accept Almond's thesis. I believe that the conceptualization presented by Gounden and Solomon (2006) poses a general consideration, notably for the areas in an extension of favorable policies are still possible.

Different committees in policy making arena and democratic space such as the parliament of Uganda:

- a) Agricultural committee
- b) Social services committee
- c) Finance service committee
- d) Defense services committee
- e) Disciplinary committee
- f) Natural resources committee

CHAPTER THIRTEEN

Training policy in Uganda Uganda public service training policy

The following discourse is an analysis of the Uganda public service training policy 2006 as a reflection of the time, A political process and a battle of competing truths.

A reflection of the times

The Uganda public service training policy like any other policy is a reflection of various time/ periods within its ranks. A close analysis reveals that the policy reflects both the past and contemporary public service training concerns in the country as examined here below.

The training functions before the current government.

In its public service reform programme [PSRP] that was embarked on in 1991 was preceded by the public service review and Re-organization commission [PSRRC] from 1989 to 1990 to identify, weakness in the public service which is a reflection of past time in Uganda.

Concern with training function rights

Concern of the public training policy with the manner in which the training function rights are held and managed is also a reflection of the time.

The salient anomalies identified in management of the training function

- . Lack of planning and professionalism.
- . Lack of career training milestones for every cadre.
- . Discrimination in availing training opportunities to public officials, all indicates a reflection of the past time.

Uganda, now with the increasing population and putting in place the rights for its people, this policy addresses concerns such as putting in place organized, transparent, fair cost effective and realistic systems and

procedures in the management of training in the service, a reflection of the current time.

Training function being at the centre of eradicating weaknesses in the public service

The public service training policy addresses institutional competency and individual career development needs in line with equity and quality principles. The policy argues that there must.

- Put in place a strategy for keeping government officials a breast with up to date professional knowledge, skills and attitudinal orientation for best performance.
- Establish a frame work for institutional arrangements, procedures and practices that will ensure a systematic approach to training in the public service.
- Ensure fairness in the management and administration of training opportunity.

The above concerns of the public service training policy are typically reflection of the contemporary social –economic status in Uganda there by the policy being, reflection of the current times.

Need for reform of the training function

The public service training policy also stipulates out the need to reform either the current training function in order to correct historical mistakes or to suit the reality of the current day challenges as well as social –economic status.

A political process

A post mortem of Uganda public service training policy reveals several characteristics that point it out as a political process

Political background of the policy

According to the Uganda public service training policy, the genesis of the poor socio-economic status is traced from the British colonial days through the late president of republic of Uganda “Idi Amin” time/ days where the British and the past president assumed presumptive authority over Uganda and the people of Uganda, later they gave some people authority without

training them in those respective authority places, portraying the policy as a political process

Political patronage

As noted above policies are social welfare undertakings on the behalf of the society to streamline how best to improve on its welfare. Uganda with its problem of public service training and the mismanagement of training function as well as extensive reforms to be taken to achieve improved social–economic status. It’s government that is mandated to institute policies on the behalf of their nationals and as such, it was the government of the republic of Uganda through the ministry of public service that spear headed the policy making process there by portraying the policy making process as a political process.

Application of the policy:

This policy was implemented to be applied to all public officials (including political appointees) in central government ministries, departments, local government and constitutional bodies, who subsequently will be referred to as “ government officials” in this policy hence portrays the policy as a political process. All ministries, department, local government and government agencies will have responsibilities for training and developing their staff which also portrays a political process.

State and local authorities control:

In its policy statements, the public service training policy exhibits the state and the local authorities as key in playing vital roles in the implementation and regulation of training function and protection of social–economic status. This indicates that it’s almost impossible to implement regulations without the state and the local authorities as key players therefore portrays a public service training policy making process as a political process.

A battle of competing truths;

A further post mortem of the public service training policy reveals areas of close contradiction in either the way it presents a cause of certain scenarios in the training function question or in it’s remedies to the training question which presents it as a battle of competing truth as shown below;

Conflict over training opportunities

The policy echoes the constitution of the training by agreeing that there shall be no discrimination in award of training opportunities, at the same time it discriminates the availing training opportunities to public officials i.e. training is provided to isolated individuals and does not change procedures and practices back at the work place.

This presents the policy as a battle of competing truths.

The policy also argues that all cadres to have career development training milestone, at the same time it says that a few cadres to have career development training milestones which portrays a battle of competing truths.

Double standards of training opportunities:

The policy argues that training is to be provided in a planned manner at the same time it says that training provision is on an ad hoc basis. This presents a policy as a battle of competing truths.

Ideal perspective for the public service training policy making process in Uganda

This is the fact that training functions is for all civil servants and the perspective which can be ideal in this policy making process is the social policy as a process because it identified the problem as the mismanagement of the training function which was confirmed by various studies commissioned by the government. Due to the mismanagement of the training function the policy was proposed by the ministry of public service that if adhered to this policy will promote effective utilization of resources spent on training. Specifically the ministry will undertake the following;

- . reviewing formulating and overseeing the implementation of the training policy
- . Translating training decisions made by relevant authorities into reality by issuing necessary guidelines to the service.
- . Providing technical guidance to central and local government on training issues.
- . Planning, organizing, monitoring and evaluating corporate training programmes including management and leadership development.

The above perspective suits the public service training policy making process due to the great importance that is attached to the training for instance this training policy provides a practical framework within which all government officials will acquire the necessary competences to perform their duties with

creativity, effectiveness, efficiency and due diligence in accordance with government's commitments to improve service delivered to its populace.

Uganda adopted the public service training policy in the whole policy making process as follows;

Uganda did not differ from the known policy making procedures in its adoption and formulation of its public service training policy. Uganda adopted the following policy formulation processes;

Identification of the weaknesses in the public service; an extensive research was conducted, the public service review and commission (PSRRC) from 1989 – 1990, to identify weaknesses in the public service. It was found that one of the key things was the training function was being mismanaged

Policy proposal; a proposal to enact a comprehensive public service training policy as a one –stop reference for all civil servants training in the country was made.

Policy formulation; formulation of the policy was done by each ministry/ department/ Local government to its training plans within this policy framework to cater for its peculiar and unique circumstances.

Policy implementation; implantation of the training policy shall be done by a training committee in every ministry, department and local government to approve training proposal and the respective training programmes

Policy evaluation; Evaluation and planning of how the training will and is taking place shall be done by the ministry.

Social policy principles which were used in designing the public service training policy especially the value principle of social equality

Social policy principles are general rules or laws, concepts of fundamental truths that are generally accepted tenets.

They are the means through which disciplines move from one place to another to create impetus for little knowledge.

Local Proverb illustrating the effort of policy development

Ukitaka cha mvunguni sharti uiname

Whoever wants which is under the bed, must to bend to get it.

This shows that if the government wants to transform the public service into a learning organization, it is a must for it to support training and development of government officials

CHAPTER FOURTEEN

Poverty reduction policy in Uganda

The World Bank (1999) defined poverty as the lack of enough income and resources to live adequately by the community standards.

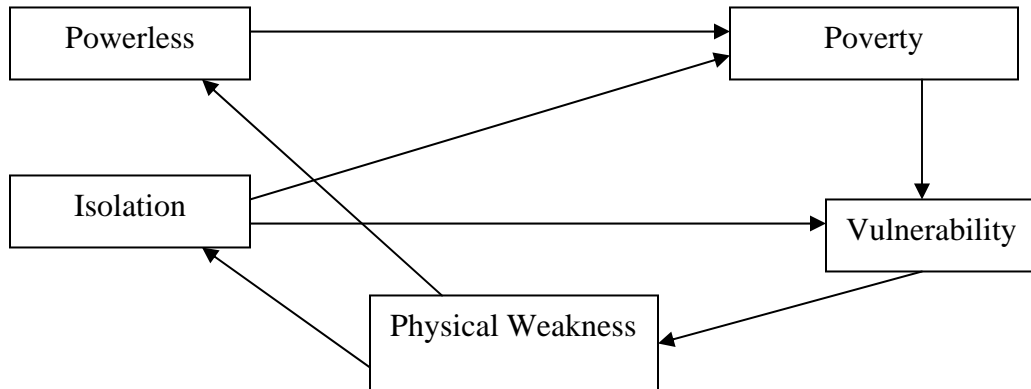
Poverty can also be understood as when people do not have the same extent of choice or control over their own lives as other members of the society for example the rich have a greater reliance on the public utilities and services while the rest of the community members especially the poor are less able to afford to buy for example food, medication, security, through hiring the guards, educating the young ones and even the goods within their purchasing range are of inferior quality and not effective and may need to be replaced sooner than more expensive items consumed by the rich.

There are two types of poverty which include Absolute poverty which is a type of poverty when a person can not afford the basic necessities of life such as food, clothes, housing as illustrated in the picture below and relative poverty which is a kind of poverty which is the overall standard of living that prevails in a particular society. In the relative category of poverty, a person can afford the basic necessities of life but compared to other standard of living he or she finds him / her poor.

Despite various researches have presented a reduction in poverty levels in Uganda, however, poverty levels documented in the above picture is worthy mentioning. Through longitudinal cohort study in rural districts, there is some evidence in Uganda of the association poverty and ill healthy as illustrated by pictures of malnutrition in this chapter. One more recent study suggests that people have continued to live in absolute poverty although at a lower rate. Thus an attempt to trace families living in absolute poverty especially those who lack of adequate housing in rural areas revealed 60% from four cohorts of whom 20% are child headed households and 70% are female headed households.

Robert Chambers identified poverty in the vicious cycle where one cause leads to the other and thus trapping the poor into poverty which he illustrated in deprivation trap as shown below:

Figure 7



Source: Mwine 2007

Social scientist, who have looked rather closely at the interrelation ship of different variables in the above figure, have found that the interrelationship or the ratio between poverty and other various factors are almost always the best regressors to use when planning social policies.

The above illustration implies that factors leading to poverty are inter locked and thus require inter grated multi-sectoral and multi disciplinary approaches to induce community in the community space.

Poverty reduction means lowering or reducing the level of poverty which may be through education, investments, acquiring employment, having access to the means of production and other opportunities to lower poverty.

Agricultural, countries like Nigeria, Tanzania, German India are involved in agricultural activities to reduce poverty level for example coco growing in Nigeria which gives people many products as cocoa lotion, cocoa batter which some people sell and increase their house hold income as illustrated in the picture below.

The Ontological position in poverty reduction policy

Many people have access to clean and safe water which has helped to reduce many diseases caused by unsafe water usage such as dysentery, Bilharzias, cholera, and diarrhea through provision of water guard, water guard pills, boreholes and taps by the

Uganda borrowed the issues of education from countries like Britain and America, as a means to deal with poverty since countries and states which consider education as a high value are well off.

There are also countries which are known as being modernized and developed for example Japan and it is involved in such activities as industrialization to improve the level of the country's standards which Uganda also got the same solution and started up to develop industries such as textile industry, Mukwano industry which produces goods like cooking oil, soap, jelly sold to individuals at a cheaper price to improve on their health status.

Involving women, the government has proposed main screaming into development planning which has improved the status of woman for example the government has proposed reforms in the country's property laws including those considered gender neutral to ensure equality and equity in ownership and control of land.

China was the first to initiate Universal Primary Education as a means of poverty reduction by the government of China and the country succeeded. Therefore, Uganda also got the idea of Universal Primary Education from China to reduce poverty since when people are educated they have high access to job opportunities, be able to earn a living to meet their basic needs hence wealth creation and poverty reduction.

Medication, the government has built hospitals and health centers at least in every sub-county in Uganda which has given most people access to medication.

Welfare indicators, show that the living conditions of Uganda have consistently improved since 1999 according to the measures every income quintile, in both the rural and urban areas, non income indicators have shown large improvements in well being for example access to education, health care, safe water and roads increased in all quintiles. How ever already

the brief illustration of the picture 1, 3 and 4 suggests that mass poverty is in disequilibrium due to social policies which are likely to effect change only slowly. The pictures reveal in harsh realities that in rural areas, people are still living in absolute poverty especially in the area of adequate housing.

Sensitization of women, are now able to approach the helping organization such as FIDA, courts of law in case of any denial of their rights because some men tend to oppress their ideas even when they are developmental to reduce poverty.

Equality operates on the maxim that all people should be treated equally and all people should be brought at the same level for example Universal Primary Education was initiated in 1997 to give opportunity of education to the poor who could not afford to educate their children such that they come to the same level with the rich.

This principle aims at finding ways of ensuring that people enjoy the same results or outcomes in life for example same income, same life span, and similar levels of education. According to Rawls 1967, each person is to have equal rights to the most expensive total system of basic liberty.

Increasing the ability of the poor to raise their income, in line with this, key economic programs such as plan for modernization for agriculture (PMA), strategic export program (SEP) and medium term competitiveness strategy (MTCS) have been formed to distribute coffee seedlings under the strategic export program which benefits primarily small farmers, while plan for modernization takes broader approach focusing on advisory services, technology rural finance, infrastructures, mutual resource management that is to say land tenure, environment, agricultural education and agro-processing and marketing for the sector of a whole without a specific crop focus is more of advantage to the poor.

Another value principle is strengthening good governance and security for all individuals benefits for example poverty eradication plan which provides an opportunity to articulate the development needs of the areas affected by conflict as well as to define a comprehensive development plan for the way forward. In addition to that more is paid to the identification of specific points of social tension such as over land and appropriate remedial measures is devised.

Improving quality of the life of the poor which leads to the achievement of universal primary education (UPE) reduce child mortality rate, better maternal health and progress against HIV/AIDS, malaria because women will be more knowledgeable to reduce all these since they are the dominating population in Uganda, improving arrests of functional water and sanitation services for example with three thousand (3,000) new water points annually in urban areas as well as modest effort to promote sanitation and hygiene, and therefore aim of the government is to supply 65 percent of the population with water and 80 percent with sanitation by the year 2015 especially in the most needy areas like Karamoja, Gulu, Kitgum, Kotido.

Income poverty, the World Bank is working with government and development partners on a poverty assessment to analyze the causes of this increase; in income based on poverty. The initial finding suggest the need for an increased focuses on raising the income of the poor, while continuing to build on past improvements in service delivery which helps to improve on the lives of both the poor and the rich.

Another value principle is creating a framework for economic growth and structural transformation for expressing concerns about the widening fiscal deficit and increased donor dependence then reduces the fiscal deficit over the medium term through the gradual fiscal consolidation, mainly by increasing, revues, without jeopardizing poverty reduction and key economic programs.

Agricultural advisory services, the National Agricultural Advisory services (NAADS) has been developed to improve access to end the effectiveness of advisory services once fully developed is a demand driven program primarily designed to provide small holder farmers with access to the expertise of agricultural professionals to help them with the decisions they face in their farming enterprises. Under NAADS public services are channeled to farmers force at the sub-county level for them to have access to farm advisors. Also additional funds are available at the district level to train farmer's access to the services of agricultural advisors and researchers for example in selected sub counties and districts such as 24 sub counties and farmer for a together with local government have identified and signed initial and interim agreements with agricultural service providers.

Land tenure, which is one of the most important aspect to poverty reduction and therefore the vulnerable group of people are protected such as women

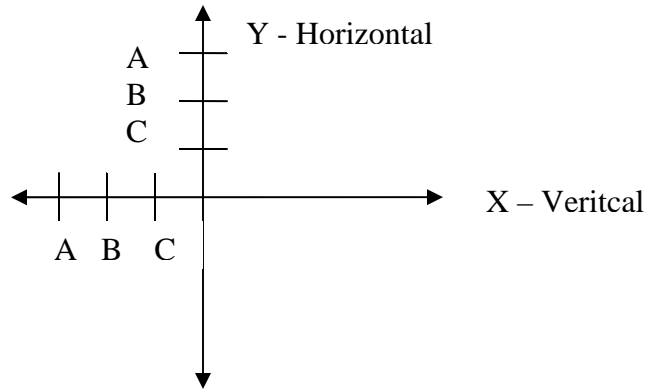
and orphans since the government is preparing asset of specific actions to strengthen land rights of women and has developed proposed pilot schemes to strengthen common property management system. In addition that the government has proposed reforms in the country's property laws including those considered gender neutral to ensure equality and equity in ownership and control of land.

Education, the government through universal primary education has dramatically increased primary school enrolment from four children to all the number of children one owns since 1997, and increased access to education for the children of poor house holds, universal primary education thus has eliminated access to the wealth bias what had characterized access to primary education. The key challenges now are to improve the quality of primary education while keeping enrollment high such as increase in the classrooms the number of qualified teachers, the supply and utilization of instruction materials, the efficiency of input use and improve accountability and transparency all expected by the government to sustain universal primary education.

Horizontal and vertical equity position was provided by Fink (1998) who identified and classified them, whereby horizontal equity is based on the equality principle of like treatment for like people in the like circumstances for example if 60% of the population are poor and they cannot provide themselves the basic necessities in their homes or community then the government should provide them with the things they need for example safe drinking water, toilets, rubbish pits to allow them receive the same share under the same circumstances.

The vertical equity, it stresses that resources should be distributed to each other according to needs. Therefore it is a force behind the affirmative action policy for example when the government is selecting areas in Uganda for development and poverty eradication, the areas like Karamoja, Kotido, Paderi, Gulu, may be selected since people are never settled and they are affected with war and therefore never have time for development and reduce poverty.

Figure: 7 Illustration of the vertical and horizontal equity



Where; A - Rich
B - Poor
C - Poorer.

And therefore for the case of equity, 'A' may be given less benefits, because it has what 'B' and 'C' is not having and 'B' and 'C' should be given more resources for them also achieve what 'A' has.

The following are relevance in the success of poverty reduction policy.

The government has proposed mainstreaming gender into development planning to improve the status of women for example the Government proposed reforms in the country's property laws including those considered 'gender neutral' to ensure equality and equity in ownership and control of land.

Road development, communication and transport, whereby the Government has improved access to rural areas and economically productive areas to enable rural people to transport their agricultural products to the market or business areas for example new northern by pass on contraction.

A multi-sectoral approach promotes coordination and collaboration that are essential ingredients for institutional reform for example through a programmatic approach which promotes Uganda ownership of its poverty reduction and public expenditure programs improve predictability of funding, strengthens budgetary institutions and reduces transaction costs in deliver of external assistance.

It has helped in the quality of life of the poor by supporting the delivery of basic services to them. The grant provides the only Bank group to support

financial and financially for the education, health and water and sanitation sectors.

It promotes efficient and equitable use of public resources by supporting the alignment of budget execution that has benefited the rural poor by supporting and enabling environment for transition from subsistence to commercial agricultural benefits and improved environmental sustainability.

Poverty reduction policy has also benefited governance in Uganda by supporting reforms in the key institutions to reduce corruption, improve the efficiency of public procurement and strengthen financial management through justice system and civil society participation.

The policy has also led to development in financial sector since there have been a number of significant developments in this areas since 2000. Enhanced presidential supervision and the closure of involvement, financial banks have led to a significant improvement in the soundness of the banking sector over the past six years for example there has been rural development banks which has been brought nearer to even rural areas to help the individuals save the little they get to maintain a regulatory and supervisory framework that encourages innovation and efficient competition in financial services to both the poor and the rich.

Gaps in the Poverty reduction policy

Despite significant progress, 35% of the population in Uganda has supplemented household surveys with the Uganda participatory poverty assessment project (UPPAP) over the first three years specifically the poor in Uganda are concerned with the lack of access to basic services for example health care, education, safe water and sanitation land and production inputs. Further more there only concerned with security in terms of war, rebel activity, cattle raiding and theft plus corruption which denies the poor the access to the public service.

Development partners bring in a number of measures what require a number of complementary actions on their part for example integration of don-funded in the medium term expenditure framework (MTEF) and reaching on a shared view of out comes.

Institutional reforms are very difficult and taking time progress in many areas will be gradual and measuring the impacts of reforms initiated will be

difficult. Lack of immediate tangible results may weaken the resolve to keep the momentum going and raise questions about the results of the programs.

Redistributive justice which deals with allocation of resources and ensures that all people access the basic need through retributive justice for example taxation policy which was designed to ensure that such people who acquire all opportunities should be taxed and resources are redistributed to the poor to eradicate poverty for example those who earn 1,000,000 are taxed 30% then they get 700,000 such that 30% is used by the Government to offer and cater for Government health care centers, government schools in form of Universal Primary Education and Universal Secondary Education to allow even the poor benefit.

HIV and AIDS policy in Uganda

Uganda is one of the few African countries where rates of HIV infection have declined, and it is seen as a rare example of success in a continent facing a severe AIDS crisis. Uganda's policies are credited with helping to bring adult HIV prevalence (the proportion of adults living with HIV) down from around 15% in the early 1990s to around 5% in 2001. At the end of 2005, UNAIDS estimates that 6.7% of adults were living with the virus. The country is seen as having implemented a well-timed and successful public education campaign.¹

Gradually, more and more countries around the world are starting to realize that they must take decisive action if they are to avert a major AIDS crisis. More and more money is being channeled into Africa, especially by the US which has pledged \$15 billion to fight AIDS in resource-poor countries. Uganda is lucky enough to be one of the countries on President Bush's list and, given the decline that has been seen in its HIV prevalence, is being held up as an example of good planning and action that others should emulate.

But the results seen in Uganda don't have a simple recipe, and with so many lives and such large sums of money at stake, it is important to look carefully at what has been done there.

Uganda is estimated to have a population of about 25-30 million. The extreme mortality of AIDS has had an effect on this figure, which would

otherwise be higher. As another consequence of AIDS, healthy life expectancy in Uganda is only around 50 years.

Uganda contains over 18 distinct ethnic groups, a similar number of languages, and several religions. Most newspapers and television broadcasts use English as a common language. Over 80% of the working population is employed in agriculture.

Today, parts of northern Uganda remain mired in a conflict between the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) and government-backed militia. The conflict has claimed many civilian victims, with both sides targeting civilian populations, and atrocities such as the mass amputation of limbs are reportedly not uncommon. There have been recent indications that the conflict may be ending, but much of northern Uganda is still considered too dangerous to visit.²

Even though HIV prevalence in Uganda is much lower than it once was, it still remains very high, and AIDS is still claiming tens of thousands of lives each year. Such a severe epidemic has a considerable social and economic impact. As AIDS usually kills young adults, it depletes a country's labor force, and weakens educational and health services. Deaths among young adults also leave behind thousands of orphaned children and grandparents, placing an additional burden on the community or the state.³

Timeline of AIDS in Uganda

During the early 1990s, HIV prevalence peaked at around 15% among all adults, and exceeded 30% among pregnant women in the cities. At the end of 2005, adult prevalence was estimated at 6.7%, and an estimated one million Ugandans were living with HIV/AIDS, according to UNAIDS/WHO.⁴ The graph below shows median HIV prevalence by year among antenatal clinic attendees in major urban areas. The data in the timeline are taken from a number of different studies.

AIDS in Uganda was initially known as 'slim' due to the physical wasting it caused. HIV was already spreading in Uganda on the shores of Lake Victoria in the late 1970s. It is from here that some theories suggest HIV spread to the rest of the world. If this is true then Uganda's HIV epidemic might be said to have had something of a 'head start' on other national epidemics.

1982 The first AIDS case in Uganda was diagnosed. Between 1982 and 1986 there was little understanding of what AIDS was. During this period the epidemic was largely addressed at local levels with communities caring for those infected and affected.⁵

1986 President Yoweri Museveni responded to the emerging HIV crisis in Uganda swiftly, embarking on a nationwide tour to tell people that avoiding AIDS was a patriotic duty, and that they should abstain from sex before marriage and then go on to remain faithful to their partners and to use condoms. Uganda's Health Minister announced to the World Health Assembly that there was HIV in Uganda, and the first AIDS control program in Uganda was established. It focused on providing safe blood products, and educating people about risks.⁶

1987 Sixteen volunteers who had been personally affected by HIV/AIDS came together to found the community organization TASO. A program was established to control the spread of HIV in the military.⁷

1988 The first national survey to assess the extent of the epidemic was conducted and found the average HIV prevalence in the population to be 9%.

1990 The AIDS Information Centre was formed to provide voluntary counseling and testing.

1991 Prevalence among pregnant women aged 15-24 peaked in this year at 21%. According to UNAIDS estimates, national prevalence peaked at 15% in this year.

1992 The government adopted a multi sectoral approach to addressing the epidemic and coordinating the response to it. HIV prevalence in young pregnant women in Uganda began to decrease between 1991 and 1993.

1994 Various governmental departments - Agriculture, Internal Affairs, Justice, etc. - established individual AIDS control Program Units. The government borrowed \$50 million from the World Bank to fight the epidemic, with the Ugandan government and other donors making this up to a total of \$75 million to set up the Sexually Transmitted Infections Project.⁹

1995 Uganda announced that it had observed what appeared to be declining trends in HIV prevalence.¹⁰

1997 Ugandans participated in a study of using antiretroviral drugs to prevent mother-to-child transmission of HIV.

1998 Prevalence among pregnant women aged 15-24 had fallen to 9.7%. The Drug Access Initiative was established to lobby for reduced prices for antiretroviral (ARV) medication, and the establishment of the infrastructure necessary to allow these drugs to be generally accessible.¹¹

1999 The Ugandan Ministry of Health started a voluntary door-to-door HIV testing program using rapid tests.

2000 The government began to 'mainstream' HIV/AIDS issues in Uganda's Poverty Eradication Action Plan.

2001 The World Bank agreed to spend \$47.5 million over the next five years on Uganda's AIDS prevention and treatment programs. According to UNAIDS estimates, national HIV prevalence had fallen to around 5% in 2001.

2004 The non-governmental organization National Guidance and Empowerment Network released a report saying that Uganda's HIV prevalence was actually 17% - more than four times the official rate. Experts claimed that the study was inaccurate, but admitted that the HIV problem in Uganda may still be much worse than official statistics indicate.¹²

2005 Critics accused the US of encouraging a shift in Uganda's HIV prevention policy towards promoting abstinence only, and away from promoting condoms. A severe national condom shortage was reported.

2006 Scientists suggested that HIV prevalence may be raising again.¹³

HIV prevalence and incidence

When talking about HIV and AIDS figures, the terms 'incidence' and 'prevalence' are used.

HIV 'incidence' is the number of new cases of HIV in the population during a certain time period. People who were already infected before that time period are not included in that figure, even if they are still alive.

HIV 'prevalence' is given as a percentage of a population. If a thousand truck drivers, for example, are tested for HIV and 30 of them are found to be positive, then the results of a study might say that HIV prevalence amongst truck drivers is 3%. This does not mean that all the truck drivers in a country have been tested, and it gives only a very limited hint of what the prevalence might be in another group, such as old people.

HIV prevalence in developing countries is often difficult to measure, partly because much of the population does not have access to healthcare facilities and largely relies on traditional medicine. Therefore, HIV prevalence tends to be measured at whatever points the people does have contact with health staff. This is often at antenatal clinics or STD treatment centers.

Obviously, this does not give a full picture of the spread of the epidemic in the country as a whole - the former will give an indication of the prevalence amongst sexually active women, the latter generally amongst presumably sexually non-monogamous adults. As a general rule, however, it seems apparent that a prevalence of anything over 10% in any population indicates an extremely serious problem.

Given that HIV incidence is the figure that tells us about new infections in a population over a period of time, this is often more revealing than prevalence figures. A society which shows regularly declining incidence figures is one which is experiencing fewer and fewer new infections, something which is certainly desirable. However, measuring HIV incidence is even more difficult than measuring HIV prevalence.

HIV/AIDS prevention and support to those who are infected.

The policy has been extracted from the weekly observer dated November 12, 2006 page 8 and weekly observer dated 5 February 2007.

HIV/AIDS prevention policy it was designed and implemented as result of perspective as an ideology here the group of politicians had ideas depending on their belief of what are good or bad, desirable and un desirable among others. For example (PIASCY) program presidential initiative on AIDS strategy for communication to youth. It involves sex education especially in schools; in fact and to practice safer sex when they become sexually active.

Perspective as a product, the policy was put in place so as to deal with the existing problem of HIV/AIDS. According to this perspective, the policy is aimed to bring visible change in society by reducing the rate of HIV/AIDS. According to the rate is 7%, at the same time out of the 1.8 million total numbers of infected people 1.1 million are children and youth.

Therefore in this perspective the policy is to bring change among the youth who are infected to 0.5 million.

PIASCY program has started in schools. It will be extended to the communities to target school dropouts and other youth in the community who are equally vulnerable to acquire HIV/AIDS.

Looking purely from the view point of the entomological perspective, the question of whether knowledge exists on issues pertaining to HIV/AIDS it becomes rather imperative to evaluate the documentation on reduction in HIV/AIDS prevalence from 17% in 2002 to 7% day (UYAAS).

Prevention of HIV/AIDS and support those who are already infected has been designed and implemented in areas of social equity principles. Whereby vertical equity operates on the principle that people in different circumstances of situations people should be treated differently i.e. each according to need. For example HIV/AIDS prevention campaign encourage abstinence and safer sex for those who cannot control themselves, at the same time it encourages those who are infected to go for treatment (accessing ARVs and related treatment) and stop having unprotected sex with anybody purposely to prolong their lives. The infected and uninfected are treated differently.

HIV/AIDS prevention, during the designing and development of this social policy, policy markers use cycle theory.

When Uganda as a society faced with the above problem policy markers, looked at the society (Uganda) HIV/AIDS problem, they looked at social values that hindered the occurrence of that problem.

For example society values such Abstinence where virginity was considered and this reduces the occurrence of STDS. Therefore the implementation of the above policy has based on cyclic theory accompanied by sensitization of masses.

In my own analysis, HIV/AIDS prevention policy has been designed and implanted in schools targeting the youth and children, but it is worth to assert that most people especially in the rural areas are not informed on how to prevent HIV/AIDS using other methods rather than Abstinence. Therefore the government and other concerned agencies should look at strategies to sensitize the masses in deep rural areas.

Support for those who are living positively should be revised. The Ministry should put ways to provide nutritious food for this people, it is also true that most people are un able to afford balanced diet which is a hazard to their lives. At the same time strict measures on corruption should be put in place if this policy is to reach the beneficiaries (e.g. Global fund) and medical treatment such as CD4 for checking ARVs service should also be extended especially to poor rural people.

There is also some powerful barrier to promotion of HIV/SDTs prevention such as teaching young people.

There are also some powerful barriers to promotion of HIV, STDs prevention such as teaching young people about sexually and contraception is often taken to encourage early sexual experimentation. It is not true because no study revealed evidence or sex education leading to earlier or increased sexual activity in young people.

Secondly study reveals that sex education either delays the on set of sexual activity or caused a fall in its overall extent.

Sex education is more effective when given to young people before they become sexually active and they emphasize skills and social norms rather than knowledge.

Functional theory and the Internally Displaced People Policy

Evolution theory and the Internally Displaced People Policy use the functional theory which calls for transformation and moving from one stage to another or change in the society. The implementation of the Internally Displaced People policy was to bring change to the lives of internally displaced people in Northern part of Uganda. And this change was planned through its implementation. The policy brought changes to these people by allowing a variety of organization participants in helping them through

giving them food, clothing, shelter, protecting them and giving them medication.

The policy makers employed the opportunity theory which emphasizes the harmonization on all the basic needs in the community. The implementation of the Internally Displaced People Policy was to provide equal opportunities to the displaced people in the northern part of Uganda through construction of schools and introducing free education (Universal Primary Education) and the construction of health centers so that they can access quality health services.

1.0 Providing health services like medicines, mosquitoes nets, domestic utensils, clothing like blankets among others by the Red Cross, feed the Children, World Vision and compassion Organizations to improve on their health hence causing a significant impact on the society of the Internally Displaced People in Northern Uganda.

2.0 Providing food to the Internally Displaced People by the World Food Programme (WFP) to improve on their betterment of living.

The principle of social equality emphasize that each person should have an equal right to the most extensive total system of basic liberties and life opportunities (Mwine 2007).

Health policy: successes, gaps and imprecations in Uganda

There is clear evidenced that government's universal primary health care policy and recent reforms in the health sector have brought about a significant expansion in the use of health care systems. 73% of Uganda's poor have access to medical care.

Since 1986, the government has been making deliberate efforts to improve delivery of health care. Working together with private health providers and Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) the government has intensified measures to have access to health services.

Out-patient Department (OPD) has increased dramatically in most health facilities across the country from 9.3million new cases in 1999/2000 to 17.7million in 2002/2003.

Immunization coverage has also increased dramatically. The proportion of people in the poorest 20% of the population, who seek care when ill, also rose from 46% to 73% between 1999 and 2003. The prevalence of HIV/AIDS has fallen from 30% in 1993/2004 to 6% in 2002/2003.

President Museveni looked forward to consolidate these achievements as he pushed for other reforms in the health sector.

Over the years more public health centers were built and equipped. The number of private health units also increased. Five years ago, the ministry of health launched the health sector strategic plan (HSSP). The plan aims at making quality health services affordable and accessible to the public. Health Sector Support Program (HSSP) was developed within the framework of the vision 2025. Poverty Eradication Action plan (PEAP) and

The national health policy sets provisions for the delivery of the minimum package of the health services the Uganda national Minimum Health package (UNMHCP) to all the people in Uganda with particular emphasis on the vulnerable.

There has been improvement in all the indicators over the HSSP period. Performance against the five PEAP indicators shows improvement in most cases surpassing the 2002/2003 performance levels.

The global fund to fight AIDS, tuberculosis and malaria has been a major boost to the sector, thus increasing availability of key health services.

The government universal primary health care (PHC) policy and recent reforms within health sector have caused significant expansion in the use of the health system. To meet the increasing demand for health services, the government has built 400 new level ii health centers and up graded 180 level to level iii however public hospitals and health centers have shortage of drugs and doctors.

The health sector has continued to experience shortage of trained health workers. There are still difficulties of attracting qualified health workers to hard to reach and difficult areas and districts. The health sector has worked with other stakeholders to ensure improved packages for health care. Ministry report saves

This policy was formulated to provide a solution to problem of poor access to medical care where only 27% access medical care and 73% could not access medical care due to may be some problems like ignorance, financial problems among others. This policy was implemented in order to meet the increasing demand for health services through building 400 new level two health centers and also up grading 180 level two to level three.

It was also implemented to improve delivery of health care services by working together with private health providers and non governmental organizations and also help the community to have access to health services

Functional theory and healthy policy gaps and improvements

Identification of the problem and the needs of the people

The government must have identified poor access to medical service as a problem and through the help of local leaders and where able to find out from to communities if they really felt it was a problem. After the community had agreed to it as a problem, the government had to go a head and select a solution or what could best solve that problem (poor access to medical services) and thus what we selected was formulated, after formulation the government had to implement the health policy as the solution to the problem. This was done when the government building 400 level two health centers and up grading 180 level three and also improving the delivery of health care services through working together with private health providers and non governmental organizations as seen in the news paper attached. Another perspective is social policy as an ideology. Social policy as planning is cognitive exercise involving the determination, goal generation and examination of alternative action and options to use in achieving them. The policies designed under this perspective are assumed to be programmatic deliberate and problem solving oriented, in the case observed from the photographs on photo plate No6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 attached reveal in harsh realities that the health policy lacks in significant problem solving, especially solving health problems of the poor and child mothers as illustrated in the photographs. Access to medical care for example where only 27% accessed medical care and 73% did not access the medical care. In solving this problem the health policy improved delivery of health care through working together with private health providers and non governmental organizations by building 400 new level two health centers and up grading 180 level two to level three.

Health policy, human resource and structures

It was implemented to provide health services to the people. In 1950's the principle government concern about the health service was with difficulties in controlling costs. No considerable changes were made from this pre occupation.

The relationship of the doctors to the government was and remains the sensitive area. The institutions of control and local government, proposals were introduced for the recognition of natural health service. This created new structures for example hospitals such as Mulago hospital, Iganga hospital, Mbale hospital, clinics and health centers such as health centers IIs, IIIs and IVs at the sub county levels. All these were put in place to improve on people's health.

The objects of health policy

To work towards the total eradication of malaria.

To introduce social health insurance and community health insurance

To continue improving the salaries of health workers

To complete the construction of Health centre 1vs, 111s, and 11s equip them, with the necessary health personnel and essential drugs.

To reduce the prevalence of HIV and AIDS infection in Uganda

To carry out a continuous improvement of Uganda's health indices

HIV and AIDS in Uganda under health policy:

This policy was credited with helping to bring adult and children HIV prevalence (the proportion of adults living with HIV) down from a round 15% in the early 1990s.

During the 1999, over 5 million people become newly with HIV bringing to over 34 million the number of people living with HIV, the virus that causes AIDS. The HIV/ AIDS epidemic has claimed including almost 4 million children. And it has left over 13 million children orphaned in its wake.

Life expectancy and child survival rates have increased in some of the worst affected countries and the disease is today having a major impact on social and economic development.

The prevention and care strategy for HIV, there is no care for AIDS. However, there are some ways of prevention and care strategies based on firm political commitment that can have a major impact on the burden and spread of HIV/ AIDS.

The effective measures that can be taken are as follow:

Immediate treatment of other sexually transmitted infections (STDS) for example Gonorrhoea and syphilis which may lead to early death of some one.

Voluntary counseling and testing (VCT)

When thinking about voluntary counseling, then we must remember that it helps one to know his or her status so that he / she can abstain from the HIV /AIDS.

Accessible and inexpensive condoms can be used to avoid the spread of HIV / AIDS.

Prevention of mother to child transmission for example during birth, there is stopping of blood of the mother to the child.

Sexual health education in school and beyond to enable people know how this HIV can be spread and how to avoid it.

Accelerating access to care, support and treatment, including psychosocial support, home and community based care and innovative new partnership to provide sustain and affordable supplies of medicines and diagnostics.

Free dental treatment for children with HIV, The New vision, Wednesday, February, 28, 2007.

Due to this policy children with dental problems can now get dental care and free dental treatment in some clinics for example Mildmay. This clinic treats clients of the centre from the surrounding community, orphanages, TASO chapters and other HIV children – based centers.

Dental hygiene is very important because if can lead to malnutrition and drug adherence, which affect the life span of people living with HIV AIDS, especially children, when mouth is sick they will not be able to eat which will lead to malnutrition.

Health Policy, Plans and Strategies

The government of Ethiopia issued its health policy in 1993, which emphasizes the importance of achieving access to a basic package of quality primary health care services by all segments of the population, using the decentralized state of governance. The health policy stipulates that the health services should include preventive, promotive and curative components.

In order to achieve the goals of the health policy, a twenty-year health sector development strategy has been formulated, which is being implemented through a series of five-year plans. The implementation of the first health sector development program (HSDP) was launched in 1997, and now the second HSDP is under way. The main thrust of the HSDP implementation is based on sector-wide approach, encompassing the following eight components:

- Service delivery and quality of care
- Health facility rehabilitation and expansion
- Human resource development
- Pharmaceutical services
- Information, education and communication
- Health sector management and management of information systems
- Monitoring and evaluation
- Health care financing

The HSDP has introduced a four-tier health service system which comprises: a primary health care unit, (a network of a health center and five health posts), the hospital, regional hospital and specialized referral hospital.

A health post is now being staffed by two health extension workers. These new cadres are trained for one year and their training emphasizes disease prevention measures with focus on the following programs:

A health center is at the highest level of a primary health care unit. It includes services such as in-patient and out-patient services including surgery, and with laboratory services.

A health station used to give services that a health center does, but at a smaller scale. Health Station is now being phased out. According to the new health sector development program (HSDP), a primary health care unit comprises of 5 health posts and a health center serving as a referral point.

Therefore, when the HSDP is fully implemented, a health center will serve 25,000 people.

The aspect of health management and support within the health system is operated in accordance with the decentralized administrative structures. At

present, the decentralization process has expanded to district level and has devolved primary responsibility for service delivery and management from regional health bureaus to district health offices, enabling them to management and coordination primary health care delivery in the their respective areas.

Supportive and educational supervision is undertaken at all levels, from the Federal Ministry of Health to district health offices. In addition, responsibility for logistical support is shared among the Federal Ministry of Health, the regional health bureaus, and district health offices.

CHAPTER FIFTEEN

Health policy in the transitional government of Ethiopia

Ethiopia, an ancient country with a rich diversity of peoples and cultures has however remained backward in socio-economic and political development, and in technological advances. Conventional health parameters such as infant and maternal mortality, morbidity and mortality from communicable diseases, malnutrition and average life expectancy place Ethiopia among the least privileged nations in the world. In recent times, the country has experienced severe manmade and natural calamities and political upheavals, which have caused untold suffering to its peoples. At no time in the past has the country enjoyed the leadership of a representative government with a defined mandate and accountability.

In the field of health there was no enunciated policy up to the fifties. Subsequently, references to the development of health with provision of basic health services through a network of health centers and health stations and the need to give due attention to prevention alongside curative services could be discerned. Towards the end of the Imperial period a comprehensive Health Services Policy was adopted through initiatives from the World Health Organization. However, the downfall of the regime precluded the possibility of putting this scheme to the test.

The Dergue regime that came into power in the mid seventies formulated a more elaborate health policy that gave emphasis to disease prevention and control, priority to rural areas in health service and promotion of self-reliance and community involvement. But in practice the totalitarian political system lacked the commitment and leadership quality to address and maintain active popular participation in translation the formulated policy into action. In addition, the bulk of the national resources were committed to the pursuit of war throughout the life of regime, which left little for development activities in any sector.

Therefore, in health as in most other sectors, in both of the previous regimes there was no meeting ground between declaration of intent and demonstrable performance. Furthermore, the health administration apparatus contributed

its won share to perpetuation of backwardness in health development because, like the rest of the tightly centralized bureaucracy, it was unresponsive, self-serving and impervious to change.

The Health Policy of the Transitional Government is the result of a critical examination of the nature, magnitude and root causes of the prevailing health problem of the country and awareness of newly emerging health problems. It is founded on commitment to democracy and the rights powers of the people that derive from it and to decentralizations as the most appropriate system of government for the full exercise of these rights and powers in our pluralistic society. It accords appropriate emphasis to the needs of the less-privileged rural population, which constitute the overwhelming majority of the population and the major productive force of the nation. As enunciated in these articles, it proposes realistic goals and the means for attaining them based on the fundamental principles that health, constituting physical, mental and social well-being, is a prerequisite for the enjoyment of life and for optimal productivity. The Government therefore accords health a prominent place in its order of priorities and is committed to the attainment of these goals utilizing all accessible internal and external resources. In particular the Government fully appreciates the decisive role of popular participation and the development of self-reliance in these endeavors and is therefore determined to create the requisite social and political conditions conducive to their realization.

The Government believes that health policy cannot be considered in isolation from policies addressing population dynamics, food availability, and acceptable living conditions and other requisites essential for health improvement and shall therefore develop effective inter-sectoral for a comprehensive betterment of life.

In general, health development shall be seen not only in humanitarian terms but also as an essential component of the package of social and economic development as well as being an instrument of social justice and equity.

Pursuant to the above the health policy of the Transitional Government shall incorporate the following basic components

General policy

1. Democratization and decentralization of the health service system.

2. Development of the preventive and promotive components of health care.
3. Development of an equitable and acceptable standard of health service system that will reach all segments of the population within the limits of resources.
4. Promoting and strengthening of inter-sectoral activates.
5. Promotion of attitudes and practices conducive to the strengthening of national self-reliance in health development by mobilizing and maximally utilizing internal and external resources.
6. Assurance of accessibility of health care for all segments of the population.
7. Working closely with neighboring countries, regional and international organizations to share information and strengthen collaboration in all activities contributory to health development including the control of factors detrimental to health.
8. Development of appropriate capacity building based on assessed needs.
9. Provision of health care for the population on a scheme of payment according to ability with special assistance mechanisms for those who cannot afford to pay.
10. Promotion of the participation of the private sector and nongovernmental organizations in health care.

Priorities of the policy

1. Information, Education and Communication (I.E.C) of health shall be given appropriate prominence to enhance health awareness and to propagate the important concepts and practices of self-responsibility in health

2. Emphasis shall be given to: -

The control of communicable diseases, epidemics and diseases related to malnutrition and poor living conditions;

The promotion of occupational health and safety;

The development of environmental health;

The rehabilitation of the health infrastructure;

The development of an appropriate health service management system;

3. Appropriate support shall be given to the curative and rehabilitative components of health including mental health.

4. Due attention shall be given to the development of the beneficial aspects of Traditional Medicine including related research and its gradual integration into Modern Medicine.

5. Applied health research addressing the major health problems shall be emphasized.

6. Provision of essential medicines, medical supplies and equipment shall be strengthened.

7. Development of human resources with emphasis on expansion of the number of frontline and middle level oriented training shall be undertaken.

8. Special attention was given to the health needs of: -

The family particularly women and children;

Those in the forefront of productivity;

Those hitherto most neglected regions and segments of population including the majority of the rural population, pastoralists, the urban poor and national minorities,

Victims of man-made and natural disasters

General strategies

1. Democratization within the system shall be implemented by establishing health councils with strong community representation at all levels and health committees at grass-root levels to participate in identifying major health problems, budgeting, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluating health activities.

2. Decentralization shall be realized through transfer of the major parts of decision-making, health care organization, capacity building, planning, implementation and monitoring to the regions with clear definition of roles.

3. Inter-sectoral collaboration shall be emphasized particularly in:

3.1. Enriching the concept and intensifying the practice of family planning for optimal family health and planned population dynamics.

3.2. Formulating and implementing an appropriate food and nutrition policy.

3.3. Acceleration the provision of safe and adequate water for urban and rural populations.

3.4. Developing safe disposal of human, household, agricultural, and industrial wastes, and encouragement of recycling.

3.5. Developing measures to improve the quality of housing and work premises for health.

3.6. Participation in the development of community based facilities for the care of the physically and mentally disabled, the abandoned, street children and the aged.

3.7. Participating in the development of day-care centers in factories and enterprises, school health and nutrition program.

3.8. Undertakings in disaster management, agriculture, education, communication, transportation, expansion of employment opportunities and development of other social services.

3.9. Developing facilities for workers' health and safety in production sectors.

4. Health Education shall be strengthened generally and for specific target populations through the mass media, community leaders, religious and cultural leaders, professional associations, schools and other social organizations for:

- 4.1. Inculcating attitudes of responsibility for self-care in health and assurance of safe environment.
 - 4.2. Encouraging the awareness and development of health promotive life-styles and attention to personal hygiene and healthy environment.
 - 4.3. Enhancing awareness of common communicable and nutritional diseases and the means for their prevention.
 - 4.4. Inculcating attitudes of participation in community health development.
 - 4.5. Identifying and discouraging harmful traditional practices while encouraging their beneficial aspects.
 - 4.6. Discouraging the acquisition of harmful habits such as cigarette smoking, alcohol consumption, drug abuse and irresponsible sexual behavior.
 - 4.7. Creating awareness in the population about the rational use of drugs.
5. Promotive and Preventive activities shall address:
- 5.1 Control of common endemic and epidemic communicable and nutritional diseases using appropriate general and specific measures.
 - 5.2 Prevention of diseases related to affluence and ageing from emerging as major health problems.
 - 5.3 Prevention of environmental pollution with hazardous chemical wastes.
6. Human Resource Development shall focus on:
- 6.1 Developing of the team approach to health care.
 - 6.2 Training of community based task-oriented frontline and middle level health workers of appropriate professional standards; and recruitment and training of these categories at regional and local levels.

6.3 Training of trainers, managerial and supportive categories with appropriate orientation to the health service objectives.

6.4 Developing of appropriate continuing education for all categories of workers in the health sector.

6.5 Developing an attractive career structure, remuneration and incentives for all categories of workers within their respective systems of employment.

7. Availability of Drugs, supplies and Equipment shall be assured by:

7.1 Preparing lists of essential and standard drugs and equipment for all levels of the health service system and continuously updating such lists.

7.2 Encouraging national production capability of drugs, vaccines, supplies and equipment by giving appropriate incentives to firms, which are engaged in manufacture, research and development.

7.3 Developing a standardized and efficient system for procurement, distribution, storage and utilization of the products.

7.4 Developing quality control capability to assure efficacy and safety of products.

7.5. Developing maintenance and repair facilities for equipment.

8. Traditional Medicine shall be accorded appropriate attention by:

8.1. Identifying and encouraging utilization of its beneficial aspects.

8.2. Coordinating and encouraging research including its linkage with modern medicine.

8.3. Developing appropriate regulation and registration for its practice.

9. Health systems Research shall be given due emphasis by:

9.1. Identifying priority areas for research in health.

- 9.2. Expanding applied research on major health problems and health service systems.
 - 9.3. Strengthening the research capabilities of national institutions and scientists in collaboration with the responsible agencies.
 - 9.4. Developing appropriate measures to assure strict observance of ethical principles in research.
10. Family Health Services shall be promoted by:
- 10.1 Assuring adequate maternal health care and referral facilities for high risk pregnancies.
 - 10.2. Intensifying family planning for the optimal health of the mother, child and family.
 - 10.3. Inculcating principles of appropriate maternal nutrition.
 - 10.4. Maintaining breast-feeding, and advocating home made preparation, production and availability of weaning foods at affordable prices.
 - 10.5. Expanding and strengthening immunization services, optimization of access and utilization.
 - 10.6. Encouraging early utilization of available health care facilities for management of common childhood diseases particularly diarrhea diseases and acute respiratory infections.
 - 10.7. Addressing the special health problems and related needs of adolescents.
 - 10.8. Encouraging paternal involvement in family health.
 - 10.9. Identifying and discouraging harmful traditional practices while encouraging their beneficial aspects.
11. Referral System shall be developed by:
- 11.1. Optimizing utilization of health care facilities at all levels.

- 11.2. Improving accessibility of care according to need.
 - 11.3. Assuring continuity and improved quality of care at all level.
 - 11.4. Rationalizing costs for health care seeders and providers for optimal utilization of health care facilities at all levels
 - 11.5. Strengthening the communication within the health care system.
12. Diagnostic and Supportive Services for health care shall be developed by:
- 12.1. Strengthening the scientific and technical bases of health care.
 - 12.2. Facilitating prompt diagnosis and treatment.
 - 12.3. Providing guidance in continuing care.
13. Health Management information system shall be organized by:
- 13.1. Making the system appropriate and relevant for decision making, planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluation.
 - 13.2. Maximizing the utilization of information at all levels
 - 13.3. Developing central and regional information documentation centers.
14. Health Legislations shall be revised by.
- 14.1. Up-dating existing public health laws and regulations.
 - 14.2. Developing new rules and regulations to help in the
Implementation of the current policy and addressing new health issues.
 - 14.3. Strengthening mechanisms for implementation of health laws and regulations.
15. Health Service Organization shall be systematized and rationalized by:

15.1. Standardizing the human resource, physical facilities and operational systems of the health units at all levels.

15.2. Defining and instituting the catchments areas of health units and referral systems based on assessment of pertinent factors.

15.3. Regulating private health care and professional development by appropriate licensing.

16. Administration and Management of the health system shall be strengthened and made more effective and efficient by:

Restructuring and organizing at all levels in line with the present policy of decentralization and democratization of decision-making and management

Combining departments and services which are closely related and rationalizing the utilization of human and material resources.

Studying the possibility of designating under secretaries to ensure continuity of service

Creating management boards for national hospitals, institutions and organizations

Allowing health institutions to utilize their income to improve their services

Ensuring placement of appropriately qualified and motivated personnel at all levels.

Financing the Health services shall be through public, private and international sources and the following options shall be considered and evaluated.

Raising taxes and revenues

Formal contribution or insurance by public employees

Legislative requirements of a contributory health fund for employee of the private sector.

Individual or group health insurance

Voluntary contributions

CHAPTER SIXTEEN

Sudanese education policy to illustrate the cyclic theory

Early Foundations of Sudanese Education: The educational system of modern Sudan is rooted in the Islamic culture of the northern river rain Arabs, and influenced by previous British imperial policy and the Mahdist nationalist sentiment prior to the Anglo-Egyptian Condominium era. In this exclusivist and missionary-minded system of education, the Arab language is the medium of instruction and socialization into the Islamic umma, or community of Muslims, distinct from those outside the community who are collectively referred to as the kafir, or nonbelievers in the message of the Prophet Mohammed. The Islamization of the Sudan has been a sometimes gradual, sometimes violent and sudden process of conversion, coalescing, integration, and intermarriage, until the various communities and social institutions of northern Sudan became woven into the very fabric of the greater Islamic umma. Islamic rituals, such as the observance of juma'a (Friday) prayers, the observance of holy days such as Eid Al Adha and Eid Al Fitr, and the establishment of Shari'a (Islamic law), identify the Muslim faithful as members of what is believed to be the universal true religion, whose adherents follow the final revelation of Allah (the one god), such revelation having been given through the Prophet Mohammed. In reciting the shahada, or the confession of the oneness of Allah and the prophet hood of Mohammed, "There is one God, and Mohammed is the prophet of God," the believers submit themselves to Allah and the societal structure ordained in the Quran and the hadith, or traditions of the Prophet. Islamic societal governance is so closely intertwined with religious doctrine that the distinction between secular and sacred does not exist in fundamentalist Islamic ideology.

Unfortunately, the rule of Islamists in modern day Sudan, notably since the NIF (National Islamic Front) backed military coup of 1989, has gone against Islamic tradition. Rather than reaffirming the positive social aspects of the Islamic faith, Islam in the Sudan has been the path to political power, and a potent ideological weapon for maintaining that power. Hourani (1991) observed the dangers of such misguided use of religion for political ends:

The inherited wisdom of the 'ulema was that they should not link themselves too closely with the government of the world; they should keep a

moral distance from it, while preserving their access to rulers and influence upon them: it was dangerous to tie the eternal interests of Islam to the fate of a transient ruler of the world.

It would seem that exactly the opposite has happened in the Sudan over the past several centuries, and the effects of rule by the religious elite, and their attempts to impose on a fractured society their particular version and interpretation of an Islamic state, has been disastrous for the societal structures of the Sudanese. Education has become less a means of enlightenment, than a means of coercive indoctrination, conversion, and enslavement. Instead of uniting, rule by the religionists has fractured, destroyed, and eliminated the very lives of the people who should have been—according to Islamic principle—protected and enabled to live moral lives of purity through peaceful measures. Instead, the use of Islamist ideology as a path to power has been fraught with abuse of religious principles toward political ends, a path strewn with the casualties of warfare, Muslim and no Muslim alike.

The modern Sudanese educational infrastructure has its proto-origins in the times when the need for learning followed close on the heels of the call to Islam. Learning the Quran, for example, necessitated the establishment of khalawas (religious schools) affiliated with mosques for teaching the Quran and Arabic literacy skills. Further religious education developed for the study of such topics as fiqh (Islamic jurisprudence), literature comprising praises to the Prophet, and exposition of Shari'a principles. This growth of Islamic education in the Sudan, concurrent with the spread of the Islamic religion itself, continued through the seventeenth century until the Turco-Egyptian administration that began in 1820 and continued until 1881. With the centralized government of the Turco-Egyptian regime, the foundations of the modern Sudanese educational system were established concurrently with the further development of the traditional religious educational systems that began with the coming of Islam.

Missionary Education

It was during the Turco-Egyptian administration (1820-1881) that the foundations of a modern, centralized educational infrastructure were put into place. Under this administration, missionary education was encouraged, and Christian missionary societies were allowed to open schools such as the Khartoum Catholic School, begun in 1846. There were missionary efforts in the southern regions of Sudan, but not as much educational investment as in the North. The catholic missionary Daniel Comboni, with his Kordofan

centered missionary drive in the Sudan, was successful in developing vocational and technical education. The El Obeid school in 1876 was training 100 young men in various trades, and to the South of El Obeid in Malbes, families were receiving agricultural training in 1881. About 200 girls and 300 boys were enrolled in the Khartoum school by 1877, and the successes of Comboni were instrumental in Governor General Charles Gordon's later decision to promote missionary work in the South, paving the way for the important achievements made in education through missionary efforts after the brief interruption of the Mahdist regime.

The Mahdist regime (1881-1898), with its emphasis on Islamic reform, brought a temporary halt to missionary education and to the centralized educational system established during the Turco-Egyptian administration. The Mahdia, or Mahdist regime, dismantled the work of the missionaries and Turco-Egyptian administration, so that by the time the Sudan was reconquered in 1898, the only education to be had was in the small number of traditional religious schools allowed by the Mahdi and his successor, the Khalifa 'Abdallahi (Reyero 1995).

Mahdist Reforms & Prohibitions: In order to understand the Islamic nature and character of educational policy in modern Sudan, it is very important to consider the influence of the Mahdia, a revolutionary regime which was "born by the sword, lived by the sword and perished by the sword" (Zulfo 1980). The Mahdi was the leader of this revolution who inspired and inflamed the Sudanese of his day to sacrifice their lives for the cause of Islam, an inspiration which endures today in the form of resistance to Westernization and the jihad (holy war) against the South. The Islamic martyrs of this jihad are held up as heroes of the faith, and institutions such as Khartoum University boast the number of martyr-students they have offered in the holy war to conquer the southern rebels.

The legacy of the Mahdia was a jihad-inspired military takeover of the governmental administration of Sudan, and the implementation of reformist, puritanical, Mahdist Islamism, which oversaw the reactionary dismantling of the previous advancements made in education. The attitude seemed to be that anything tainted by foreign influence had to be done away with. Religious schools in the vein of "true" Islam, or Islam according to the

visions of the Mahdi, were the only educational institutions allowed to continue during the Mahdist regime.

Condominium Educational Policy: In 1898 the Sudan was reconquered by combined British and Egyptian forces, and up until independence in 1956, the country was governed by the Condominium administration, which resulted from the signing of the Condominium Agreement in Cairo on January 19, 1899, thus inaugurating the co-domini Anglo-Egyptian rule. From the beginning of the Condominium, Sudanese involvement in education and employment quickly led to a level of political awareness that would later find expression in the nationalist movements toward eventual independence.

The first governors general of the Condominium administration, Sir Herbert Kitchener and Sir Reginald Wingate, set in motion the educational policies that were to guide the content and aims of Sudanese education. The first Director of Education, James Currie, appointed in 1900, set in place the patterns that continued in one form or another for most of the twentieth century. Currie's system of education was envisaged as one that would allow the Sudanese "to understand the elements of the system of government." Also envisaged was the preparation of "a small class of competent artisans" as well as "a small administrative class for entry to the government service." This limited system of education stemmed from budgetary constraints and fears that an educated elite would be dangerous for the status quo. When Gordon College opened in 1902 as the next step for the first intermediate and secondary schools, it reflected a system of education that was politically influenced and designed to meet the needs of governmental departments rather than the needs of the broader Sudanese populace of the North (Holt and Daly 2000).

Under the Anglo-Egyptian rule, khalawas (traditional religious schools) were modified to incorporate secular additions to the traditional Islamic curricula, and this combination of the secular and religious became the basis of elementary education in Sudan. Government supported kuttabs (Quranic schools) were encouraged in a policy of cultivating orthodox Islam in favor of "fanatical" Islam. After the elementary levels, vocational training was introduced but limited to those being trained for government service. The

educational reforms were intended to prevent a revival of Mahdism and the resurgence of Islamic ideology hostile to the government.

Also under the Condominium administration, missionary education was begun anew by the Verona Fathers (Comboni missionaries) and the American Presbyterian Mission. But the activities of the missionaries were curtailed and proselytism became a heated issue of debate, because the government did not want to instill mistrust among Muslims and provoke a reaction to perceived sanctioning of Christian missionary proselytism. Concerns and questions notwithstanding, missionaries were permitted to begin their work in the South. Missionary work began in the North too, but with many prohibitions. At first, the missionaries were permitted to open schools in Khartoum for Christian children, but not Muslims, until 1901, when schools outside Khartoum were opened and were allowed to enroll Sudanese Muslim children.

But there was still much distrust and suspicion of the "foreign" schools and educational reforms. Rural Sudanese especially, but the general populace as well, preferred the traditional to the modern, the religious to the secular. The strongest influence was wielded by the traditional religious schools, even when it became apparent that there were many benefits to receiving vocational training and a combined education with elements of both the secular and the sacred. The traditional religious schools represented for some Sudanese the backward state of educational policy, but for others, in particular the Islamic elite, the traditional elements of Islamic education were a protection of societal status, a buffer against the evils of modernization and the imposition of a foreign system of education.

Educational policy as implemented under Anglo-Egyptian rule was tied to the needs of the administration and political service in that administration by the educated elite of the Sudanese. Gordon Memorial College, the forerunner of today's Khartoum University, was established to commemorate Governor General Charles Gordon. It became the center of the Condominium's educational system, and the all-male Sudanese student body was educated and socialized after the European model. Although westernized by having learned to speak English and to dress like Europeans the students retained traditional religious and cultural beliefs. The bonds of Islamic unity forged during the Mahdia in the stand against the enemy were not to be so easily undone through policy which could change the external,

but which could not invade the inner being of a people's awakened national self-consciousness.

To cater to those students seeking a more traditional religious education, the government-sponsored Islamic Religious Institute of Omdurman was inaugurated in 1912. But unlike graduates of Gordon Memorial College, graduates of the institute were not on a track toward eventual service in a government administrative capacity. With the failure of state schools to provide enough places for students, and to subsequently train them for jobs in the administration, ma'hads (nongovernment institutes) proliferated and offered students a traditional Islamic education—an alternative to the administrative-track studentships offered in government sponsored institutions—but without the same potential for employment upon completion.

With little opportunity for profitable employment, the nationalist movement of the 1920s, and ever increasing perception that the Condominium administration's educational policy was more for the benefit of its own needs instead of the Sudanese populace, there were calls for reform. As a result of such pressure for reform, there were changes in the 1930s including the establishment of private schools, the coordination of educational policy with Egypt, and attempts to standardize the curricula of mission schools in the South. After World War II, there was expansion at all levels of education to deal with the growing numbers of students, such as the opening of postsecondary schools like the Khartoum Technical Institute, the Omdurman Higher Teachers' Training Institute, and a Khartoum branch of Cairo University, later to become the nationalized El Nileen University (University of the Two Niles) in 1992.

Prior to independence in 1956, the failures, disparities, and discontinuities of the educational system under the codomini powers became glaringly evident. Illiteracy was rampant, as high as 86 percent, and only 10-12 percent of eligible children were in primary school. With independence the nationalized government faced serious challenges in expanding and modernizing the educational system so that schooling would be available for all Sudanese, meeting the needs of a linguistically, culturally, and religiously diverse population. It would be easy to blame educational policy under the Condominium administration for the subsequent failures and problems encountered in the post independence era. And indeed, it has been argued

that Condominium policy reinforced disparities between northern and southern Sudan, between Arab and non-Arab, and Muslim and non-Muslim, the disparities that were to lead to the southern "problem" and the interminable civil warfare of the post independence era.

Education in the South

Both before and after the Mahdia, the southern educational policy was influenced by Christian missionary activities, and after the conquest of the Sudan, the Condominium administration was concerned with preventing a revival of Mahdisim and the spread of Islamic radicalism to the southern regions. The South was cut off from the North in terms of language planning policy, educational policy, and employment policy of the government administration that prevented northerners from taking up government posts in the South and vice versa.

Southern educational policy differed from northern policy in that Christian missionary organizations were responsible for educational development and planning in regional spheres of influence relegated to the various missionary societies. The South was economically backward and sparsely populated with a remarkable linguistic diversity among tribal populations, some of them nomadic. Amidst a suspicious xenophobia sown among southerners during the slave-trading eras, the Christian missionary groups met the social, educational, and developmental challenges of southern Sudan. The Verona Fathers (Comboni missionaries), the Church Missionary Society, and the American Presbyterian Mission divided the South into spheres of influence and proselytism under regulations established in 1905. The Catholic educators offered vocational, technical, and industrial training, whereas the Church Missionary Society and the American Presbyterian Mission focused in their educational planning on the development of literacy skills.

Unlike the educational system of the North, dominated by the modified Islamic religious institutions and government-sponsored kuttabs using Arabic as the medium of instruction, the southern schools employed English as the language of instruction, with the exception of Bahr al-Ghazal, where Arabic was used. The southern schools after Sudan's conquest were nearly all for boys except for several elementary schools established for girls. At the time of the conquest, when missionary activities were renewed after the Mahdist era, the missionary educators could not have foreseen the influence that their policies would have on the future sociopolitical dynamics of the

Sudan, the cleavages between north and south, Muslim and Christian, Arabs and non-Arabs, and "true" Muslims versus "other" Muslims. The challenges of working among varied and linguistically diverse tribal ethnic groups on a meager budget left little option but to adopt a common language for education. The pidgen Arabic that was common at the time could just as easily have been chosen, but Mahdist revivalism fears negated such an option. Perhaps one of the many tribal languages could have been used in education, but there could have been no unity of educational policy and planning, and who is to say whether such a choice would have been less divisive than adopting English? What is clear is that the adoption of a Western tongue, and the perception by northern Arab Muslims that this represented a foreign intrusion, later justified in the minds of Arab northerners the future programs of Arabization and Islamization in the name of Allah. It also legitimized the jihad against the southerners to expel the foreign influence from the Sudan, the imposition of Shari'a law, and the establishment of a state founded upon the platform of political Islam.

The Rejaf Language Conference of 1928 further legitimized the linguistic and educational policy that divided the North from the South and deepened the gap between the Arab Muslim north and the African Christian and Animist south. The educational system in the South expanded throughout the 1920s, but due to the differing spheres of influence and the different approaches of the missionary societies, there was a lack of uniformity in the South that highlighted not only the North-South divide, but also the interregional divides in the South.

Thus, the educational administration of the South being an indirect one under the Condominium administration seems to have prevented the interregional unity in the South that might have been achieved through a centrally coordinated policy of education. But although this indirect rule facilitated cleavages along religious, regional, and ethnic divides, progress was made in training Sudanese nationals for government service in the South, in facilitating development of literacy and technical vocational skills, and in raising the level of awareness of the southern Sudanese of themselves as a distinct entity from the North as indeed they had been even before the coming of the missionaries.

Whatever the failures or successes of the educational policy in the South in forestalling capitulation to northern aggression and the sword of political

Islam, the resulting divisions and cleavages underlined the fact that the southern Sudan was different from northern Sudan, and the people had visions of their destiny which differed sharply from the Islamic future that the northerners envisaged for the South. The northern Islamic elite viewed the south in a sense as their "lost brother" who needed to be brought back into the fold of Islam (Abdel Wahab El-Affendi 1990).

With the movements toward nationalism and independence in the 1930s and 1940s, the fears of the Condominium administration began to be realized—the way was being prepared for a post independence sociopolitical movement that advocated Islamization and Arabization of the entire Sudan. The sociopolitical impasses between North and South had been deepened through lack of unifying the country on principles other than exclusivist Islamism. It seemed that the advantages gained through the particular educational policies in the South were eclipsed altogether by the sociopolitical divisions. There was virtually no freedom of movement between North and South in terms of employment opportunities for the educational elite, and after independence it was the placement of southern troops under officers of northern origin that prompted mass mutiny and rebellion.

With the determination of the nationalists and Islamists to extend Islam into the South in the 1930s, the maturation of the discourse of independence, nationalism, Arabization, and Islamization was well underway. After independence in 1956, the educational backwardness and state of underdevelopment of the South in relation to the North prompted reforms oriented toward a strict policy of Islamization and Arabization to bring the southern regions into line with the Islamist vision for the newly independent Republic of the Sudan.

Post independence Arabization & Islamization: Since independence in 1956 the educational policy of the Sudan has been influenced by the ongoing program of Arabization and Islamization. But the Islamist vision has been shown to be incompatible with the ethnically and linguistically diverse populace of the Sudan, particularly the South. Ideally an Islamic state recognizes the rights of linguistic and ethnic minorities, and such a policy of minority recognition remains the stated official line of the Bashir regime as set forth in the constitution.

There are benefits to homogenization, but politicized educational policy has been disastrous for those who have resisted the eclipsing of their autonomous identity. In the displaced persons' camps, it seems that the Islamic relief agencies such as the Islamic African Relief Agency of the 1980s and the Da'wa Islamia, working under the aegis of the NIF and government sponsorship, have been more concerned with religious "needs" than physical needs. The services provided by Islamic relief agencies have been woefully inadequate, not meeting the basic food and health needs of refugees, and the services have been manipulated to "encourage" conversion to Islam. The main focus of Da'wa Islamia, as Peterson (1999) notes, was the providing of schools at the relief camps so that displaced children could be taught according to the Islamic curriculum of the Khartoum regime.

Through education, the Arab Umma hopes to regain the ascendancy now being usurped by the West. In Sudan the Islamists are using education to further religious doctrine, and they are manipulating the government social services apparatus toward that end. As Peterson (1999) has observed, "Islamists in charge have a firm grip on power," they are "unlikely to be displaced in the foreseeable future" and they intend to "Islamize all of Sudan. . .spread their brand of political Islam far and wide. . .[and] they will pursue a strategy of dividing and overcoming those Sudanese who oppose them, and they will work to gain support from groups and individuals in the United States and Western Europe in order to soften or end policies unfavorable to Sudan." Caught right in the middle of the conflict surrounding Khartoum's policies and programs are the children of Sudan. In 1995 a Nuba refugee named Yusuf said "The intent of the Government is complete and utter elimination of Nuba culture. Its intent is not new. I myself believed I was an Arab until high secondary school; that is what we were taught. . . .Our great concern is for our children. For the last eight years, since 1987, there has been no education for children" (Winter 2000).

Welfare policy

In Sudan land was divided into tribal homelands which are visible in contemporary maps and they demonstrate the link between tribal identity and geography that continues today

Distribution of social services such as markets, schools, and health centres in accordance to the traditional homeland

Resettlement of minority into bigger homeland but be submissive to the chiefs of the homeland

Free access to water points and grazing points once you belong to the that homeland

Executive order as a characteristic representation of social policy inherent in on Sudan land policy

They enforced accumulation of land investors which would boost the economy of Sudan. This was done through encouraging both the local and foreign investors.

They also encouraged mechanized farming as per the 1990 investment Act. According to the executive summary there would be consultations that bring in all constituencies that bring core issues of land tenure grazing rights and representation of women. Agreement on appropriate land available, allow access and improvements to air strips.

The divisions of land into home lands of clans and tribal groups who have monopolized access to natural resources while minority tribe have been denied the rights of ownership of land. This has been the sours of constant attempts to get land by force.

Many social services have also been located in certain homelands where other people are restricted from getting services from them because they are not members in such homelands. Thus the division of land was ineffective.

There has also been implementation of redevelopment policy through agriculture expansion by use of mechanized farming which has led to displacement of people therefore leading to a culture of land grassing and creating large landless group of people who have migrated into urban centres for precarious labor.

The Sudanese government adopted mechanized farming which is allocation of land on a large scale, using machines such as tractors. This type of farming creates labor jobs to people and there discourages fragmentation of land

There is negotiation and peace between non Africans and Arabs there was also creation of peace through negotiation between the governments of Sudan to make appropriate land available

The division of Sudan land by colonial administrators in 1923 into tribal homeland are Clearly visible into the contemporary maps which exists in geography of Sudan up today

There is also expansion of agriculture especially mechanized farming where by 2005 total land under mechanization had increased fifteen folds

Policy evaluation

This was done through the ontology question

The 1970 act led to dislocation of people from their land marginalized social repression therefore fostering a culture of precarious wage laborers and rural urban migration

Most African access loans through collateral securities such as land but for land divided into tribal basis cannot be used therefore living people in poverty as they cannot access loans.

iv) Social policy as frame work for action

The government introduced 1990 investment, 1970 unregistered land act and the development policy also by 1970 these provided power and rights to investors to carry out their farming activities

Institutional framework

Sudanese land policy is implemented through the development policy for example introduction of mechanized farming

Social policy as process

It took five stages as shown below;

i.) Identification of social problems or assessing of existing conditions which could be either by participatory rural appraisal

According to Sudanese division of land since the colonial administrators in 1926 tribal homelands were adopted since most African societies were communications can therefore cherished living in groups and would share grazing land water points and the fringe benefits in that land.

ii) Policy proposal as the second stage

The epistemology paradigm and the arm of government led to the formulation of the 1970 unregistered land act which encouraged the accumulation of land by investors this cancelled grazing rights of pastoralists as this people keep on wondering all parts of Sudan therefore it was important to allocate this land to investors who would bring huge sums of revenue to the state

iii. Policy formulation

The government of Sudan under this policy formulation was done through the 1970 act of implanting of a development plan based on expansion of agriculture and the unregistered land act which gave powers to all these new policies on land.

Social Justice advocates extensive basic liberty compatible with similar liberty to others in totality

according to this policy principle Sudan's land policy does not advocate for social justice as it witnessed in the accusation of land by minority rich investors, local and foreign at the expense of traditional homeland owners whose juridical status to traditional property were cancelled.

Principles of Social policy in the education policy of Sudan

Social equality

The 1965 Nuba mountains union advocated for land policy that would benefit indigenous farmers and eradicated the feudalistic land policies

Provision of social services in the homeland water points, schools health centres

Minority groups who did not have land were also integrated with the land of a particular clan. International community provide funding and expertise on fields of arbitration mediation and conciliation and avoiding conflicts between customary and statutory norms collation and consolidation of all existing customary norms are made a priority legal consolidation and participatory an legal information and legal aid is provided to illiterate communities and women.

Massaleit homeland in Sudan was also a home of the Arab group where welcomed and decided to live with the Massaleit in that homeland and enjoyed autonomy.

Social control

The government safeguarded its land for example the unregistered land act entitled the government to safeguard land and accumulate it for investment.

The main instruments of land use management during the six year interim period was the land commissions in the conflict affected areas of southern Kordofan and Blue Nile. The commission are required to coordinate their activities and set guidelines for the resolution of conflicts, consultation on land use practices.

The uncertainties concerning the nature of the law upon which abstraction will be based and recognition of customary law ,

enforceability of awards on land, alternative for redress in case a commissions refuse to consider a claim and possibilities for appeal if the national and southern commissions fails to resolve a disagreement, the matter is to be referred to the constitutional court will base its decision upon statutory or customary legislation or equity principles.

Water policy in Sudan

The international dimension as it shares water resources with its neighbors Water policy is a dynamic process which needs to be reviewed from time to time and it's takes into consideration of the previous policies, changes in supply and demand parameters and advancement in knowledge and alternations in the surrounding environment.

The Sudan is central with in the ten Nile basin countries, the 3 major tributaries meet inside Sudan and the Nile flows hence to Egypt as a single river that's to say; Gash, Baraka and Azoom the Nubian sand stone aquifer is shared with Chad, Egypt and Libya therefore the national water resources policy affects countries sharing the same water resources system.

Sudan under the British rule made bilateral treaties and agreements with neighboring countries such as Egypt and Ethiopia. After independence came the 1959 agreement with Egypt. The permanent joint technical committee, (PJTC) was formed to preside on the application of that agreement. As a result of joint efforts initiated by the Sudan and Egypt, and supported by United nation development programme (UNDP) the hydrometer project o the equatorial lakes was started in 1967 and continued to 1992.

Water as part of every living thing it was large to be contained under on the umbrella, the ministry of irrigation and water resource (MOIWR) to assess, monitor, development and management of the Nile waters.

Meteorological data and information are catered for through a public cooperation.

Another step taken by the government recently was the formation of the national council for water resource (NCWR) which headed by H.E. The minister of Ministry of irrigation and water resources (MOIWR) and includes representatives of stake holders from the supply and demand sides, legal, financial, international relations, research and training and the related private sector having the main objective of formulating common water resource development.

Adoption of a free market economy, privatization and decentralization systems. Farmers associations have now the upper hand in the funding and management of irrigated schemes co-operatives and the private sector are encouraged to own and operate such schemes. There also been legislation of water resources systems such as the water hyacinth control act of 1960 the gash basin water development and utilization act 1992 and other but a few to mention.

The battle of competing truth and its impact on Sudanese water policy

There are three crises that dwindle fresh water supplies and they include inequitable access to water and the corporate control of water. These three pose the greatest threat of our time to planet and to our survivor I impending climate change from fossil fuel emissions.

Water in Sudan is shared by more than two countries creating tension over ownership and use of the precious waters that they contain.

This has caused disagreements and violence thus fulfilling what the Britain's former defense secretary, John Reld, warns of coming "water wars"

Water has also a problem of sedimentation in reservoirs and canals, difficulties in harvesting the flow of seasonal streams and abstracting ground water.

Water policies have also caused environmental issues such as growth of aquatic weeds in canals and tsetse fly in the south Any conservation projects to increase the Nile flow by decreasing evaporation losses in the Southern swamps is bind to have environmental impact on the fauna and flora, the established ecosystem and human life.

Sudan is a water stressed country and is likely ton continue to be so for the foreseeable future and such a stress is imposing severe constraints on the social economic development and any environmental protection measures by the country

Statute Law and water policy development

Sudan water resources system has got many laws and regulations which have been drafted over the years to deal with the use of water/ This include the Nile pump control act 1939, the river transport act 1950, the water hyacinth control act 1960 the regulation of inland river navigation act 1980, the gash basin water development and utilization act 1992 the Wadi Nyala water development and utilization order 1993 the water resources Act. 1996.

These have provided good ground for policy makers to enforce the water policy in Sudan.

Water is headed by the ministry irrigation water resources which are responsible for monitoring, assessment, development and management of the Nile waters and some other major shared streams, like Gash and Barka Responsibility for other streams and drinking water facilities used to be under other countries.

In the major step towards closer co-ordination these responsibilities together with ground water affairs were brought within the responsibilities of MDIWR at the start of this decade.

Meteorological data and information are catered for through a public corporation under the ministry of Aviation this is close coordination between that public corporation and Ministry of water irrigation and resources

The national council for water resources which is headed by H.E Minister of Moiwr and includes representatives of the stake holders.

The NCWR has the Technical water resources organ as its immediate executing institution.

Sudan has recently taken some major steps to organize the water sector the first step was putting the monitoring formation of the national council for water resources. And the third was decentralization and active participation of users

Welfare policy in the water policy of Sudan

There over all efficiency for irrigation in the Sudan is high according Elawad 1991 it showed that 85% was for Gezira schemes which consume about 40% of the present abstraction of the country “ This efficiency is attributed to the skills of the operation system.

Rivers and streams growing from the Ethiopian highlands and those seasonal ones origination inside the Sudan some times, flooded the fertile plans around them and the erode their banks causing loss of life, property and agricultural land.

As flood protection and bank stabilization could be catty an early flood warning system was established by the ministry of irrigation and water resources. This helped in mitigating the effects of floods in 1994 and 1996.

There has been also formation specialized committee wit in NCWR to rev law laws and regulation in the light of holistic approach to water sector policies such as abstraction from seasonal non Nile streams ground water and regional water affairs under the federal system

There were major changes when the Sudan adopted f free market economy, privatization and decentralization system.

Farmers now have upper hand in the funding and management of irrigated schemes operating, management and development of water supply for small and medium sized irrigated schemes are totally under the responsibility of the local community.

Treaty Signing between Sudan and Egypt supported by UNDP where the hydrometer project on the equatorial lakes where started in 1967 and continued to 1992 and this has Leal – to equitable, sustainable benefit of all the riparian countries.

This is dynamic collectiveness as opposed to individualism.

Water policies are complex as water goes beyond its sectors to involve many to her sectors and may be beyond the international boundaries. A number of the united nations conference stressed the idea that policy makers are requested in adopt a holistic approach by recognizing the interrelationship between the different components of water resources system.

More than 60% of the area of the Sudan lies with in the Nile basing , any water that flows to the Nile in that areas considered as part of the Nile in that areas is considered as part of the Nile waters of which the Sudan can only abstract with in its share according to the 1959 Nile waters agreement with Egypt.

There has also flood protection and stabilization we was costly but on early flood warning system was recently put in place to prevent floods affecting all the people especially in 1994 and 1996. The was policy done by formulation the financial, international relations, research and training agencies and stake holders.

Identification of the problem

Through epistemology basing on the total amount of fresh water from internal and external sources which is about $30 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^3$ / year was only devoted for agriculture yet there was increasing expansion in urbanization and industrialization which need a lot of water thus this

called for need to have a water policy which would cover up all sectors of the Sudan government.

There were also physical constraints such as limitation in the availability of water, the inadequate storage facilities, sedimentation and others.

Policy Proposal

As the Sudan shared water resources with its neighbors, its water policy had to reflect the international dimension and advance cooperation with the Nile basin countries for the integrated development of the shared water course.

There was also need to form a joint management committee of other common surface and ground water resources.

Water policy as a product

The Nile waters in Sudan which is shared by Egypt reduce evaporation losses from the Swamps.

The area of the Sudan is 250 million ha where two thirds of that areas is either a rid or semi a rid land with rain fall less than 400 mm annually but because of irrigation schemes Sudan has been able to carry out agriculture and secure food and cash crops.

There has been exchange of information and bilateral efforts, the water shed management that wildlife protects on and hydro power linkages there has been water harvesting along the shared water courses.

Selection of crop varieties that produce more research and public awareness of the water value has been enforced.

Monitoring of the application of policies and strategies have been institutionalized through adequate inspection and feed- back system whereby the council plays a role of a watch dog through its executive body.

Water policy as a process

These include the formation of national council of water with representatives which formulated common water resources development programme.

There was also legislation of water by drafting laws.

There has been a water legislation where by many laws and regulation where by many laws and regulations have been drafted over the years to deal with the use and protection of the water resources systems this include among others. The Nile pump control act of 1939, The irrigation and drainage control act of 1990 Wads, Nyala water development and utilization order of 1993 the water resource act o 1996.

Regulatory frame work

Recently, free- market economy, privatization and decentralization system was adopted where farmers associations have an upper hand in the funding and management of irrigated schemes

Operational management and developmental benefit in the water supply for small and medium sized irrigated schemes are totally under the responsibility of the local community.

Co-operatives and private sector are encouraged to own and operate such schemes.

Institutional Frame work

There is the national council for water resources which is headed by the of ministry of irrigation water resource, and includes representatives of the stakeholders form the supply and demand sides and their main objective is to formulate common water resource development policies.

The National council for water resources also has a technical water resource organ

(TWRU) as its immediate executing institution There is also the ministry of Aviation which gives information on meteorological data and it keeps a case co-ordination between the public co-operation and ministry of irrigation water resource (MOIWR).

Water policy as planning

This is concerned with equitable distribution of water and in Sudan this was done by decentralization system in which farmers can fund and manage irrigated schemes for the four large national irrigated schemes a public co-corporation was founded within MOIWR. To manage the irrigation system in a cost recovery basis, founded by the farmers.

All Sudanese have access to water for their crops including the local community who activate on small scale.

There is a public co-operation under the ministry of irrigation water resources that manage the irrigation system on a cost recovery basis founded by farmers to ensure that every one gets water because it's under the government as opposed to the private policy management.

There has been formation of co-operatives that can own and operate irrigation schemes.

People in Sudan have been given a liberty to manage and control water resources systems through decentralization Farmers have also formed associations to fund and manage the irrigated schemes. There are many laws and regulations for the protection and use of water resources system and a specialized committee has been formed within national council for water resources to review these laws and regulations in the light of a holistic approach to water sector policies.

CAPTER SEVENTEEN

Tanzania health policy

The overall objective of the 1990 National Health Policy was to improve the well-being of all Tanzanians, with a focus on those most at risk and to encourage the health system to be more responsive to the needs of the people.

This was formulated in an overarching goal aiming to improved survival, health and well-being of all children and women and especially the vulnerable groups.

The new 2003 National Health Policy links up with the government development vision and expands on the scope of the health sector policy to include new aspects of human health. The overarching visions spelled out in the 2003 policy are;

Access to quality health care for all was expressed as thus:

Access to quality reproductive health services for all individuals of appropriate ages.

Universal access to clean and safe water

Gender equality and empowerment of women's in all health parameter

As part of attaining the above visions, the health sector share of the total government budget is set to rise to 14% as compared to 11% in 2003.

In order to achieve the government development vision within the health sector, the 2003 health policy defines the following objectives;

To reduce the burden of disease, maternal and infant mortality and increase life expectancy through the improvement of health services, sanitation, nutrition and disease control.

Sensitize the community on common preventable health problems, and improve capacity at all levels to take appropriate action and encourage community involvement.

Create awareness through family health promotion that the responsibility for ones health rests in the individual as an integral part of the family, community and nation.

Ensure health services accessibility to all people.

Tanzanian's health policies always reflect the times

It is now increasingly common to speak of a reflection of the times during which a policy was formulated to identify circumstances that adversely affected the population in the following ways. Again there may be a risk of confusion because the healthy policy aimed at improving the health status of all people wherever they are, in urban and rural areas by reducing morbidity and mortality and raising life expectancy.

The health policy emanates from the history of health services in this country since independence. Before independence health services were established in urban areas and were mainly curative. The colonial government did not make any efforts to develop health services in the rural areas. After independence, health services plans were considered an integral part of the overall national development plans. The government approved the first five year development plan (1964-1969) with section of health. In a speech delivered in parliament on 12th May 1964, in relation to the plan, the first president, Mwalimu Julius Nyerere outlined some objectives like to increase the per capita income of the population and to be self sufficient in health personal requirement.

One of the goals of this plan was to establish a regional hospital, to provide specialist and surgical medical care in all regions.

However it was realized that, the goal of establishing a 200 bed hospital in each district was not feasible. Psychiatric patients were treated in regional hospitals to supplement the psychiatric services offered by Mirembe, Lutindi and Muhimbili hospital.

In 1969-1974 the second five year development plan was developed which emphasized the policy of self reliance and equitable distribution and access to various social services and resources in the country. A major step in this plan was the direction of health services towards preventive services to curb the spread of communicable diseases.

The government planned to construct 80 new health centers during the plan period and 100 dispensaries per five year plan, the target being one health centre for every 5000 people and one dispensary for every 10,000 people by the year 1985. Training personnel was to go hand in hand with the expansion of health services.

This second year development plan was more successful because the government had gained some experience from the first five year plan.

The objective of the third five year development plan (1967-1198) were to provide clean water, health services in urban and rural areas and to establish a universal primary education (UPE) programme. The objectives were vital in the implementation of a primary health care approach which was declared internationally in Alma Ata USSR in 1978. The objectives of the first, second and third five year development plans have contributed in the implementation primary health care with the goal of health for all by the year 2000.

The government gave priority to the following areas;

Construction of health center, dispensaries, expansion and strengthening of preventive services, provision of adult education and provision of education materials.

This was the beginning of cooperation with other sectors involved in implementation of primary health care.

The social sector is of great importance in the economic development of the country and the improvement of health services is a prerequisite. For example achievement of the objective of “economic self-reliance”, envisaged in the 3rd five year development plan depends on success of the social sector.

In implementation of the third five year plan, the government spent 9.4% of the development budget on health services (1970's) by the end of this five year plan there were 149 hospitals, 230 health centres and 2,644 dispensaries. On average 93% of the population were within a distance of health facility. At present there are 98 hospitals (including designated ones), 16 regional hospitals, 65 other hospitals and 4 referral hospitals and which have specialist and consultants in various disciplines. TB and psychiatric patients are attended at district and regional hospitals (to supplement services provided at the special hospitals- Kibong'oto, Mirembe and Muhimbili) maternal and child health clinics are conducted in all health facilities. Success has been recorded in the reduction of morbidity and mortality due to six immunizable child disease and death arising from the six (preventable) childhood diseases.

Training of personnel was done hand in hand with the expansion of health services so as to satisfy the requirements at the different health care levels.

The health policy in Tanzania presents the policy of a political process

The government of Tanzania follows the policy reliance. The ruling party gives guidance for the country's development. Achievement attained in the

health sector are a result of the party guidelines in the 1967 Arusha declaration and other party and government directives as outlined in the development plan. The 15 year party programme (1987-22) and other party guidelines on economic development have reiterated the need to improve and maintain quality health care services for the whole population.

Legal forms that can be identified in Tanzania's land policy

Statute law as a legal form in Tanzania health policy is a very powerful form of public policy and is considered a fundamental way of designing and implementing social policies.

The overall objective of the health policy in Tanzania is to improve the health and well-being of all Tanzanians with a focus on those most at risk, and to encourage health system to be more responsive to the needs of the people.

Reduce infant and maternal morbidity and mortality and increase life expectancy through the provision of adequate nutrition, control of communicable diseases and treatment of common conditions.

Ensure that health services are available and accessible to all people wherever they are in the country, whether in urban or rural areas.

Executive order as a type of social policy legal form in the Tanzanian health policy

This is a powerful form of policy making which revolves around the executive arm of government with the following actors like cabinet ministers and the president. It is always the force behind dual control of public funds and the action of workers in the administrative branch of government units.

The central government finances the health services in these ways;

The ministry of health provides funds to the referral hospital and the medical schools. It also provides funds to its parastatals such as the Tanzania food and nutrition centre (TFNC) and national institute for medical research (NMR). The Ministry drives subventions to Bugando hospital and other designed hospitals belonging to the religious organizations.

The prime ministers office provides funds for the running of regional and district hospitals including salaries for their employees.

At the same time the office of the prime minister gives subventions to the local councils for the salaries of running health centres and dispensaries.

The administrative policy

In the Tanzanian health policy, there is a legal form where health services are currently provided according to an administration set up starting from village level. There are village health posts, ward level, community dispensaries at divisional level and rural health centers. At district level, there are district designated hospitals and at regional level and referral level there are referral/consultant hospital. The different levels can be characterized as follows;

Village health service- This is the lowest care delivery in the country, which essentially provide preventive services which can be offered in homes. Usually each village health post has two village workers chosen by the village government amongst the villagers and who is given a short training before they start providing services.

Dispensary services – This is the second stage of health services which caters for 6,000 to 10,000 people and supervises all the village health post in its ward.

Health care services – a health centre is expected to cater for 50,000 people which are approximately the population of one administrative division.

District hospitals- The district is a very important level in the provision of health services in the country and each district is supposed to have district hospital. For those districts which do not have the government normally negotiates with religious organizations to designate voluntary hospitals which get subsidized to make health services available.

Regional hospitals- Every region is supposed to have a hospital which offers similar services to those at district level. However regional hospitals have specialist in various fields and offer additional which are not provided at district hospitals.

Referral/consultant hospitals- This is the highest level of hospital services in the country, of which presently there are four, the Muhimbili national hospital, which caters for the eastern one, Kilimanjaro Christian medical centre (KCMI) which caters for the Northern zone, and Mbeya hospital which serves the Southern highlands.

Welfare policies as a characteristic form in the health policy of Tanzania

These were the main domain of social policy planning and they used to put a high premium on the promotion of public/common good as illustrated below in the following elements;

Health education is an integral part of community involvement in primary health care. The health of the individual, the family and community at large is dependant upon such factors as environment, social, cultural traditions and life style. The individual and the community are in position to change the environment and his/her behavior to the betterment of the health status of the society provided that society has the necessary information towards health promotion and disease prevention.

Health education needs to be strengthened and address issues related to agricultural development child upbringing, environmental, sanitation and development in general. School children shall be made a special target group health education through the school health programme. Health education will be provided by a variety of methods including mass media, continuous and dissemination of health education materials, through dialogue with communities. The organizational structure of health education is strengthened through decentralization.

Food and Nutrition. Adequate intake of nutritious food is essential for the promotion and maintenance of physical and mental health. A good nutritional state will enable individual and families to lead socially and economically productive in activities which promote household food security must be supported and nutritional disease should be prevented or detected and treated early.

The Tanzania food and nutrition centre under ministry of health in collaboration with the ministry of agriculture is responsible for this area and has developed a comprehensive nutrition policy to guide the implementation of this health policy.

Adequate supply water and basic sanitation

Water borne diseases are among the major health problems in this country. The aim of the government will be to provide sufficient quantities of water to households, encourage safe basic hygienic practices in families, promote construction of latrines and there use in all households, health facilities and educational institutions, encourage maintenance of clean environment

around houses and village institutions, provide water sources at all health facilities and primary schools so as to coordinate this with health education. Essentially these aims will be reached health education as well through the provision of water to the villages and to institutions. The ministry of health will work closely together to achieve these aims.

The national health education is mainly concerned with identifying prevailing health problems and disseminating to the public methods of preventing controlling them. This is an integral part of community involvement in primary health care it is assumed that the health of an individual, the family and community at large is dependant upon factors as environment, social, cultural tradition and life styles, hence public health education focuses to strengthen and address issues related to agricultural development, child up bringing, environmental sanitation and development in general. For instance school children are special target group for health education is provided by a variety of methods including mass media, continuous development and dissemination of health education materials and through dialogue with communities.

There are several medical training schools offering health professional training for various medical cadres. The aim of the government is to train adequate numbers of qualified and motivated medical personnel at all levels of the health care systems.

To ensure productive health the national family planning programme is an umbrella programme of all family planning activities provided by various agencies. This programme is coordinated by the reproductive and child health unit of the ministry of health. The government formally started providing family planning services in the mid seventies. The family planning unit was operational by 1986, and has been gradually strengthened to its present capacity. This family planning unit is responsible for initiating and developing family planning standards and guideline on service provision, training and other aspect of quality care.

The social policy perspectives which were used in designing and implementation of the health policy in the following ways;

Implementation of the health policy will be supervised by the ministry of health at national level. Because of decentralization, the policy at regional and district levels will be supervised by the regional and district authorities according to guidelines from the ministry of health. The implementation of

the policy, the ministry will co-ordinate with the ministries of water, agriculture and education, NGO's, international organizations, the political parties and the private sector. Guidelines for the implementation of various sections of the policy have been prepared and are in use. Other guidelines will be issued from time to time as need arises.

In order to achieve the objectives of the policy, the government will give special directives on some issues of the policy so as to give a legal position. The ministry in collaboration with the planning commission will develop implementation guidelines. The ministry will evaluate the efficiency of leadership at various stages and shortcomings in implementation will be rectified.

Social policy as a product

The primary health care is the cornerstone of the healthy policy. In 1978 the world health assembly passed the Alma Ata declaration on health for all by the year 2000. This social goal can only be attained through the implementation of primary health care. Tanzania has already started implementing the goal of health for all after the Arusha declaration of 1967.

Another health perspective as a philosophy have been adhered to when primary health care has become as essential strategy based on practical, scientifically sound and social acceptable methods and technology, made universally accessible to individuals and families in the community through their full participation and at a cost that the community and country can afford to maintain at every stage of their development in the spirit of self reliance and self determination it forms an integral part both of the country's health system of which it is the central function and main focus, and of the overall social and economic development of the community. It involves other sectors such as water, education and so on.

The ministry of health has the responsibility of supervising health policy implementation at national level. The decentralization policy facilitates supervision of health services at regional and district levels will be supervised by the regional district authorities according to guidelines from the ministry of health.

Another perspective is promoting awareness in the government and the community at large that health problems can only be adequate solved

through multi sectoral, involving such sector as education, water and sanitation.

The role of health policy in the poverty reduction strategy

The poverty reduction strategy sets the budgetary frame work for the health sector as well as quantitative targets for service extensions, while the health policy focuses on governance and regulatory framework as well as capacity development and awareness creation.

The poverty reduction states that the ministry of health budget to target cost effective interventions such as immunization of children fewer than 2 years of age, reproductive and child health including family planning and control of malaria, HIV/IDS.

The majority of the poor and specifically the rural poor suffer from the above and other preventable conditions. The ministry will increase resource allocation to address the cost effective interventions, while at the same time join hands with other stake holders, the communities and development partners to re-orient the services to be more responsive to the needs of the population and specifically targeting the indigent and the vulnerable groups.

Together with the poverty reduction strategy, the objective of the national health policy will be achieved through the following strategies;

Strengthening of district health services so that essential clinical and public health packages are provided at the local level. Among other relevant characteristics of the health policy is the strengthening of the referral system so that it is efficient and cost effective from the household to the national level.

Adoption of diversified complementary health care financing options, involving public-private partnership and other resources, and ensure availability of required logistics and support services which are affordable and accessible to every citizen.

Enhancement of capacity building involves implementing a comprehensive human resource development plan that can facilitate deployment and retention of well-trained and motivated staff at the appropriate health service at different levels.

Creation of public awareness at all levels through on preventable public health problems and the need for active community involvement in taking care of their own wealth.

Ensure representation of stakeholders and communities in health service delivery.

Health policy in Tanzania and the principles of social planning

It has been the policy of the government to offer free medical services in all hospitals and health centers and this has been a big burden on the government. At the time being the government's financial capability to finance all health services is decreasing and it is not possible to meet the ever increasing costs. The government is looking into ways of how the people can contribute in paying for some of the health services so as to minimize its burden.

The health policy used the principle of social equality principle to link up with the government development vision and expands on the scope of health sector policy through access to quality reproductive health services for all individuals of appropriate ages and accessing quality primary health care for all.

Religious organizations use the principle of social control during the provision of health services in Tanzania. So far, if designated hospitals and two referral hospitals belong to religious organization. These hospitals are being run under special agreements between the government and respective missionary organizations. There are several religious organizations' hospitals which get government funding under the grants-in-aid programme. This mainly covers hospital beds and medical personnel. Recently non-traditional organizations have started providing health services to the public.

Zimbabwe environment policy

The current environmental concerns in Zimbabwe are as a result of human activities threatening the environment. The present distribution of population, which is the legacy from the colonial era, has had major environmental consequences. The large scale commercial farmers occupy most of the fertile highlands, while the majority of the population lives in the less productive communal areas that cover almost half of the country's land area, suffer from severe environmental degradation.

Zimbabwe is one of the leading countries in Africa in terms of work on the environment. Therefore, this takes lead from all the three arms of the government that is to say the Judiciary, the executive and the legislature. Environmental awareness is generally high, and a number of legislative acts deal with the need to protect the resource base. It is believed that there is no lack of environmental legislation per se, but the existing regulations are fragmented though and difficult to enforce.

The battle of competing truths

The country is relatively well endowed with natural resources (forest, agricultural lands, livestock, water resources, wildlife and minerals). The problems associated with the management of these resources are common to many African countries, for instance overgrazing, deforestation and soil erosion. Environmental degradation in the communal and resettled areas is a result of an increasing land shortage and poor management practices combined with a land tenure system that promotes overgrazing. Zimbabwe has a well-developed and diversified industrial sector, but particularly the mining sector has damaged the environment. The unregulated establishment of mines has created large waste dumps, and runoff from these has contaminated soil and water bodies. It has also an economically important wild life although some species are endangered due to habitat destruction; the country's rich wildlife resources have been well managed. Further, migration from the rural areas to the urban centres has led to overcrowding, but in contrast, urban sanitation is adequate.

Statute law and the environment policy in Zimbabwe

The most important piece of legislation is the Natural Resource Act whose main objective is to control the use of resources. However, despite the fact that the government has several acts such as the Mines and Minerals Act, the Hazardous Substances and Articles Act, Atmospheric Pollution Prevention Act, the Water Act, and so on, there have been poor and controversial implementations of some of the laws taking a legal form. Generally, the enforcement of some of these acts is difficult due to the provision of exemptions that allow companies to pollute. In some cases, the various pieces of legislation are conflicting, which leads to problems of implementation. In other words, there is no lack of legislation per se, but the various laws are fragmented and a coherent national environmental policy in the form of umbrella legislation, has not yet been developed.

One of the prominent and more interesting features of the Zimbabwe legislation is how the law has formalized popular participation. In some instances ministries are supposed to take the views of then local communities, (for example, district development committees, statutory local wildlife committees), into account before making decisions concerning the use of natural resources. A closely related legal innovation concerns the management of wildlife resources. The utilization of these resources is carefully regulated, even on private land. Thus, a landowner needs to license in order to hunt specific animals on his own land.

In view of the disparate and fragmented existing laws, stakeholders from the various sectors advocated for Government to take steps to rationalise all the environmental legislation. In response, the Cabinet directed the Ministry of Mines, Environment and Tourism in 1995 to review the environment legislation.

Indeed the government and several other partners involved in issues of environment like the Zimbabwe Environmental Law Association (ZELA) and others are improve the environment protection, water and sanitation. Environmentally sensitive areas have been designed and gazetted as national parks and forest reserves that can bring rainfall.

The local communities form a large voluntary group in carrying our environment related activities for example the district development committees, statutory local wildlife committees, residents forming community based groups to spearhead waste collection efforts. People form these community groups with a passion for the environment that also want to earn a living from waste recycling and reuse.

The environmental policy for Zimbabwe would fit in the implementation stage of the policy making process. This is because there have been a number of fragmented policy documents, Acts, that have been dormant. If all these documents can be merged make a legal and workable national environmental policy that should be made as a statutory tool for the government that can be legally enforced and implemented.

Epistemologically and ontologically details of how the environment has been degraded is clearly demonstrated for example the mining sector (the diversified industrial sector) has damaged the environment. There are unregulated establishment of mines that created large waste dumps and runoff from these have contaminated soil and water bodies. All these are

proven facts on ground that can be used to come up with a comprehensive environmental policy.

Social policy principles

Statute law in the environment policy of Zimbabwe

The law must ensure that improvement on environment; water and sanitation need to be equally and carefully planned and implemented to the majority poor who live in the less productive communal areas. The communal lands, which encompass almost half of the country's land area, suffer from severe environmental degradation.

The Zimbabwe environmental Law Association seeks to provide strategic environmental law advice, training, research services and public interest litigation to disadvantage communities. They strive for environmental justice and the attainment of a society where people are able to access and use natural resources in an equitable and sustainable manner.

Pastureland has been treated differently, and no exclusive individual use rights are granted. All of this common land was available to all the members of the tribe for animal grazing, without any major restrictions.

National Environmental Policy of Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe's National Environmental Policy is closely linked to its overall development policy and plans. Although this development model has been considered relatively successful, much of the country's natural resource base is being threatened by human activities. The present distribution of population, which is legacy from the colonial era, has had major environmental consequences. Large-scale commercial farmers occupy most of the fertile highlands, while the majority of the population lives in the less productive communal areas. The communal lands, which encompass almost half of the country's land area, suffer from severe environmental degradation.

The country is relatively well endowed with natural resources (forest, agricultural lands, livestock, water resources, wildlife and minerals). The problems associated with the management of these resources are common to many African countries, for instance overgrazing, deforestation and soil erosion. Environmental degradation in the communal and resettled areas is a result of an increasing land shortage and poor management practices combined with a land tenure system which promotes overgrazing.

Zimbabwe has a well developed and diversified industrial sector, but particularly the mining sector has damaged the environment. The unregulated establishment of mines has created large waste dumps, and runoff from these has contaminated soil and water bodies. Further, migration from the rural areas to the urban centers has led to overcrowding, but in contrast to other countries in the region, urban sanitation is adequate.

In many respects, Zimbabwe is one of the leading countries in Africa in terms of work on the environment. This for example is reflected in the economically important wildlife sector. Although some species are endangered due to habitat destruction, the country's rich wildlife resources have been well managed. A number of innovations, which have promoted sustainable utilization of wildlife, could serve as a model for other countries. Environmentally sensitive areas have been designed and gazetted as national parks and forest reserves. However, the resource bases in the communal and resettled areas are threatened, and the government recognizes the need to introduce a more systematic approach to land resettlement.

Environmental awareness is generally high, and a number of legislative acts deal with the need to protect the resource base. There is no lack of environmental legislation per se, but existing regulations are fragmented and difficult to enforce. This is also reflected in the large number of ministries responsible for enforcing environmental legislation. The National Response Conference to the Rio Earth Summit convened in Harare in late 1992 presented an elaborate set of future priorities. Building upon the National Conservation Strategy of 1987, the government is planning to develop a comprehensive Action Plan for the Environment.

Environmental Legislation and Institutions The environmental legislation of Zimbabwe will be examined in this chapter followed by a discussion of the main institutions that are responsible for its implementation. Environmental institutions have been broadly defined in this context, to include local institutions and NGOs in cases where these play an important role in environmental work.

The most important piece of legislation is the Natural Resources Act whose main objective is to control the use of resources. However, it cannot be applied in the communal areas which cover about half of the total land area of Zimbabwe, since it is enforced via legal title to land. The land tenure system in the communal areas is based upon traditional usufruct rights, which makes the act ineffective in areas where it is needed the most. A

number of other acts were originally made for the commercial areas, and are thus not suitable for the communal lands.

The implementation of the Mines and Minerals Act has also become quite controversial. Exploring the land resources for mining can supersede the right of some one already using the land for farming, without any compensation to the farmer. Once a mining claim is pegged all other acts cannot be considered. Suppression may be an acceptable feature of a legal system, however the suppression of a sustainable land use such as agriculture by surface mining that is dependent upon a non-renewable resource is a questionable practice from an environmental point of view. It has further proved difficult to enforce land reclamation after mining operations have ceased.

The country has adequate expertise capable of monitoring natural resource degradation, but less so far the regulation of industrial pollutants in the atmosphere and in water bodies. The implementation of the relevant acts (Hazardous Substances and Articles Act, Atmospheric Pollution Prevention Act and the Water Act) is dependent on accurate monitoring, which the government has not been able to carry out systematically due to lack of qualified manpower.

Generally, the enforcement of some of these acts is difficult due to the provision of exemptions which allow companies to pollute, in some cases; the various pieces of legislation are conflicting, which leads to further problems of implementation. In other words, there is no lack of legislation per se, but the various laws are fragmented and a coherent national environmental policy in the form of umbrella legislation, has not yet been developed. One of the prominent and more interesting features of the Zimbabwe legislation is how the law has formalized popular participation. In some instances ministries are supposed to take the views of then local communities, (for example, district development committees, statutory local wildlife committees), into account before making decisions concerning the use of natural resources. A closely related legal innovation concerns the management of wildlife resources. The utilization of these resources is carefully regulated, even on private land. Thus, a landowner needs to license in order to hunt specific animals on his own land. Treaties and Conventions

Zimbabwe is presently a party to the following treaties and conventions:

- 1 Convention Concerning The Protection of The World Cultural and Natural Heritage
- 2 Preferential Trade Area Treaty (PTA)
- 3 Lome Convention
- 4 World Heritage Convention
- 5 International Conventions on International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES)
- 6 Agreement on the Action Plan for the Environmentally sound Management of the Zambezi River System (ZACPPLAN)

In addition the country is considering ratifying a number of other treaties covering areas such as Trans boundary movements of hazardous waste, protection of the ozone layer, climate change and biological diversity.

In many instances international conventions fail to link up with local laws and realities. Perhaps the best example is the CITES Convention which Zimbabwe signed a number of years ago. CITES bans the sale of ivory, and the yet Zimbabwe maintains that the country now has a surplus for sale, and the proceeds could be used to advance the cause of conservation. More general concerns have been raised by Zimbabwe and other countries in the region particularly with regard to the Basel Convention on Trans-boundary Movement of Hazardous Waste. It has been argued that this convention is inadequate where it relates to the question of compensation in the event of breaches, and Zimbabwe, as the majority of African countries, has not signed.

Angola education policy

Social policy reflects times during which they are formulated .it reflect the prevailing welfare conditions in the society at the time of its designing and implementation. In Angola they established the school net in may 29th-2004as a national commission established a strategic guidelines aimed at bridging the digital divide and accelerating utilization information computer technology in all aspects in Angola it was implemented in time and have gone through changes which require revisiting and formulation new policies because the number of programs and projects were in place to o achieve the aim of the National Computer Information Technology at establishing virtual libraries for ICT policy formulation and intellectual property rights and information security thus the to schools in which computers were to be

deployed to source of information on school lab, that is school No;902, Escola preparatory in Luanda.

The political process is a policy making where social welfare policy develops through a lively process in which a number of considered, the activity takes place publicly with many diverse groups and individuals contribution to the debate mainly the decisions are made by public officials such as legislators, courts, justice, administrators and presidents. In Angola education the deputy minister of communication and deputy minister of education indicated that the School Net education indicated that the School Net Angola project is important for schools in particular and the future economic development of the country. For example a number of school computer initiatives in Luanda and Bangala were established.

There's a battle of computing truth that is all social processes goes through it. It mainly involves scientific research data to justify a different and particular position. It also involves Intellectual debate who ever win the debate is the guiding policy or take over the policy. For example, the School Net Angola was held with some role players nominated to the school Net Angola governing body, the minister of education, science and technology, lecturers, private sectors and ministry of social development they all agreed on school Net policy for the country.

Legal forms

Statute law is A very powerful form of public policy matters fundamental way of designing and implementing social policies like School Net education in Angola. It was revealed by the deputy minister of communication and education that a number of programmes and projects were to achieve the aims of the National Computer Information Technology. The magnification project in particular aims at establishing virtual libraries, computer refurbished and education learning across the country up digital villages and infrastructural development.

The legal form of executive order revolves around the executive arm of the government with the different actors like the cabinet ministers, president , which is the force behind dual control of workers in administers branch of public government units. That is, the identified School Net champion Celeste will work shop the School Net concept in schools identified for the roll out in order to seek the buy in from parents, school giving bodies. For example the institute of Medio Normale it was considered to use the ICT's

information computer technology in education and computers were donated by a charitable organization were only enough for teachers class administrative task.

Administrative policy is usually developed used in the labour market to develop administrative policies in order to meet people's needs for instance Angola education consolidated effort in establishing School Net Angola and under taking its pilot project to achieve its digital villages , infrastructural development, education government intellectual property rights and formation action security.

Welfare policies were the main domain of social policy and they used to put a high premium on the promotion of public for example of public goods like public schools, high ways an infrastructures .The Angola deputy minister of communication established a number of programs of the NCIT National Computer Information Technology. The pacification project in particular aims at establishing virtual libraries, computer refurbished centers, inter kiosks and education learning across the country.

Social policies are to bring about visible change in society to facilitate a betterment of society and to enhance the well being of the people. For example the establishing of school Net in Angola for science and information technology, communication and education with representatives from the ministry of social development to achieve the aims of the NCIT and education across the country to support students research and best practices, develop skills that will inform all the sundry of the value o ICT and across cutting technology.

Social policies are therefore deliberate and are geared towards specific goals. They are perceived as the end product of a rational cognitive exercise involving the determination of goals. For example National Commission for Information Technology established strategic guide lines through school net aiming at bridging the digital divide for supporting an entity / organization that will be responsible for school net working and education learning, programs and project for the country.

The social intervention was held with some roles players nominated to the School Net ,Angola governing body, the ministers of education, science and technology teachers, private sectors on a School Net in Angola thus

collectivism as a philosophy that has been generated and enriched by social experience over years.

A perspective of process, as a social policy, it is a policy making that takes a number of steps encompassing its process it goes through various stages and process in its making below; .

Policy proposal formulation deal with special policy debates through which options are considered.

The choice is made that is, they implemented the National commission for information technology and accelerating utilization ITC in all aspects of life in Angola.

The implementation policy which involves carrying out the activities prescribed in policy paper. For example Escola 902 is the best school in municipality and the only one with physics and chemistry labs.

Monitoring and evaluation policy it mainly entails setting goals ,accessing existing conditions taking the revisits to inspect schools in Luanda in which computers will be deployed and secure agreement on shipping of more affordable computers and peripheral to Angola.

Principles are general rules guidelines or concepts of fundamental truth that are generally accepted as tenets that should give direction while developing a social policy.

Social justice is the fairness, redistributive. Kymlicka 1990 in (Mwine 2007) recommends that all primary goods liberty and life opportunities and all bases of self respect should be harmonized and supplied in totality to all members in society. Like in Angola School Net education was established or introduced aiming at improving and providing an opportunity for Angolan learners in an information age so that every future child gets that opportunity and even the poor.

Social equity principles according to Rawls says that each person is to have an equal opportunity or rights in the most extensive total system of basic leadership and life opportunities . For example in Angola they introduced an information computer technology academy at the national university and it will soon be set up and together with the ministry of education there are plans to pilot education learning in 5 schools.

Social equity is the way people are given what they desire accordingly or getting what they deserve that is providing to their needs like horizontal equity means like treatment of like people in like circumstances. That is supporting for an entity or organization that will be responsible for school net working in Angola.

The water policy in Chad

Characteristic representation of social policy in the water policy of Chad

Reflection of the times;

Two thirds of Chad's land area is a desert and over the past thirty years the country has suffered the consequences of a persistent, drought, accelerating the desertification process and reducing the surface area of agro pastoral land. The poor are vulnerable to chronic diseases related to their living conditions, and lack access to clean water and sanitation. Women and girls from villages spend several hours everyday collecting water, reducing the time girls can attend school. The severe lack of basic infrastructure and the multiple water-related issues in the country prompted the government to draw up a national water policy with integrated management strategies.

Political process:

This was shown in the fact that during the civil war in Chad there was hardly any distribution of water as a means of survival. So after independence in 1960 that is when the government came up with strategies to ensure safe and clean drinking water was provided to its citizens since during the war there was limited provision of such facilities.

Battle of competing truths:

This occurred when the implementation of safe and drinking water was still a policy proposal and some members of the local community wanted to continue with the system of having women and girls going to fetch water and did not want to adapt to the system of their girl children going to school, so some people were against systems that would make it possible for them to school. The government on the other hand wanted to make life easier for its citizens by improving their water policy for example. This would enable the girl child to go to school and get an education.

The legal forms that can be identified in the above policy

The statute law also known as a commanding law is a legal form but is not found in the water policy of Chad though everyone is entitled to safe and

clean drinking water. The most common water project in Chad is the national rural drinking and sanitation programme. Aimed at benefiting the common man, this also helps improve the health of many people.

The executive order also known as a directive from the president works hand in hand with the administrative order to ensure the implementation of the water policy.

The [ideological which are results of political process were paramount during the civil war of Chad, it was not possible to put up such facilities such as safe water due to insecurity, so there was an increase in poor sanitation levels that were characterized by outbreaks of epidemics. Therefore it was due to the political process of independence in 1960 that led to the implementation of the water and sanitation programmes.

There are several indicators of the effectiveness of the programmes implemented in this case the safe and clean drinking water programmes. UNDP is working to support effective water governance in Chad to increase access to safe drinking water and sanitation, one of the targets of the MDGs. Chad's initial water governance initiatives were undertaken through implementation of the Water and Sanitation project.

From 1998 through 2003 through UNDP support from the French government.

The Spotlight provides further information on local water governance efforts in Chad.

As a planning process, the water policy in Chad was also a perspective that was looked into when trying to implement the policy. Plans were made before the policy was actually implemented this included putting into consideration the advantages and disadvantages of the policy.

The problem at hand in this case is poor sanitation and water facilities. In the same regard, policy proposal, plans are made to improve the situation in Chad that included proposing programmes such as the National Rural Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Programme that were seen as those that might be helpful in solving the problem.

Policy evaluation which is actually trying to not down the effects of the water policy implementation, what kind of influence did the policy have that is to say evaluating whether the policy has positive or negative impacts.

Social policy as a frame work for action was used in such a way that the regulatory framework involved the use of local community members for

example in the areas of Mayo Kebbi and Tandile regions, the members of the communities actually put up the facilities themselves and were just funded and facilitated by the government.

The legal framework which was seen by the fact that the policy was proposed and later implemented shows that the water policy implementation was legal.

The institutional framework helped in the implementation in since members of the community are also part of the implementers also inclusive is the ministry of water an the National Rural Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Programme (PNEAR)

The principles of social policy that were used in the implementation of the water policy

Social justice was used in such a way that people were given the services of free safe and clean drinking water. Areas where people were denied these services the leaders of that society were questioned and if not well justified then that was considered a crime and punishable by the law.

Social equality was the principle believes that nothing should stop people from attaining the required necessities such as water. So the Chad government has gone ahead to provide free water services to its citizens. For example those that cannot afford water bills are provided free borehole services. To ensure that everyone can access water services.

Social equity, almost like social equality, to make sure that free water services are provided and that nothing should be in position to hinder everyone from getting those services.

This was taken into consideration by the government of Chad to make sure that the water resources are distributed equally.

CHAPTER EIGHTEEN

The national policy on HIV/AIDS and the world of workers (2003) in Uganda

The HIV/AIDS epidemic affects the most productive segment of our labor force, people in the 15-49 years age group. It is depriving families, communities and the entire nation of the young and most productive people. HIV/AIDS is divesting in terms of increasing poverty, reversing human development achievement, exacerbating child labour, reducing food production and stigmatization of workers affected by HIV/AIDS. This policy was borrowed from the Asian countries and Thailand that also faced with this kind of the epidemic and spells out the key principles under lying its implementation namely; non discrimination, confidentiality, HIV testing, greater involvement of people living with HIV/AIDS, promotion of prevention, treatment, care and support and gender concerns in the world of work. Uganda was one of the first African countries to be confronted by the epidemic as early as 1982 when the first AIDS case was identified and reported from Koki, Rakai district.

The policy recognizes HIV/AIDS as a work place issue, which should be treated like any other serious illness or conditions in the work place. It emphasizes the importance of promoting and protecting human rights, participation of people living with HIV/AIDS, gender equality as well as prevention, care support and treatment as the major tools to be used in addressing the impact of HIV/AIDS in the world of work.

The policy by itself does not render an individual liable to any proceedings, except where there is reference to obligations set out in law. Policy development and implementation is a dynamic process and consequently this policy should be comminuted to all concerned.

The Goal of this policy is to provide a framework for prevention of further spread of HIV and mitigation of the socio economic impact of HIV/AIDS with the world of working in Uganda.

The guiding principles under pinning this policy are based on current scientific, human rights as an essential component in preventing

transmission and mitigating the impact of HIV/AIDS epidemiological and medical knowledge about the distribution and transmission of HIV/AIDS and proven interventions in prevention and care. In addition, cognizance is taken of the public health rationale for respecting the human rights, privacy and self determination of persons living with HIV/AIDS in line with Uganda's constitution. The policy aims at promoting and protecting.

The role of government is to support and promote broad partnerships of prevention and action, including public agencies, the private sector, worker's representatives and community bodies including civil society with a view to respond to HIV/AIDS ethically and effectively, to gather and disseminate data, information, experiences and knowledge including research findings for policy and new strategies, to carry out consultations, seminars, workshop and research in order to monitor progress in the implementation of this policy, ensure that adequate resources are made available to various ministries for HIV/AIDS prevention care and support, Integrate AIDS education into all levels and institution of education, those who are open about their own HIV status to help others come to terms with the risk of HIV/AIDS and to appreciate the need for solidarity between persons living with HIV/AIDS.

Thailand and Asian countries were first countries looked at facing this problem and now Uganda was one of the first African countries to be confronted by the epidemic as early as 1982 when the first AIDS case identified and reported from Koki, Rakai district. These countries designed policies and created change. Such policies were borrowed to Ugandan society. Such proven facts, societies have worked together to solve problem especially depending on collectivism.

For instance, in Uganda groups of people living with HIV/AIDS work or solve the problem amongst themselves to help others come to terms with the risk of HIV/AIDS and to appreciate the need for solidarity between persons living with HIV/AIDS. Therefore, before Uganda policy makers implemented this policy, first they identified the social problem with is HIV/AIDS, did research and wrote policy proposals after looking at the proven facts and other societies facing the same problem and then implemented the policy which is on ground because evaluation of this policy is going on.

Ontology helps the government or policy makers to know if the policy is solving the problem of HIV/AIDS. The nature of existence of knowledge applies in this policy because over 300 centers have been established the country to provide quality HIV counseling and testing services, over 200 health facilities have been accredited throughout the country in both public and private sector facilities to provide antiretroviral treatment, blood transfusion services continue to provide safe blood for transfusion.

Over 70,000 people are initiated on free antiretroviral treatment including over 1,000 children, in the area of research HIV/AIDS neurobehavioral survey was successfully conducted, prevention of mother to child (PMTCT) HIV transmission continues to be scaled up to lower level of health facilities. There are over 300 centers providing this PMTCT, two vaccine initiatives for HIV prevention are on going at Makerere University medical school and Uganda Virus Research Institute, Entebbe. There is also encouragement of behavioral change through the ABC strategy (Abstinence, Being Faithful to one's partner and C for consistent condom). Such significant achievements have been made in reducing the magnitude of HIV infections. However, we still need concerted efforts to further bring down the HIV prevalence. Therefore, this policy is really doing a great work in our country Uganda.

The principle of social equality stresses that benefits resources and opportunities should be allocated equally to all members of society. Nation policy on HIV/AIDS and world of work is in line with the principle of social equality because the policy makers have carried out systematic inquiry in the variables that may hinder particular segments of society to benefit from he designed policy. For instance, ministry of Gender, Labour and Social development have designed and implemented awareness and advocacy campaigns to ensure the cooperation of all partners and to raise awareness and sensitization at the community level.

A series of social economic activities of programmes can be seen on ground. Under health sector strategic plan; health centres are put on ground, there is HIV voluntary counseling and testing services, increases access to ARVs, PMTCT, ABC strategy that is moving on, training of workers as HIV/AIDS peer educators, health education materials like posters, leaflets, videos produced and distributed to community, access to counseling services.

The Nation policy on HIV/AIDS and the world of work policy has emphasized in creating awareness of HIV/AIDS, in schools there is sex

education, then also the ABC strategy (Abstinence, Being faithful to one's partner and C for consistent condom).

Voluntary counseling and testing as a tool for reducing HIV/AIDS prevalence has been welcomed with so many difficulties as it tries to help people curb the widespread infection of the Virus as well as a tool for successful implanting of antiretroviral therapy and avoiding re-infection as well as prevention.

According to USAID (2005) report Uganda has had laudable success in reducing HIV prevalence in the country and is still focused on strengthening and scaling up prevention, treatment and care, and support efforts. Currently, over 1 million people are estimated to have received HIV counseling and testing, over 500,000 HIV-positive individuals are receiving palliative care and over 60,000 are receiving antiretroviral therapy (ART). Access to services has increased as service delivery sites have expanded into rural areas. With a prevalence rate that appears to have stalled at around 7 percent and new infections continuing to occur among those of reproductive age, the epidemic still requires policy and program attention.

However, recent studies indicate that overall coverage of testing and counseling is extremely poor in countries with highest HIV/AIDS burden. Worldwide, only 5% of people living with HIV/AIDS are estimated to be aware of the status. Therefore access to counseling and testing is a key for successful implanting antiretroviral therapy and avoiding re-infection and transmission by behavioral changes.

HIV care and prevention programmes in many developing countries though this hasn't been widely available. Reasons for this include: complexity of the intervention the relatively high costs of its various components the lack of evidence of its effectiveness in reducing HIV transmission the lack of evidence of its cost-effectiveness as measured by number of cases of HIV averted(UNAIDS 2000). It is sometimes difficult to measure the impact of counseling on behavior change. It is understandable that VCT will often not have an easily measurable effect, because of the complexity of sexual behavior and relationships, and factors which affect these, such as gender inequalities, and lack of empowerment of women in many high-prevalence settings. In countries where resources are very limited VCT services may therefore, not obtain priority in government planning, and counseling may not receive the official approval, resources, and support it needs to be

implemented effectively. Decision-makers may also question the benefit of providing counseling and testing services in places where clinical care options are limited. (UNAIDS Technical update 2000)

In a survey of males and females of ages 14 to 21 years about 90% of 210 Ugandans and 75% of 122 Kenyans who said had not received VCT services reported that they wanted to be tested. However, in these and other studies, some young people feared testing. Some feared that their tests would be positive, others feared that their tests results would not remain confidential, that they might loose their partners and that their services would be costly or provide in inconvenient locations. In a similar survey, conducted almost out of the 240 people who had been tested said, they intended to adopt safer sexual behaviors such as sexual abstinence, monogamy, using condoms, and reducing the number of their sexual partners. But this study never examined actual behavior changes which could be different from intended changes.

(UNAIDS Technical report 2004)

The HIV/AIDS epidemic is the most devastating disaster in the world and Uganda in particular. While it is widely agreed that people have the right to know their HIV status, HIV testing can be emotionally devastating for people who must cope with the news of a positive result without appropriate counseling. It is believed that HIV testing and subsequent knowledge of HIV status can bring emotional distress, stigma, discrimination, abandonment and violence especially for women for the HIV infection through their male partners. (Maman et al 2000)

In Uganda the cost of VCT is high and hampering many people from accessing VCT services for instance in a report (2003) from Kyetume Health Center-Mukono District. The cost of VCT (1500 Ushs) is hampering people from accessing the services. Kyetume gets testing Kit supplies from government but the supplies has been inadequate and irregular. They also noted long distance between community and PMTCT center as barrier to access, cultural beliefs and cultural practices, open confidentiality between couples is still a problem, fear of accessing supplementary feeds which enhances stigmatization (2003 Report, Kyetume Health Center-Mukono District).

Challenges faced by children orphaned by HIV/AIDS

HIV/AIDS has continued to be a major health problem in Africa. Almost half of the world's population is at risk. AIDS was first detected in 1981 in U.S.A (ACP 1989). It is ranked as one of the main killer diseases in Uganda, and it is the leading cause of deaths among adults of 18 – 55 years.

However, children are also infected by Aids at the time of birth. It is estimated that about 40 million people are infected with HIV/AIDS, with 90% of these from developing countries. In Uganda, AIDS was first detected in Kansensero, in Rakai district in 1987.

HIV/AIDS has had serious effects on families and communities in general. According to the Uganda bureau of statistics (Daily Monitor, Friday, 25th March 2005), on 2002 Uganda population and housing census main report and results released on 23rd of January 2005, in Uganda an orphan is a child aged below 18 years of age who has lost either one or both parents. The international definition refers to children below 15 years and has lost either a parent or both. HIV/AIDS among other factors has increased greatly the numbers of orphans in Uganda.

At a press conference to release the results, Ms Irene Nviiri, who works with Uganda national bureau of statistics said that they did not have the HIV prevalence, figures for each region. The report however notes that 1.8 million children out of 13.7 million had lost one or both parents. This therefore showed that the number of orphans had increased from 12 to 13 out of every 100 children in 1991. The census put the population at slightly over 26 million.

surveillance report of June 2003, it was highly evident that the trend of HIV/AIDS pandemic in Uganda was monitored primarily through annually conducted sentinel surveillance survey as 'surrogate marks for HIV prevalence' and involved anonymous collection for HIV testing of residual portions of blood drawn from other routine testing in AMC and STD clinics. The study will be exploratory and descriptive employing both qualitative and quantitative methods of research.

The prevalence rates at various sites over the last 3 years show that in 2000, the prevalence rate was 5.2%, 5.4% in 2001 and 5% in 2002. This is the prevalence at antenatal sites in Uganda. The parliamentary HIV/AIDS communication tool kit defines orphans as children who have lost one or both parents. These orphaned children share the same social and economic effects which include economic hardships, deprivations, withdraw from

school, malnutrition, illnesses, and fear of isolation, loss of inheritance and risk of contracting and transmitting HIV/AIDS.

Sub Saharan Africa still remains the most affected region with 70% of people living with HIV/AIDS, thus 26.6 million people currently living with HIV/AIDS. Approximately 3.2 million of these people were infected in 2003. An estimated 2.3 million Africans died of AIDS in 2003. In seven African countries (Lesotho, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zimbabwe, Botswana and Zambia), 20% of people in these countries are estimated to be infected with HIV/AIDS. AIDS will claim the lives of around a third of world's 15 year olds unless action taken to slow down the pandemic. (Source: UNAIDS, Aids epidemics update: December 2003).

Due to the epidemic of HIV/AIDS; in 2000 alone, 18 million of the world's children were said to be nearly orphaned every day. About nine million of these children live in Africa. The national HIV resource center reveals that at least one of these orphans has lost a one or both parents. In Uganda the first case was identified in 1987 in along the south western shores of Lake Victoria's fishing village of Kasensero, in Rakai district. Today, there are approximately 1.7 million children who have lost at least one of their parents due to Aids and 14300 orphans below the age of 12 living with AIDS. According to a study under taken in 2001, the population of orphans in Uganda is estimated at over 2 million. Of all the families in the country, 25% have at least one orphan (Heggenhougen K et al, 2002).

According to Ashinaga Uganda (2002) training manual, there's no doubt that HIV/AIDS has been a substantial problem over the past decades with major and multiple consequences for the local population. The scale and effects of the problem is completely different order to anything previously experienced. Normal coping mechanism in the community for caring for the sick, supporting the family and caring for the children and elderly affected by HIV/AIDS have been stretched to the limit and sometimes beyond the limits.

In most of the families, children orphaned by HIV/AIDS are not given equal attention like the rest of the children in the family. They are surrounded by people who wish them bad luck only. The care for these children at home is emerging as a necessary compliment or alternative to long term admission. The quality of life of these children is determined by large scale access to care they require. Being loved is what every one desires. Therefore home

based care is of profound relevance and essential strategy meant to expand quality care and support to orphans in the community. (Source: UNASO 2006).

In the lives of these children, they lack psycho- social support, social, economic and nutritional needs. This is because in most African societies today, orphans are seen as outcasts to the family. This is due to the break down of the social family setting which used to shelter children. (Source: Ashinaga training manual 2002).

General over view of HIV/AIDS

During the international Aids Conference in Bangkok, Thailand, the Global Human Development report 2004 was presented with along finger pointed to HIV/AIDS as a major hindrance to Global Human Development. The pandemic was blamed for slashing down life expectancy to less than 40 years in many African countries; making it the biggest factor for the dramatic decline of human development indicators on the continent.

Sub Saharan Africa; which accounts for only 10% of the world's population, is home to almost two thirds of all people living with HIV/AIDS in the world. It is further asserted that the situation is getting worse if the entire world does not come up with productive preventive measures. Life expectancy in Central African Republic is 39.8, Lesotho 36.3, Mozambique 38.5, Malawi 37.8, Swaziland 35.7; the situation in Zambia is worse since the citizens cannot expect to live up to 32 – 37 years.

According to the World Health organizations (W.H.O), and UNAIDS reports by the end of 1999, the number of children worldwide who were orphaned by HIV/AIDS had reached 13.2 million, of whom 92% were being found in Sub Saharan Africa.

The burden for caring for these children lies in the general public. However, these children do not get adequate because they are mostly cared for by their grand parents who do not have the ability and strength to care for them. Their health, social economic status and psychological well being have started to wear out.

Worldwide, about 53 million people have died of AIDS since the epidemic began in the late 1970s. Most countries with high numbers of people infected with AIDS have experienced an alarming in the number of children

living with HIV/AIDS and these children are struggling to survive after the death of one or both parents.

Most of the growth of African countries has been reversed because of the scourge of HIV/AIDS. In Swaziland and Lesotho, AIDS prevalence rates now exceed 30% in the 0-18 year's age group. Zimbabwe's prevalence rate in the productive age is 24.6%, while for Zambia, the rate is 16.5%. This is 6% more than the rate of Uganda. (Source: UNAIDS report 2000).

HIV/AIDS in Uganda

In Uganda, HIV/AIDS was first identified in 1987 along the south western shores of Lake Victoria's fishing village of Kasensero, in Rakai district. The disease then spread rapidly to all parts of the country, and has claimed lives of many Ugandans. Uganda's HIV/AIDS openness policy since 1989 and the consistent efforts to fight HIV/AIDS have led to substantial gains in reducing the prevalence rate from 18.5% in 1995 (UAC, 2001) to 6.2% in 2002 (STD/ ACP, 2003). However Uganda's cumulative AIDS deaths were estimated at 947.552 in December 2001 up from 848.492 in 2000. Of these 852.797 were adults and 94.755 were children. Adult female and male deaths were estimated at 427.153 and 425.644 respectively. An estimated 2.1 million are orphans due to AIDS (UNICEF 2001). Lyons, M (1997) notes that 25% of house holds are providing for an HIV/AIDS orphan. Nearly 80% of HIV/AIDS victims in Uganda are between the ages of 15 – 45 years; the most energetic and productive group, and often feeders of their families.

Studies on Uganda reveal that the wider impact of AIDS is in communities with every rural house hold at least having been affected in one way or another; that is either in form of direct HIV infection, orphan burden, caring for the sick, and death of bread winner or illness. People have accepted the reality of HIV/AIDS and as a result, this has greatly reduced stigmatization of P.L.W.H. As (People Living with HIV/AIDS) and their families in most communities. This has been one of the factors that have contributed to Uganda's success story in the fight against HIV/AIDS (UNICEF, DRI study, 2003).

The majority of respondents were in the age of 30- 39 (29.5%) and 40- 49 (25.9%). The age group 0-15 constituted 18.8%, 50- above 17.8% and the age group 20-29 constituted 5.4%. The above findings are consistent with the findings of ACP/STD (2000) that the mean age of people living with AIDS is 32.2 and that in Uganda most people die of AIDS within in the age

bracket of 30- 39. Respondents included OCs, teachers, social workers, affected house holds and employees of NGOs, local leaders

The research revealed that 29.5%, of the respondents were children below the age of 15 and were orphans who had all lost their parents to HIV/AIDS. This revealed that HIV/AIDS is still claiming many lives among people in villages and thus rendering many children orphans.

Sex composition of the respondents

The majority of the respondents (61.4%) were female while 38.6% were male.

From table 2 above; it was evidenced that the majority of the respondents were female, contributing 61.4% of the total of number of respondents. Males contributed 38.6%. These percentage patterns were realized mainly because it was females who were found at home during the time of research.

Types of households

The majority of the households (47.6%) were female headed, 33% male headed, 11.3% headed by grand parents, and 4.5% headed by youths (unmarried), while 1.8% was child headed households.

Majority (49.1) of the households of respondents was being headed by females who were widows, 33% were headed by single fathers who were widowers and 11.6% were headed by grand parents who had lost their sons and daughters to HIV/AIDS. 1.8% was contributed by children who were orphans and were looking after their fellow children. The research also found out that 4.5% comprised of youths, who were unmarried but were taking care of HIV/AIDS orphans. All these respondents had one thing in common, and that was, they were all caring for HIV/AIDS orphans.

Nature of affected households

In regard to this, 30.4% were widows, 23.2% were orphans, 20.5% and 16.1% were male and female adults living with HIV/AIDS respectively, and 9.8 were widowers.

From table 4 above, we can see that many men (20.5%) were living with HIV/AIDS. Many female respondents (30.4%) were widows who had lost their husbands to HIV/AIDS.

Affected household's priority needs

In order to examine the challenges of AIDS on the affected households, the study assessed their priority needs in relation to their livelihood objectives.

Most of the affected households 67%, 65.2% and 59.8%, regarded medical care, education and food for their children as their most pressing needs. Respondents rated income (42%), clothing (38.4%) appropriate shelter (24.1%) and need for production inputs (21.4%) as vital needs of the affected households.

28.6% of the respondents revealed the need for psychosocial support; socio-economic nutritional needs of orphans, 11.6% the need to fight stigmatization of PLWHAs. 8% mentioned the need for interaction.

It was however observed that perception and expression of needs varied by the nature of AIDS effect one was experiencing. Children in village areas were more concerned with medical service attainment. Households with orphans were more concerned with the needs of clothing, education and shelter. The remaining needs spread across all the categories of respondents.

From table 5 above, we can see that every household has its own priority needs in relation to the economic income of the household. However, medical care, education, food and psychosocial support were mentioned as the most pressing needs across all households.

Social conditions under which children live

After discovering the priority needs of the households, the researcher wanted to establish the level of social interaction that the orphaned children receive from school, home and neighborhoods. This was determined by the number of friends that these children had and the resultant comments about their sero status.

Female orphans are ranked high while the male were less. From this research, it was evident that most parents lost their husbands to AIDS when these children were below the age of 8-15. Although most children have not tested, the parents alive have, and those who fear have serious indicators of the disease. This therefore indicates that most of these orphans are infected.

Challenges of HIV/AIDS on OC's household livelihood

The challenges of AIDS OC's households' livelihood were explored under the following themes: Impact on OC's household labor, household expenditure, household income, land accessibility, and traditional social institutions. They are all categorized under psychosocial, social economic and nutritional challenges (needs)

Household labor as challenge

The biggest asset of the rural peasant households was found to be their labor. The majority of respondents brought out the importance of household laboring securing the livelihoods of the OC's households and how AIDS was greatly affecting such.

72.8% of the OCs households revealed that AIDS had reduced time and labor for work due to death, sickness, or time spent in caring for the sick or orphans. As a result, 67.9% of the OC's house holds reported low agricultural production and productivity due to AIDS. 26.8 mentioned that they were less able to engage in casual employment/ paid employment. 23.2% of the respondents reported withdrawal of children from school and this would in turn lead to labor problems within households.

Withdrawal of children from school meant the human labor in that household would remain of low quality and unskilled, consequently a constant struggle to achieve a better livelihood.

“Every household in this community is now struggling to educate their children. Unfortunately, AIDS has forced affected households to take their children out of school. This is because when the head of the household is sick; they cannot work anymore, thus need to boost their labour at home. They need children to provide the labour at home, thus withdrawing them from school and rendering them uneducated. When you are uneducated, you cannot secure good employment, you remain a casual labourer. When you are sick, bedridden or dead, livelihood comes to a halt. Those educated are employed whether healthy or sick, keep getting salaries and if retired, they get pension.

Household expenditure as a challenge

AIDS has a direct impact on changing household expenditure patterns. The majority of respondents (75.9%) had experienced increased cost of treatment or paying for drugs. 43.8% had a burden of spending for the care of orphans. 42% of the affected households had experienced increased need to spend on food and better nutrition. While there was need for increased expenditure, 33.9% of the respondents had actually reduced consumption, as they lacked the money to spend.

From the discussion groups, it was noticed that AIDS changes the expenditure patterns of AIDS affected households. Most families instead of using resources to acquire productive inputs such as hoes, pangas, seeds, that

would help them to sustain livelihoods, they were instead diverting the meager resources to sustain expenditure.

Because livelihoods were more dependant on production from subsistence farming, the high demand for expenditure on services like medical, threatened the overall stability of the OC's households.

“The cost of caring for the OCs is very high and unaffordable within a short time. One will therefore sell the produce from a current harvest, but after two months when stock is exhausted, the survival of the house hold will become uncertain; since there will be no resources, energy and funds to invest in production for the next farming season.”

(Participant in FDG)

Household income as a challenge

The study findings revealed that sources of income to an OC's household were immensely affected. 52.7% of the households reported loss of income due to sickness and or death of close family members and relatives. This was more profound among orphans and widows. In some cases, it was revealed that some husbands were dependent on enterprising wives for income.

In case of illness and death, all this income reduced or was completely lost. 45.5% of the respondents, mainly adults both men and women, widows and widowers, reported loss of income arising from inability to carry out cash crop farming due to lack of funds for inputs. 29.5% of OCs revealed that they were unable to access credit both informally (from family members, friends, neighbours and relatives) and formally from financial lending institutions as they were considered a higher risk group to lend.

“Who will accept to lend you money for income generating purposes? Suppose you die tomorrow, who pay back? Even family members discourage it because they do not know whether you will be able to pay back before you die.” (OC interview)

However, most households regarded lending on to an HIV/AIDS affected person as dependent on their health status. If one was believed to be in his early stages of sickness, lending was possible. However, it was not easily possible for someone very ill and bedridden.

“Instead of lending money, friends, neighbours, and relatives, may prefer to just provide humanitarian assistance such as helping physically in harvesting

the crops if one is bedridden or just raise small money for donations.’’ (Key informant)

Land access as a challenge

The main issues assessed under this theme were the accessibility and entitlement to land by those affected by HIV/AIDS. The most affected category of the HIV/AIDS affected persons were the orphans with limited or lack of access to land were the orphans (19.6%) and widows (15.2%). It was however found out that 15.2% of the HIV/AIDS affected persons could only be allowed farming systems and land use patterns for a short period. No long term investments are allowed even the land belonged to the deceased parent or husband for orphans and widows respectively.

The practice of denying widows and orphans productive access to land implies that they cannot engage in gainful production to secure livelihoods

Psycho-social challenges of AIDS on OC’s livelihoods

AIDS affected households, key informants and focus groups discussion participants reported several psychological and social problems. These problems in turn had a strong effect on the livelihood activities of OC’s households.

50.9% of the OC respondents reported psychological problems being experienced as being a cause of low morale to engage in various types of productive work. 38.4% specifically singled out reduced engagement in key household activities mainly subsistence farming for not “feeling in a clear state of mind’’ at times. Furthermore, 38.4% of the respondents pointed to stigmatization and discrimination as another major problem.

The implication of psycho-social challenges where they did exist was that they had a negative impact on the continued household engagement in productive livelihood activities.

Strategies adopted in coping with the challenges faced

A variety of coping mechanisms were adopted to investigate on the challenges facing children orphaned by HIV/AIDS were examined. The role of external household actors in enabling affected households to cope with these AIDS challenges on OCs is presented. Reliability of the coping mechanisms and constraints to coping mechanisms in an attempt to sustain livelihoods are also presented.

Intra household level coping strategies

Intra household level coping strategies for coping with the challenges of AIDS on orphaned children's livelihoods takes many forms. Presentation of coping strategies in relation to the challenges of AIDS is made below:

Coping with the Food security Challenge (nutritional needs)

The study identified acquiring food as one of the major priority challenges of OCs households. Several strategies were being adopted to cope or improve the food security situation. 50.9% of the had shifted to less labour intensive and fast growing crops in order to increase on food supply and availability. For example fast growing varieties of cassava, beans, sweet potatoes and maize were being adopted.

However the study did not establish whether this was more so than in non AIDS affected households. 33% of the households reported having reduced on the range of crops grown so as to concentrate on a few, for maximum productivity. Crops such as ground nuts, millet and coffee were on the decline as these were viewed as high labour demanding. Some of the less labour energy demanding cropping methods being adopted by households included backyard vegetable gardening on verandahs and compounds of homes. 17% of the households mentioned had more land left to fallow to enable increased production in the near future. 12.5% of the respondents withdrew from selling of they produced into pure subsistence as a coping strategy for food security. Other strategies adopted to cope with food security included asking or demanding return of food debt or gift that was given out to a neighbouring household or relative when they were experiencing a food shortage then. In such cases, the affected household may even get more than what was previously given, depending on whether the indebted household has more food at its disposal. However, in some cases such demands may lead to conflicts if the indebted household has not enough food stocks or were hesitant to reciprocate.

Coping with the income generation challenge

In order to cope with the AIDS challenge on income generation in OC's households, the strategies aimed at raising income were being adopted. These include:

Livelihood diversification

The study found out that most of the OCs households could not meet their income needs from one single occupation and they therefore resorted to

taking up a variety of initiatives to cope with both food and income needs. 27.1% of the respondents revealed having diversified their households. A combination of livelihood activities that OCs adopted included both purely food production on subsistence level and a combination of income generating activities like small livestock keeping (piggery, goat rearing, poultry), food crop and vegetable growing, trading in agricultural produce, initiating small businesses, such as retail shops, making of bricks, selling of alcohol and fish mongering. Some orphans especially were getting involved in doing public motor cycle special hire service, locally known as Boda-Boda. Migrating for paid work, though an option for raising income was found to be limited with only 2.6% of respondents involved with this strategy.

Soliciting for social support from friends/ relatives is one of the coping strategies adopted by some. 27.7% of the OC were found to have solicited for funds from friends or relatives.

Sale of Assets

23.9% of the respondents had been involved in the sale of household assets ranging from beds, bicycles, chicken, furniture, radios and small animals in an attempt to cope. These were mainly disposed off so as to meet pressing issues such as the need for medical services, paying school fees for children. In some rare instances, some households sold a part of the family land so as to meet burial and funeral costs.(See table below)

Taking debts

17.2% of the respondents admitted to having taken debts from friends, relatives, neighbours and grass root informal groups at some point so as to meet household expenditure demands. It was however noted by household respondents, key informants and focus groups discussion participants that creditors demanded some form of security from PLWHAs before advancing a loan which could be sold to recover the money in case of defaulting.

The common form of security used by affected households included bicycles, radios, goats, crops waiting harvesting and a guarantor. The circumstances leading to one taking a loan were because they could not get an immediate buyer of their assets and yet were in urgent need of money.

Drawing on own savings

One of the common coping mechanisms used by affected households was the use of own savings both in form of cash and crop stock such as cassava, millet, rice and small livestock to meet household expenditure needs. 15% of the respondents reportedly used this mechanism.

Hiring out Land

14.3% of the respondents opted to hire out land to land constrained community members or neighbors who in turn paid rent to the land lords (owners) on share cropping basis since most of the tenants were poor with no immediate cash at their disposal to pay promptly. The proportion of the crop to be shared was a fraction proportional to the yield.

Other forms of coping mechanisms adopted were informal community membership groups (3.6%) through which members accessed funds for meeting household expenditure needs for both production and consumption.

HIV/AIDS is a chronic and long term crisis with clearly profound consequences on rural peasant livelihoods, both in terms of directly causing chronic illness, death and orphan children burden.

The study reveals complex ways in which AIDS is affecting orphans and the challenges of such on OCs security. Considering the fact that the study population were already among the most HIV/AIDS hit sub counties in Wakiso district, more are vulnerable to deeper poverty due to devastating AIDS impact mainly because of labor loss; which is their main asset, and income loss due to increased expenditure. The latter; leads to disposal and depletion of household assets, many times in a non renewable and irreversible manner.

Responding to the impact of the pandemic, the study findings revealed that households adopted coping strategies to counteract the AIDS “shock.” Most of the strategies deal with food insecurity, labor loss and land access. Affected households either individually or members collectively constituted a higher proportion of support mechanisms for OC’s households for meeting their needs like food, clothing and childcare but were weak in meeting other needs of shelter, productive inputs, technical services for production, and education for children.

Locally initiated coping strategies at intra-household level aimed at restoring livelihoods using household resources in a renewable rather than an irreversible manner presented a key lesson for success. Mechanisms such as livelihood diversification, new income generating activities, adopting labour saving technologies, fast crop growing varieties, passing on the human

skills, educating the OCs and other strategies directed towards strengthening livelihood portfolios implied increased opportunities for long term sustainability of the livelihoods by households themselves, although were resource constrained.

There were more opportunities for success and sustainability where all household members collectively owned initiatives combat challenge of AIDS at household level regardless of their HIV status. Indeed, strategies initiated and adopted at intra household level were found to be more reliable and frequently used on a day to day basis despite being in small quantities at times.

Most common coping strategies adopted by households were those using local materials requiring minimal or no cash requirements at a household level. Extended families, neighbours, and informal community supported needs for families with less cash requirements as well. While costly needs such as medical and education called for more of interventions of NGOs and government as most households were highly failing to cope with strategies such as disposing off physical productive assets, land, taking OCs out of school for household labour requirements threaten the future sustainability and stability of livelihoods. They represent use of resources in a non renewable manner and a constraint to long term coping.

The study also revealed that in all cases, households were found to have utilized external household sources of support as important support mechanisms for coping with the challenges of AIDS on households.

NGOs were found to be the biggest external proportion of support to households (medical care, food aid, educational support and technical support mainly for agricultural production) but highly unreliable for households in meeting their daily needs due to inadequate financial and logistical situations they encountered. This also applied to relatives, neighbors, informal community and government. However, these external sources though limited by resources, were highly appreciated by the households as important in complimenting coping intra- household mechanisms especially when the family was running short of internal stock. Government services mainly include medical (using health facilities and services) and educational support; mainly accessing Universal Primary and Secondary Education, relatives, neighbors and the community members, and informal groups are useful in supplementing household food, clothing, agricultural labor, farm inputs and child care.

However, one saddening lesson learnt from the study was that peasant AIDS affected household despite being poor and faced with the AIDS pandemic, were still responsible for a big proportion of their household needs. This was contrary to the assumption the researcher had that because peasants were impoverished, they would be getting the biggest proportion of needs from external actors.

Finally, the foregoing findings and conclusions to a large extent confirmed the key challenges, strategies and constraints discussed under review. The findings however were able to close gaps established under literature review as follows:

Use of statistical data has been useful in quantifying the extent the AIDS challenges to orphans and the adoption of strategies by households.

Data generated was from AIDS affected rural peasant household livelihoods and can be relied on to develop peasant specific interventions though it may also be applied on a wider community in Uganda.

The triangulation method involving the use of field household individual interviews, in depth focus group discussions and key informants was useful in providing information for validation of study findings.

The study revealed the “shocking” nature of the AIDS pandemic on orphan children’s livelihoods, important coping strategies, the importance of the different actors, as well as the key constraining factors to coping. All these call for appropriate policy and programming interventions as discussed below:

Research recommendations

The researcher recommends the following in the formulation and implementation of the appropriate policy:

- 1.** Strengthen support for the existing self sustainable household coping strategies through technical, financial and material support for long term coping.
- 2.** Government, NGOs, Agencies and other actors should realize that OCs affected in village areas need more than just relief aid, but require development support to enhance their livelihoods through; Support initiatives, which produce tangible benefits in short periods using resources in a renewable manner.

Subsidies or grants' support for inputs to households with initiatives to transform them into income generation and livelihood diversification for long term livelihood coping.

Research into low input and low labour crops.

Support households as a unit where initiatives for collective action are evident for great chances of continuity beyond the death of an infected household member.

Provide market support for orphan children households' caregivers such as widows, to help them market their goods.

Reinforcing self initiated strategies initiated by households is a great importance in raising the livelihood stability through production. Increased food yields and maintained crop production embraced by the entire household providing for the nutrition, education, medical, continued income generation needs for the present and the future.

3. Integrate support for AIDS interventions into existing village development programmes by both government and non government actors: these can include the informal sector extension programme for expansion of the industrial sector, national policy on industrialization, village finance, urban marketing, community development, and self reliant development promotion. The argument for integration interventions is that all people as a category impoverished AIDS households; extra efforts will be needed to take into account their urgent needs in the development processes, policies and programmes.

4. Raise policy makers and programme planners' awareness of OC affected needs through participatory situation analysis and review of the current development policies and programmes and also consider how these are currently taking into account OCs' households or not and discussing the implication of such. This will in the process raise awareness of the importance of taking into account the AIDS challenges on orphans and caregivers' livelihoods.

5. Develop and or intensify support for labour, time and capital saving technologies targeting affected households and orphans, promotion and use of efficient and fuel saving stores, local water collection technologies.

6. Increase labour capabilities measures for improved food production and other livelihood activities for households through HIV/AIDS prevention education, skills training, sharing household labour, health care, proper nutrition, education, proper environment sanitation and hygiene within homes.

6. Provide psycho- social counseling to PLWHAs and affected household members to increase their resilience to cope through continued engagement in livelihood activities.

7. Government and NGOs should ensure orphans are supported in education beyond secondary through vocational and entrepreneurship training; nutrition, health and shelter for children living under difficult situations.

8. Government should strengthen institutions that safeguard human and property rights for AIDS affected individuals and households, especially women and children to avoid land or property being grabbed by selfish relatives and neighbours.

9. Encourage and support strategies for enhancing social capital for AIDS affected households through;
Strategies partnerships between governments, NGOs, CBOs community leaders to support community responses.

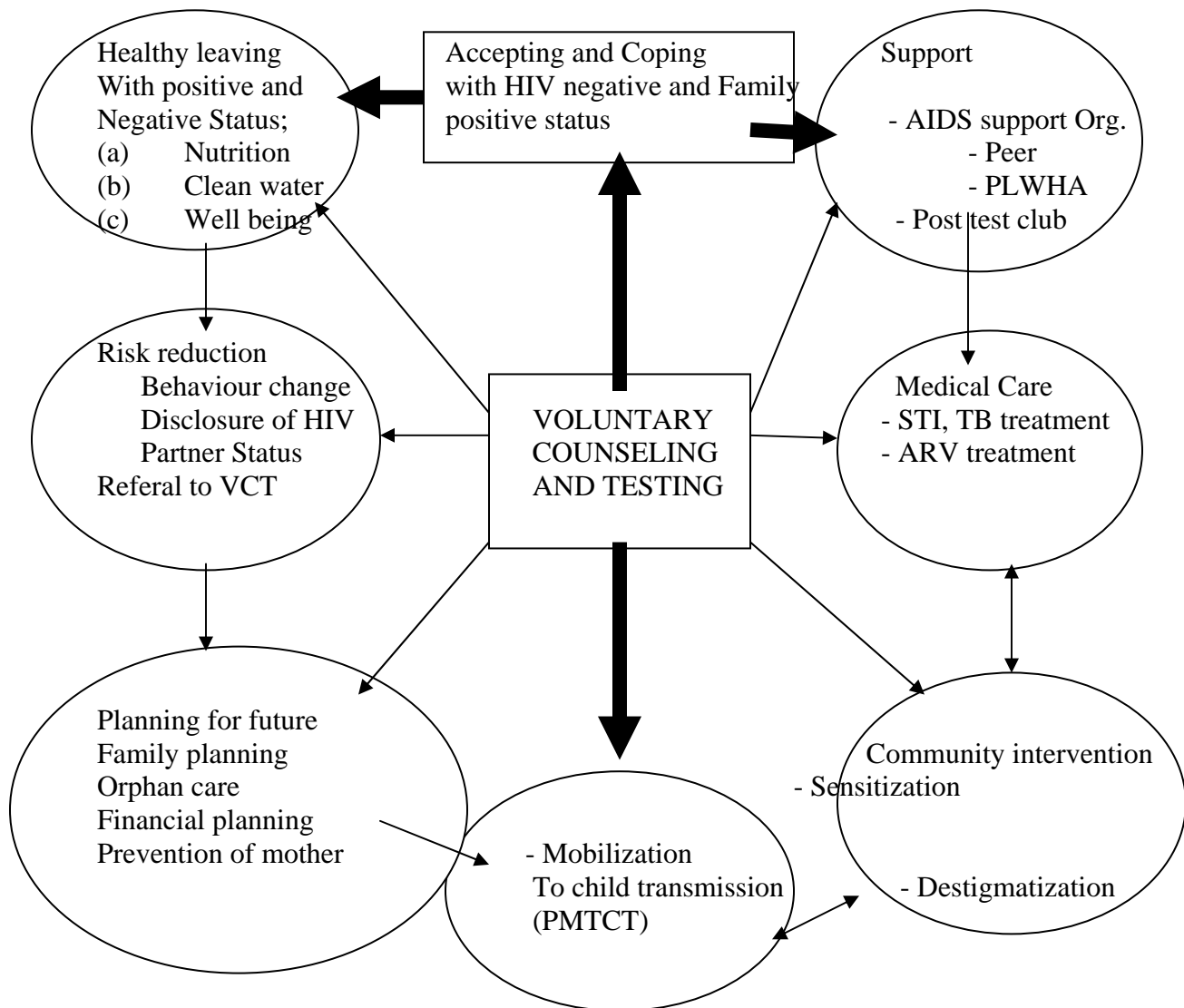
Grassroots supportive activities of self help groups of PLWHAs, informal groups involving PLWHAs themselves, inter household, friendship and extended family support mechanisms.

Conduct community campaigns against existing cultural practices such as long periods of mourning, spending high on food and drinks and widow inheritance that increase challenges on the livelihoods of households.

According to a survey carried out by The AIDS Support Organization-TASO (2004) and AIDS Information Centre-AIC (2005) in Uganda the common problem facing many communities towards access and utilization of VCT services include; high cost of VCT, high transport expenses in accessing service centers, stigma and discrimination for the sero-positive individuals from the rest of the community. Besides VCT is also associated with emotional distress, abandonment and violence especially for women by their male partners accusing them of infection, inadequate number of counselors, fear for lack of confidentiality in handling results, cultural and

traditional practices, limited number of counseling centers, illiteracy among others

Figure 8: Voluntary Counseling and Testing is viable in reducing the spread of HIV/ AIDS, CARE and SUPPORT



VCT is an HIV prevention Intervention which gives the client an opportunity to confidentially explore his or her HIV risks and to learn his or her HIV test result.

Counseling also prepares one before a HIV test and this puts one on a focus even after results are bad or good counseling therefore plays a role of risk reduction like behaviour change disclosure of HIV status and management to stress, hence eliminates stigma and discrimination and promotes emotional support.

There are post test clubs and these are available at VCT centres and there are active efforts made to promote them. Both positive and negative clients are encouraged to join these clubs. These clubs generate income to the clients and help them support their own families.

CARE and Support services are also available in VCT all HIV positive living clients and referred for assessment care and support.

Therefore the VCT support service have acted well as preventive measures for reducing the prevalence of HIV/AIDS since they support the infected through reducing stigma and discrimination associated with it and also support the affected.

Sub-Saharan Africa is more heavily affected by HIV and AIDS than any other region of the world. An estimated 24.5 million people were living with HIV at the end of 2005 and approximately 2.7 million additional people were infected with HIV during that year. In just the past year, Africa's AIDS epidemic has claimed the lives of an estimated 2 million people in this region. More than twelve million children have been orphaned by AIDS.

The extent of the AIDS crisis is only now becoming clear in many African countries, as increasing numbers of people with HIV are becoming ill. In the absence of massively expanded prevention, treatment and care efforts, it is expected that the AIDS death toll on the continent will continue to rise. This means that impact of the AIDS epidemic on these societies will be felt most strongly in the course of the next ten years and beyond. Its social and economic consequences are already widely felt, not only in the health sector but also in education, industry, agriculture, transport, human resources and the economy in general. (UNAIDS, '2006).

Both HIV prevalence rates and the numbers of people dying from AIDS vary greatly between African countries. In Somalia and Senegal the HIV prevalence is under 1% of the adult population, whereas in South Africa and Zambia around 15-20% of adults are infected with HIV. In four southern African countries, the national adult HIV prevalence rate has risen higher than was thought possible and now exceeds 20%. These countries are Botswana (24.1%), Lesotho (23.2%), Swaziland (33.4%) and Zimbabwe (20.1%). West Africa has been less affected by AIDS, but the HIV prevalence rates in some countries are creeping up. HIV prevalence is

estimated to exceed 5% in Cameroon (5.4%), Côte d'Ivoire (7.1%) and Gabon (7.9%). Until recently the national HIV prevalence rate has remained relatively low in Nigeria, the most populous country in Sub-Saharan Africa. The rate has grown slowly from below 2% in 1993 to 3.9% in 2005. But some states in Nigeria are already experiencing HIV infection rates as high as those now found in Cameroon. Already around 2.9 million Nigerians are estimated to be living with HIV. Adult HIV prevalence in East Africa exceeds 6% in Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania (UNAIDS '2006).

According to UNAIDS Technical report-2000, it is noted that establishing VCT services is often not seen as a priority because of cost, lack of laboratory and medical infrastructure and lack of trained staff. This has resulted in VCT being unavailable to most people in high prevalence countries. It is important to document the benefits of VCT in order to promote and expand access to it. Innovative ways can be developed to reduce the costs of VCT by using cheaper and more efficient HIV testing methods and strategies. Improving Information, Education and Communication (IEC) to advocate the benefits of VCT and raising community awareness may lessen the time required for pre-test counseling. Integrating VCT into other health and social services may also improve access and effectiveness and reduce cost. Social financing of VCT services has also been shown to be an effective approach in some settings.

In some countries where VCT services have been established there has also been a reluctance of people to attend for testing. This may be because of denial and of the stigma and discrimination that people who test sero positive may face, and the lack of perceived benefits of testing. To overcome the barriers to establishing VCT services it is important to demonstrate its effectiveness and to challenge stigma and discrimination so that people are no longer reluctant to be tested. The role of VCT as a part of comprehensive health care, with links to and from other essential health care services (such as tuberculosis services and antenatal care), must be acknowledged. The structure of VCT services should be flexible and reflect an understanding of the needs of the communities they serve. Services should be easily accessible and closely linked with community organizations that can provide care and support resources beyond those offered by VCT services alone (UNAIDS 2000).

Until recently, there was a paucity of data indicating that VCT may be important in changing sexual behavior and a cost effective intervention in

reducing HIV transmission. However, there are now studies available showing that VCT is a cost-effective intervention in preventing HIV transmission and that VCT gives sero-positive people earlier access to medical care, preventive therapies and the opportunity to prevent mother-to-child transmission of HIV. VCT services should be developed to provide services for vulnerable or hard-to reach groups. Community participation and involvement of people living with HIV is essential if these services are to be acceptable and relevant (Kalibala 2002).

In Demographic and Health Surveys in Kenya and Zimbabwe, more than 60 percent of approximately 6,000 males and females ages 15 to 19 years who had not undergone VCT reported that they would like to be tested. In another survey of males and females ages 14 to 21 years, about 90 percent of 210 Ugandans and 75 percent of 122 Kenyans who said they had not received VCT services reported that they wanted to be tested. However, in these and other studies, some young people feared testing. Some worried that their test results would be positive. Others were concerned that their test results would not remain confidential, that they might lose their partners and that the services would be costly or provided in inconvenient locations.

Gender Variations in uptake of VCT services among the youth in Uganda observed that in a Ugandan study of 369 young people ages 14 to 21 years who had sought VCT, young women who decided to get tested tended to do so if they were about to be married, enjoyed their partners' support, and knew their partners were willing to pay for the service. Nearly two of every three girls said their partners encouraged them to be tested. In contrast, boys were more likely to decide on their own to be tested and to pay for testing themselves. A third of boys said their decision to seek VCT number 3 in a series testing was influenced by partners; a third, by friends; and another third, by no one (Juma, McCauley and Kirumira, 2000).

HIV/AIDS survival strategies among adults

VCT can help adults use safer sexual practices and even reduce their rates of sexually transmitted infection (STI), and this may be true for young people as well. In a randomized trial involving some 4,000 adults in Kenya, Tanzania, and Trinidad, reduction of unprotected intercourse with non-primary partners was statistically significantly greater among individuals who received VCT than among individuals who received only basic HIV-prevention information. The impact of VCT on behavior by age was not

reported. However, in an analysis of a subgroup of study participants, a third were 22 years or younger and nearly half were 25 years or younger. (February 2006), 'Action Today, A Foundation for Tomorrow: Second Annual Report to Congress on the President's emergency Plan for AIDS Relief'-PEPFAR)

In the survey conducted in Uganda and Kenya, most of the 240 who had been tested said they intended to adopt safer sexual behaviors such as sexual abstinence, monogamy, using condoms, and reducing the number of their sexual partners. But the study did not examine actual behavior change, which could be different from intended change. A U.S. study involving more than 4,000 males and female ages 15 to 25 years found that incidence of STIs decreased for those testing negative for HIV, but did not change for those who tested positive. (Horizons Program, Kenya Project Partners, Uganda Project Partners. HIV Voluntary Counseling and Testing among Youth: an exploratory study in Nairobi, Kenya, and Kampala and Masaka, Uganda- 2001(Baseli8ne survey by Washington D.C: Population council 2001).

In Uganda the cost of VCT is high and hampering many people from accessing VCT services for instance in a report (2003) from Kyetume Health Center-Mukono District, the cost of VCT (1500 Ushs) is hampering people from accessing the services. Kyetume gets testing Kit supplies from government but the supplies has been inadequate and irregular. They also noted long distance between community and PMTCT center as barrier to access, cultural beliefs and cultural practices, open confidentiality between couples is still a problem, fear of accessing supplementary feeds which enhances stigmatization (District director of health services report 2003).

Ten years ago, VCT programs for adults have been increasing in number and have dealt with such challenges as recruitment, confidentiality, stigma associated with being tested positive, testing procedures, and the importance of pretest and posttest counseling. Some of these programs have also begun to focus on youth. The AIDS Information Center (AIC) in Uganda originally offered VCT services with adults in mind. It now has a clinic area specifically designated for young people and has developed a curriculum for youth counseling. The change came after the center analyzed its data and found that many young people were seeking VCT services.

Youth facing the challenge of HIV/AIDS

Similarly, in Kenya, the International Centre for Reproductive Health, in collaboration with the Kenyan Ministry of Health and FHI, originally set up nine VCT centers in Mombassa, offering a quick, confidential HIV test. Realizing that they needed to do more to reach youth, project managers established three other counseling centers where trained community peer educators provide youth with HIV information. Trained counselors then work with the young person for a referral to a VCT testing center, if appropriate. Youth-oriented projects are also beginning to offer VCT services.

In Uganda, for example, the Naguru Teenage Information and Health Center, which runs a large outreach effort through radio, expanded its existing reproductive health services by adding the lab equipment and training needed to offer VCT as well. Other efforts in Uganda to reach young people include a mobile service run by the Kitovu Mission Hospital, which provides VCT services in schools. “Young people who are HIV-positive still have their dreams and many years ahead. What will happen to their dreams? How long can they sustain behavior change? We should be able to help them cope.”

Some youth services are including VCT from the outset. In Rwanda, a youth center that opened in January 2001 had about 1,600 visitors who chose to be tested in the first eight months, with 93 percent testing negative, 3 percent positive, and 4 percent indeterminate. About 7 percent were repeat visits to confirm test results. This center also offers peer education, counseling on STIs, sports activities, skill-building courses, and activities for parents. In these efforts to provide VCT services to young people, key programmatic challenges are confidentiality, parental consent, adequate counseling, and ongoing support. “Many people are afraid to seek HIV services because they fear stigma and discrimination from their families and community,” as explained in the Kenya national guidelines on VCT.

A new reference guide on VCT and young people, developed by FHI on behalf of the United Nations Children’s Fund, points out that there is no ideal VCT model. Youth centers, youth-friendly services, outreach efforts, social marketing, and other approaches might be helpful. Innovative efforts are needed to reach such groups as young pregnant women, young people using drugs, and out-of school youths. Further documentation and evaluation of successful VCT approaches with young people are needed,

the report points out. More information is needed on how young people who test positive cope, with whom they share results, who provides emotional support, whether they can access support services, long-term outcomes, and comparisons of voluntary counseling with VCT. Ideally, a country would determine informed consent procedures for using VCT. One of the key issues is whether to involve a youth's parents in the process, in approval for testing and reporting results (Finger 2001).

In Kenya, national VCT guidelines issued in 2001 advice that "mature minors" do not need parental consent. "Mature minors" include those individuals younger than 18 years who are "married, pregnant, parents, engaged in behavior that puts them at risk, or are child sex workers."10 The guidelines say that HIV test results should generally be disclosed only to the client but that counselors should encourage those under age 18 to inform their parents or guardians about the results. In countries where such formal guidelines do not exist, agency policies and individual counselors use various approaches to determine whether parental permission is needed. "Before HIV testing is done, it is important for counselors to establish the degree of maturity of the youth in terms of ability to handle the HIV test results,

Effective counseling would explore such issues as a youth's support system. Among 240 young people tested in Kenya and Uganda, less than one-fourth told their parents about their test results. Counseling young people about HIV testing is challenging. It is important to be nonjudgmental, to establish rapport, and to instill hope in young people particularly those testing positive. "Counselors have to be trained to handle young people's needs, which differ from those of adults.

Recent studies indicate that many young people in countries where HIV prevalence is high want to know their HIV status. Voluntary counseling and Testing (VCT) services may be an appropriate entry point to address young people's HIV prevention and care needs. However, such services are limited and more research is needed to determine their impact. (Finger 2001)

As countries try to implement or expand VCT services for young people, program planners face complex issues. They need to establish policies and bolster support services, develop adequate training for counselors who work with young people, make existing services youth-friendly, and address potential problems of stigma. Care and support services are needed

for those young people who test positive, as well as those who test negative (Uganda Aids commission 2004).

Limited research is currently available on how VCT services affect young people, including the support they receive and how their behavior changes. However, research findings do address important related issues. These include the level of young people's demand for VCT services, the impact of VCT on their behavior, and programmatic challenges such as legal and ethical concerns, adequate counseling, and ongoing support. (Finger 2001)

Background information of people living with HIV/AIDS and those who are not constituting, age, sex, marital status, income level, family composition

The household daily activities including sources of income

The number of people who attend VCT sessions from different organizations

The number of VCT services received provided by different service providers

The number of organizations in the area providing VCT services

Interview guide was administered to key informants who will constitute the local community that get and don't get access to VCT services, VCT counselors, health care givers and facilitators in health centers, local council officials and representatives of the relevant NGOs, Community (Civic) leaders and officials of government departments in charge of health. Semi structured questionnaires was used to obtain:

Experiences of people who have utilized VCT services compared to those haven't.

People's behavior towards VCT clients from their respective communities

Mechanism and means through which people access VCT services

Evidence of community response towards the need for VCT services in the community

Actions taken by the community to enhance accessibility of VCT services to the community members who need the services

Suggestions on what should be done to improve among other things to improve on the accessibility of VCT services.

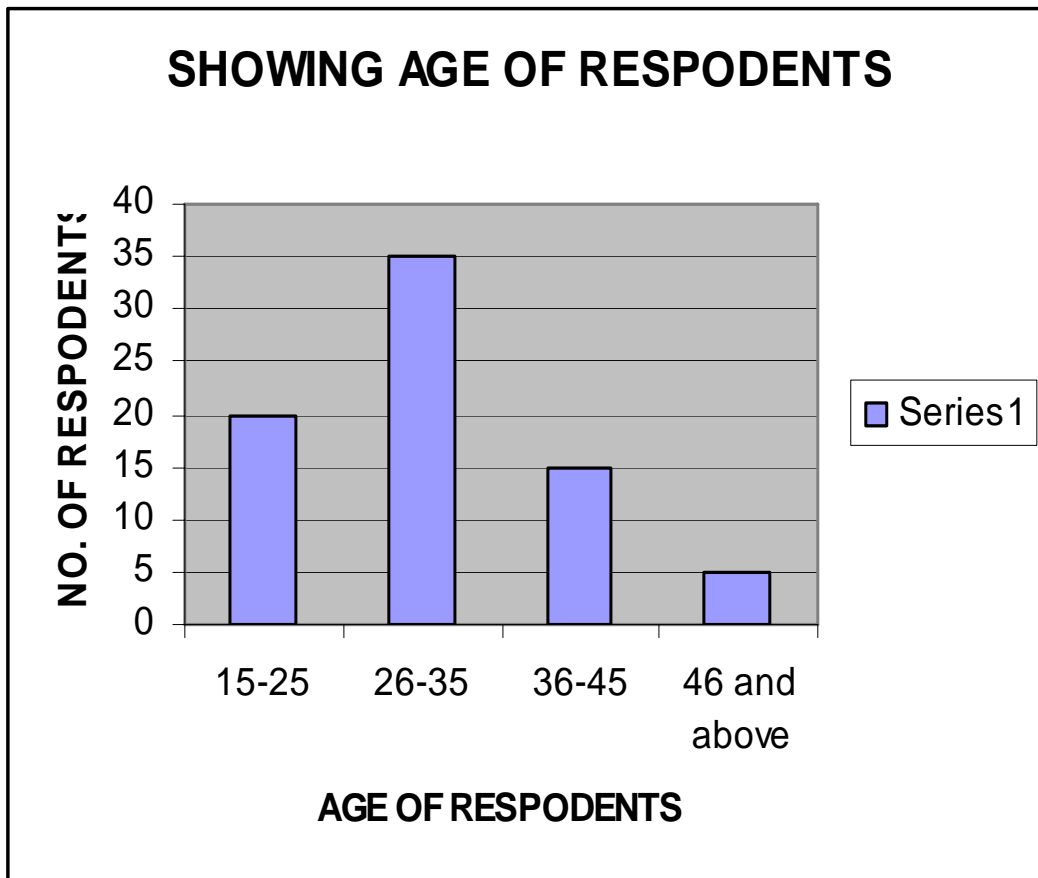
The limiting factors towards accessibility of VCT services in their communities

VCT services in effort to reduce the prevalence of HIV/AIDS as well as avoid re-infection of the virus to the non infected individuals among workers.

Age variations of people living with HIV/AIDS.

The study revealed that the age brackets of 26-35, and 15-25 is the most sexually active and more knowledgeable about HIV/aids issues and always ready to share it with people.

Fig 9: Showing age of age variations

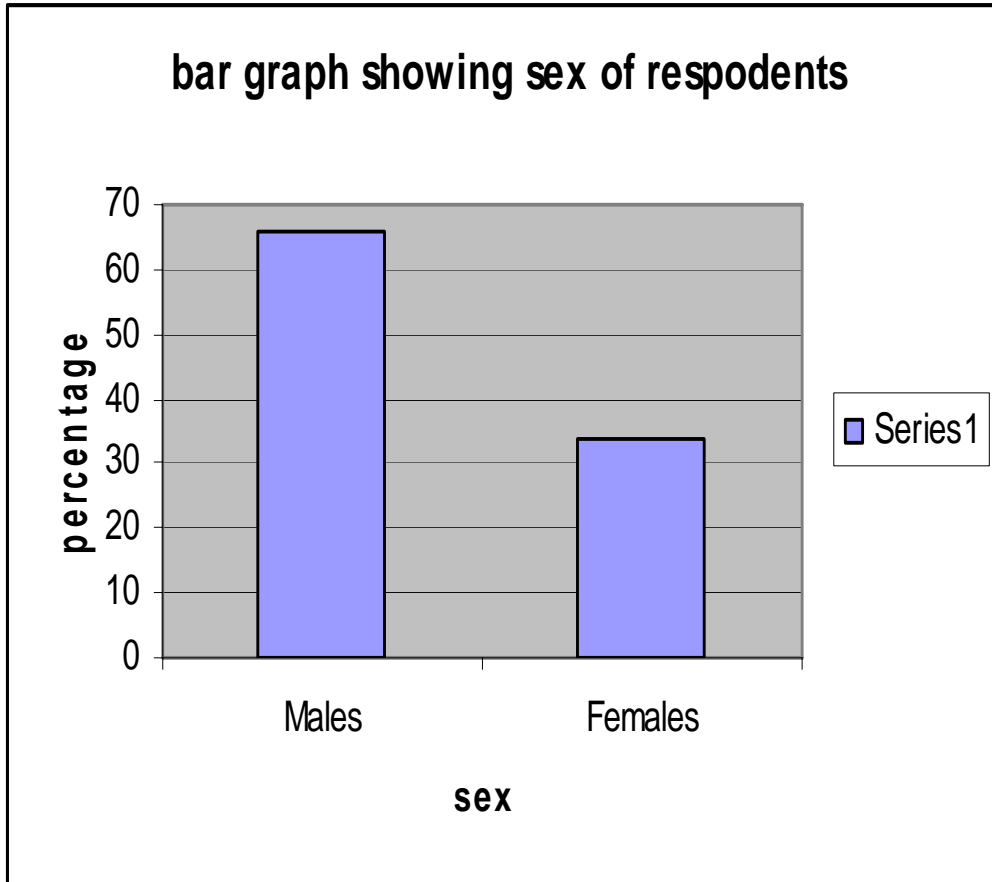


Source: researcher field notes 2007

Gender variations of HIV/AIDS positive people.

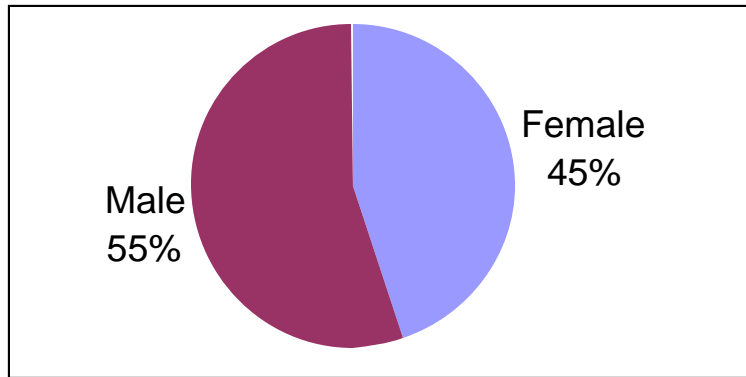
Results from the study indicate that out of 75 respondents 66% were males where as 34% were females.

Figure 9: Bar graph showing sex of respondents



The study was interested in key information like counselors and workers in organizations that are service providers of VCT because they hold important opinions on VCT and HIV/AIDS. The key informants' gender distribution was 57% males while 43% were female.

Fig 10: Pie chart showing the sex of key informants.



Source: field data 2007

As the chart indicates the case of counseling and resting has tended to remain a masculine affair since more males are more informed about HIV/AIDS pandemic issues and are willing to talk about their private life.

The research was interested in establishing the marital status of respondents. The study findings shows that majority of respondents 57% are single while 43% are married.

Marital status is an important variable in getting information pertaining voluntary counseling and testing. This is because single people are seen not mind about life since most of them are youth and are reluctant to know their HIV status. Most youth interviewed reported that going for a HIV test would make them loose hope for the future in case they were found positive.

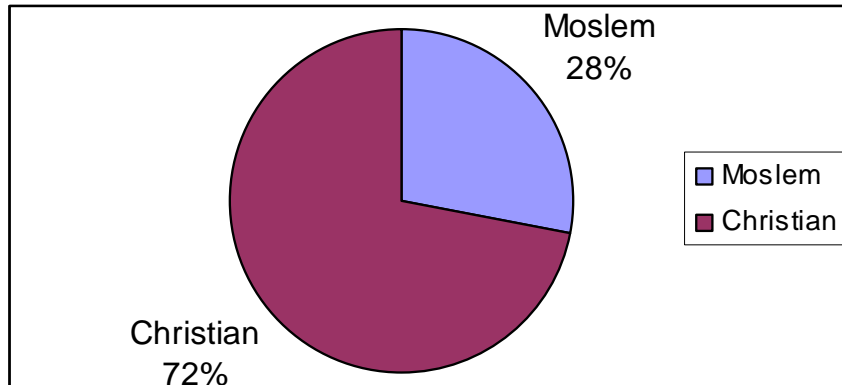
Religious affiliation of respondents:

Results from the study also indicated that 72% of respondents are Christian and 28% were Moslems. It is worth noting that people of different religious affiliation handle HIV/AIDS issues differently. Some religions have been tried to encourage couples to test before getting married for trust and comfort. This helps to avoid domestic violence associated with HIV/AIDS related issues.

Children have strength, they have credibility and they are grounded in communities. This offers them an opportunity to make the real different in combating HIV/AIDS. In responding to challenges of HIV/AIDS the which has transformed in the face of HIV/AIDS crisis in order to force for transformation, bringing hope and accompaniment to all affected and infected though voluntary counseling conducted by some religious males and females.

Because of HIV/AIDS scourge, both Christians and Moslems seem to be responding to realities of life and care for love and give support to HIV/AIDS affected and infected people.

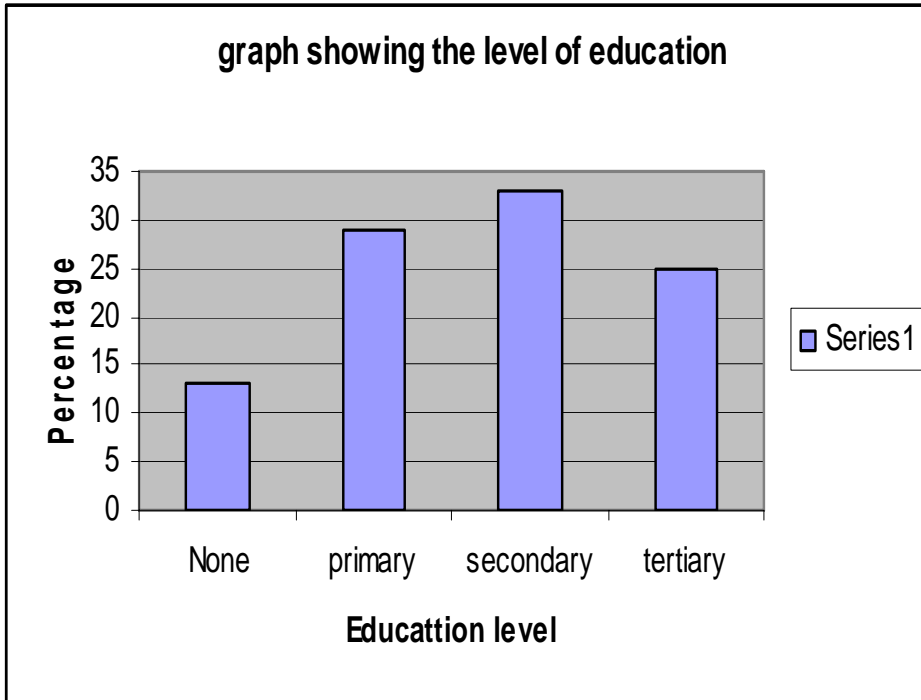
Figure 11: A pie chart showing the religious affiliations



Education level

Education is an important internal component in HIV/AIDS related issues. Education builds understanding of an individual sharpens the ability to interpret issues and ideas thus strengthening ones potential in making rational independent decisions. It is from that perspective that the research set out to establish the levels of education of respondents. Research findings point out that out of the 75 respondents 13% had no basic education, 29% had attained primary level of education, 33% secondary level while 25% tertiary level of education.

Figure 12: Graph showing the level of education:

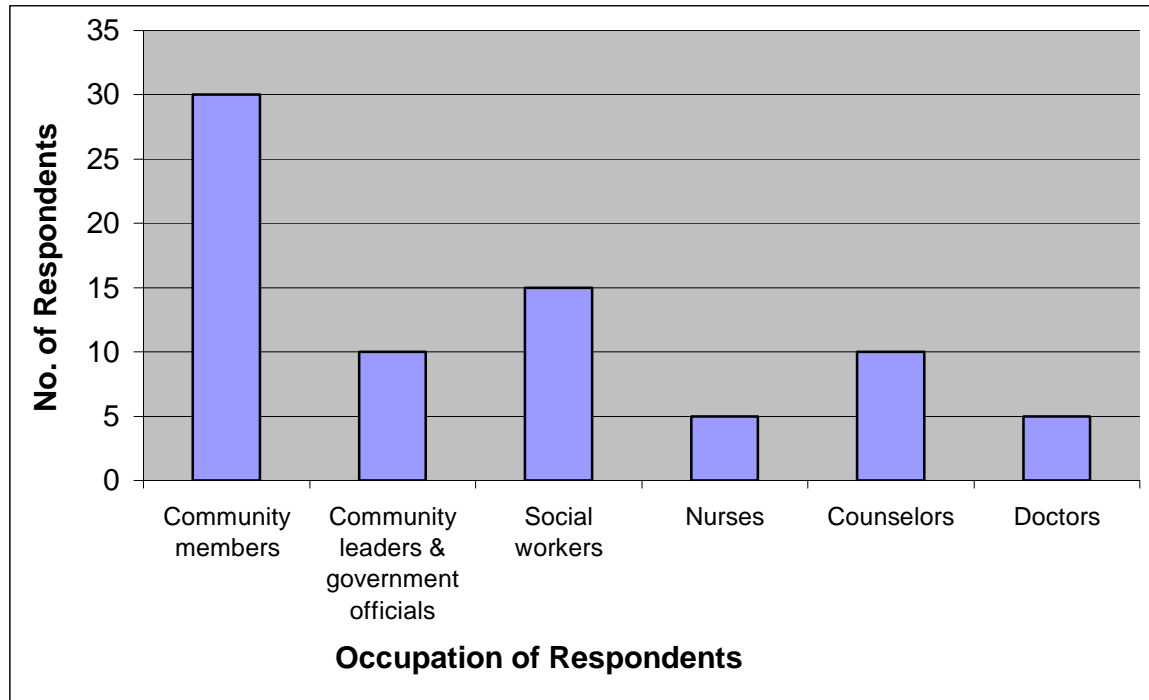


Occupation of people involved with HIV/AIDS service provision

People in different occupation sectors have heard about HIV/AIDS and formed associations on how to handle the pandemic at their workplaces. This helped the researcher to find out and know how HIV/AIDS has penetrated society and some mitigation measures developed to fight the pandemic. It has been revealed that different working sects have had information and guidance on how they can prevent their sectors from HIV and help the already infected live positively and how to handle their people in their relative work places in effort towards reducing the prevalence of the pandemic.

People from different occupations are involve with HIV/AIDS service provision and they are indicated as follows 35(46.7%) are from the general community, 10(13.33%) community leaders and government officials, 15(20%) social workers, 5(6.67%) nurses, 10(13.33%) counselors and 5(6.67%) doctors

Figure 13: Showing occupation categories



Source: research field notes 2007

Information HIV/AIDS

The researcher in the field asked different respondents if they knew or have ever heard about HIV/AIDS and know what HIV/AIDS meant. Different respondents gave different views about HIV/AIDS. Some of the views handle HIV/AIDS as being a sexual transmitted disease, a collection of disease that out come after weakening the body's in the immune system until it can no longer fight off the simple infections that most healthy people's immune system can resist or control early AIDS symptoms which most respondents were aware if included: chronic fatigue, diarrhea, fever, weight loss, persistent cough, skin rashes and other infections.

However, it was revealed from the study that many respondents used both terms HIV/AIDS to mean one thing. They did not clearly differentiate what HIV is and what AIDS is.

According to Ashinaga Uganda (2002) training manual, there is no doubt that the two concepts HIV and AIDS could not be differentiated by the locals in the early 1980s AIDS was associated to witch craft. And even in the local language there is no word to mean HIV or AIDS separately.

How HIV/AIDS is acquired and transmitted.

The research was also interested in knowing if respondents knew how HIV/AIDS is acquired and transmitted. Respondents mentioned different ways in which HIV/AIDS is acquired and transmitted and these include sexual contact with an infected person, from infected mother to baby before or during birth or through breast feeding after birth and through infected blood and blood products (including by sharing needles and through blood transfusions)

Globally, Uganda has been recognized for a strong fight against HIV/AIDS since early 1990's through it is "ABC" Strategy written in full as "Abstinence, Be faithful and use of a Condom". In line with the above strategy VCT has been a key component in the country (UN AIDS 2000)

Respondents noted that a person will become infected with HIV/AIDS depending on how one is exposed to the HIV/AIDS virus. For example the risk of becoming infected with HIV through blood transfusion with infected blood is very high compared to the risk of becoming infected from an accidental needle prick in the health care setting.

Unprotected anal or vaginal sex

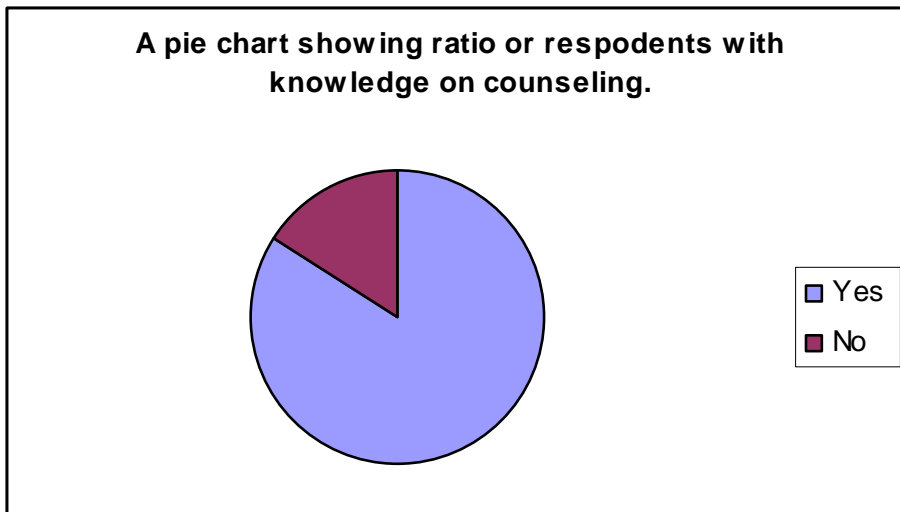
It is estimated that 70-80 percent of global HIV transmission occurs between infected persons and their partners through unprotected sexual intercourse and the sexual contact may be inter sexual or homosexual.

Transmission through infected blood accounts for an estimated 5-10 percent of all HIV infections and mother to child range from 25 to 40 percent in less developed countries and 15-25 percent in more developed countries (VCT tool kit, 2003) Thus this findings relates to facts in literature reviews ;According to USAID (2005) report Uganda has had laudable success in reducing HIV prevalence in the country and is still focused on strengthening and scaling up prevention, treatment and care, and support efforts. Currently, over 1 million people are estimated to have received HIV counseling and testing, over 500,000 HIV-positive individuals are receiving palliative care and over 60,000 are receiving antiretroviral therapy (ART). Access to services has increased as service delivery sites have expanded into rural areas. With a prevalence rate that appears to have stalled at around 7 percent and new infections continuing to occur among those of reproductive age, the epidemic still requires policy and program attention.

Counseling information.

From research findings it was estimated that the number of people who had some knowledge about counseling were as follow: 63(84%) knew what counseling was or is and 12 (16%) had no idea on the term counseling.

Figure 14: A pie chart showing ratio or respondents with knowledge on counseling



Source:

researcher field notes 2007

Respondents defined counseling as an interaction in which the counselor (helper) offers another person or persons the time, attention, respect necessary to explore, discover and clarify ways of living more resourcefully.

In the context of HIV/AIDS, respondents said that counseling is a confidential dialogue between a client and a counselor aimed at enabling the client to cope with stress as well as stigma and make personal or informed decisions related to HIV/AIDS.

Counseling is an issue centered and goal-oriented interaction and involves carrying on a dialogue and providing options for decision making and behaviour change. A counselor at Mbarara community hospital said good counseling helps another person to be autonomous that is able to choose, make decisions and be responsible for his or her own actions.

Out of 75 respondents, 48(64%) had ever been counseled in many fields not HIV/AIDS alone and 27(36%) had never been counseled. The ever counseled respondents gave in their views on what motivated them to undergo counseling and among these factors include; public health talks by

health workers about people's lives, testimonies of people infected and affected by HIV/AIDS, influence from friends, the need to donate blood to save lives of the vulnerable, workshops attended by people that attach value to health status of people and the need to remove fear from one sect. Research has found it to be a cost effective strategy for facilitating behavior change and it is important entry point for care and support to those who test positive. These findings have boosted interest and support for VCT as a viable component of comprehensive HIV/AIDS programming (Daily monitors, Report 2005).

Counseling procedures

Respondents identified the Counseling procedures one undertakes when he/she is to take a test. The counseling procedures identified include.

Pre-test counseling

This occurs before a client's blood is tested for HIV antibodies and this is conducted to explain the test and clarify its meaning, explain the limitations of test results and caution the client about potential misuse of results, and to help the client understand why the test is needed so that he/she make a decision about the test.

The next phase of pretest counseling is to provide information about safe sex practices and healthy life style practices. If the client is practicing risky behaviors, it is important to discuss what may be required of the clients in terms of behavior change.

The final stage in pretest is for the client to determine whether he/she wants to be tested for HIV antibodies and at this stage one should have a good understanding of the test, its meaning and implication. In the survey conducted in Uganda and Kenya, most of the 240 who had been tested said they intended to adopt safer sexual behaviors such as sexual abstinence, monogamy, using condoms, and reducing the number of their sexual partners. But the study did not examine actual behavior change, which could be different from intended change. A U.S. study involving more than 4,000 males and female ages 15 to 25 years found that incidence of STIs decreased for those testing negative for HIV, but did not change for those who tested positive.

Post test counseling

This is the kind of counseling you get after you have had the test. In this session the counselor will give the test result, let one express the feeling about HIV antibody positive, negative or undetermined. Also in this discussion immediate problems and ways to help one to decide on a plan of counseling services, with or without testing, can and to help one to decide on a plan of counseling services, with or without testing, can and should be tailored to the needs of participation groups some of which have different needs.

Issues tackled in counseling

According to research findings various issues are handled in counseling. These issues include: personal feelings on a particular thing one is counseled about, stress management, how to manage disease, emotional coping care and support, health protection, family care stigma and discrimination, positive living, behavior change among others. All the issues discussed are geared at ensuring a person lives a healthy life and copes whether positive or negative.

The roles of counseling

Respondents were asked any roles of counseling they knew that have an impact to one's health and life. Various roles were named and these included comfort to people who are HIV/AIDS positive or negative.

Counseling also prepares one before a HIV test and this puts one on a focus even after the results are bad or good. Counseling plays a role of stress management, helps one to live positively, one is informed of good decisions. It eliminates stigma and discrimination and promotes emotional support. A counselor with Family Planning Association of Uganda (FPAU) noted that counseling plays two important roles: preventing HIV infection by promoting behavior change and providing psychosocial support to people infected by HIV. These roles are fulfilled by giving information about HIV/AIDS to clients and their partners, encouraging preventive behavior, helping HIV positive clients and those close to them cope with the diagnosis, discussion decisions that need to be made, according to the client's life circumstances and referring clients to appropriate treatment and care services.

Counseling and HIV/AIDS

From the research findings it was noted from the respondents that counseling empowers one who undergoes a HIV/AIDS test with 100% of the respondents saying yes to the questions and backing up their responses.

One learns more about the virus and how it affects our body; looks after our health so that we stay healthy. Also gets information and counseling on how to live positively with the virus, seeking emotional support, eating a health diet, learning how to control stress in our lives, making sure we don't become re-infected as well as planning for the future. HIV counseling has both prevention and care as its objective. It concentrates on emotional, behavior and social issues which helps one to live in any environment. This counseling is a tool that supports and prolongs one's life.

Challenges in HIV/AIDS counseling

Key informants like nurses and counselors gave in their opinions about challenges in HIV counseling. Counselors' everyday work takes place in an emotionally charged environment; clients may release intense emotions, particularly during post-test and supportive counseling. This may be especially true for people living with or affected by HIV, who may have to face emerging issues when new symptoms develop, treatments fail, a loved one dies or other significant life events occur.

Giving test results can be emotionally challenging and stressful for counselors for instance providing positive situations where support is inadequate and clients may be vulnerable to discriminations.

Testing information

Respondents were asked on their view about what they understood by testing. From their understanding testing is the desire for one to know and understand his or her health status. People go for testing to get know their health status and take action according to the results from the test.

Other respondents understood testing as having a change of mind to have an informed decision pertaining one's health while some understood testing as giving in an informed consent after undergoing a series before the test.

Testing procedures.

According to the study findings testing has three phases and these includes, pre testing which encompass counseling the client to be ready for testing and testing results. Then other procedure is the testing where blood is taken

from the client for screening of any disease merit for the test. The final procedure is the post-test where a counselor or doctor gives out the outcome results of the client.

Peoples views on testing of HIV/AIDS

Respondents were asked if they had even taken a HIV/AIDS test in this entire life. 47% of the respondents said yes while 53% said no.

Those who said yes mentioned that they carried out the test after receiving testimonies from HIV infected and affected people that drove them to feel concerned of their health status and therefore the need to have the test. Other mentioned issue included bias of oneself from the part deeds and this was already explained that people need up in the course of their life by buying and sleeping with ant man or woman and so at the end of the day feel like taking a HIV/AIDS test to know their health status.

One head of the family told the researcher that he took a HIV/AIDS test to have a plan for his entire life and family for a bright future. Some respondents said they took a test because of the good counseling they received from testing centers like FPAU, AIC and TASO.

One client supported the above view as thus:

I took HIV/AIDS test because of the health conditions which she was in that is pregnancy and that if she found herself HIV positive which she would not disclose to the researcher, then she would plan for better ways of having a safe baby free from HIV/AIDS.

A counselor at FPAU was asked of some possible client reactions to positive test results. She had this to say, “Clients can react to results in many ways, from resignation to sever shock and disbelief. Some clients assume they become ill immediately and die. It is important to remind them of the difference between HIV and AIDS, and to point out that, with HIV, it is possible so remain for a longtime”

“No one has ever said yes to AIDS. No one has asked for it. Most of us who have it now had never even heard of it when we caught it. You cannot attach blame or assign guilt to any one. It doesn’t matter who was responsible the husband or the wife or the blood transfusion. The important thing is to think and live positively” this quote from a counselor sums up the positive attitude counselors should encourage in their clients to promote a positive living.

Voluntary testing and counseling information

In the field, respondents were asked if they know or have ever heard about voluntary counseling and testing. 83% of the respondents said yes while 17% said no. Different respondents gave different views about VCT where some said it meant having a test at some one's free will. Choosing to undergo HIV/AIDS test without being forced and some called it a government initiative for encouraging HIV/AIDS test to fight the pandemic.

As it is documented in the literature review, VCT is when a person chooses to undergo HIV/AIDS counseling in order to make informed decisions on whether to be tested for HIV or not. VCT emphasizes that if we get tested, even when we are not sick, it will help us to lessen the amount of stigma associated with the HIV test.

Support services for VCT.

The researcher asked key informants some issues involved in VCT services. Among the things involved includes ongoing counseling sessions to both HIV-positive and negative clients as part of the VCT package. This helps the clients to cope with things that may endanger their health lives.

There are post-test clubs. These are made available at VCT centers and there are active efforts made to promote them. Both positive and negative clients are encouraged to join these clubs. These clubs generate incomes to the clients and help them support their own families.

Care and support services are also available. In VCT, all HIV-positive living clients are referred for assessment care and support. This helps in identifying opportunistic illnesses which can be treated.

There were other support services noted that included case management and development of an individual action plan, psychosocial support, economic support, emotional and spiritual support, home-based care, as well as nutrition support.

The VCT support services have acted well as preventive measures for reducing the prevalence of HIV/AIDS since they support the infected through reducing stigma and discrimination associated with it and also support the affected.

One of the clients at FPAU also had this to say when the results came back:

My fears were confirmed. I had tested HIV positive. “I already knew, but now I finally feel that I can begin dealing with it instead of just wondering and worrying,” she said. The nurse-counselor referred me to a support group, and I was on my way to the community centre next door to sign up. “What I didn’t know was how to stay healthy. The nurse told me that food is important, and that I need to eat right to keep my strength up”.

Challenges faced by institutions in enhancing VCT.

Obtaining and management of data: data obtained from VCT services such as the number of clients counseled, number of clients should be collected and analyzed in a timely manner. But this is some how lacking because of limited utensils to use like computers and expatriates to handle the work. This has been worsened by inexperienced and untrained as well as ill facilitated personnel to handle the work.

Quality control of HIV testing.

In order to ensure high quality of HIV testing, there is need to have accurate testing materials in place. But from the study findings these materials are lacking in VCT centers and even highly qualified laboratory staff are not enough to effectively carry out the VCT services.

Quality control of counseling

To ensure quality in providing services, there is need for a friendly and easily accessible counseling environment with well-trained counselors. However some VCT centers like TASO, AIC and FPAU among others have separated these entities by creating youth friendly counseling wings to ensure good quality services to youth.

Counseling children who have sexually abused

At every stage of child counseling, the child’s rights need to be observed. The decision taken by the counselor should be of the interest to the child. Sometimes there is need to meet legal personal, more counselors need to be trained in legal aspects, all these need financial support which some VCT provides lack of more government support.

VCT as a viable entry point in HIV/AIDS prevention

In the field the researchers asked respondents if they really thought VCT can be a viable entry pint in HIV/AIDS prevention. A number of responses were raised and 93% of the respondents were in favors in VCT.

Respondents were giving comments like, “VCT is not an end point but an entry point to the prevention-to care continuum”. That VCT supports prevention by offering individuals and couples risk reduction counseling VCT promotes and sustains behavior change and links with preventions of MTCT, prevention and treatment of STIs; and other interventions. In care and support, VCT facilitates early referral to comprehensive

Other responses from people mostly the married ones, faithfulness among couples seem to be a hard thing because a couple may choose to remain faithful to his or her partner when the other is not in for that.

Respondents further sighted out other measures for the prevention of HIV/AIDS that included the prevention of mother to child transmission which has been one of the best ways commonly used by positive living pregnant mothers in ensuring delivery of safe and HIV/AIDS free babies even when the mothers are infected.

It has also been observed from the research findings that condom use among couples is still confusing and when many respondents were contacted about the issue, they confirmed that they use condoms wherever they want to have sex. However it was noted that some use condoms with their partners but after some time they resort to live sex without even knowing the status of the each other. Another client narrated that:

My husband refused to use a condom and when I refused to have live sex he said I never trusted him and I had to give in because this is the man I loved and wanted to marry”

A major purpose which was to investigate whether VCT can be viable in reducing the prevalence of HIV/AIDS urban areas has been achieved. Several others conclusions can be drawn based on the research questions answered and the hypothesis.

- It is clear from the study that VCT can as well be an end point in reducing mother-to-child transmission of HIV/AIDS.
- From this study it has been found evident the VCT is the best mechanism that can be used to reduce stigma and discrimination associated with HIV/AIDS. VCT has enacted a spirit of assertiveness in people’s stigma and discrimination that had greatly contributed to the spread as well as re-infection of the HIV/AIDS virus. It was has

been greatly recognized that VCT provides psychosocial support that can be a great measure in the prevention of HIV/AIDS.

- It has also been recognized from the study finds that VCT has been a viable tool adopted by the many institutions in the effort to reduce the prevalence of HIV/AIDS.

Recommendations

- There is need to develop a well understandable counseling model that will be helpful in reducing the spread of the HIV virus.
- People need to be educated and made to understand more the role of counseling and testing in reducing the spread of HIV/AIDS. There is need for better understanding of the whole concept of VCT and the services it renders.
- There is also need to provide the youth with a more centered conducive environment where they can access VCT services since HIV prevalence is most likely to be among the youth.
- VCT services also need to be extended further to local poor communities for instance at community level since accessibility in terms of transport has been identified as one of the major challenges affecting the access of VCT related services.
- Government should increase its funding for the health sector and provide more support to the institutions involved in providing services for the prevention and reduction of the spread of HIV/AIDS because when the prevalence of HIV/AIDS is high among the productive population economic development will be retarded.

Affirmative Action Policy

In 1989, a policy of affirmative action for women was introduced, which guaranteed the election of a minimum of 39 women district representatives to the national legislature. Women's participation in formal politics increased and women's enhanced struggle for empowerment in all spheres and society was boosted. The national gender policy however was adapted in 1997 in that redressing an equal

gender relation in order to counter gender imbalances in access to and control over resources.

The national gender policy also seeks to mainstream gender concerns in the national development process. One of the activities the ministry of gender labor and social development is mandated to carry out is “to liaise with other actors in identifying and throwing attention to key gender concerns and related needs for example property ownership, land tenure, credit, legal rights as well as relevant options for addressing them such as constitutional guarantees, law reforms and literacy campaigns.”

The ministry “together with other actors liaise an advocacy role in the promotion of gender equity” while the national gender policy is a useful and important tool to ensure that gender equality and equal rights for women are implemented. Important steps have been taken towards resolution of functions, powers and services to local governments and decentralization towards resolution of the many difficult problems surrounding land. The government however appeared committed to improving the situation of women and it still actively pushed to do so by the various women’s organizations, networks, and a number of members of parliament.

The new gender sensitive constitution adopted in 1995, providing the basis for other legislation that was adopting in recent years like in 1997 local governments Act and in 1998 land Act. These laws include an increase of women in decision making positions and the prohibition of those customs, traditions and practices that deny women access to ownership, occupation or use of any land. The government has instituted various mechanisms for promoting gender equality and women empowerment plus facilitating gender main stream. These include ministry of gender labor and social development, the national women’s council and directorate of gender and mass mobilization in the movement secretariat, the Uganda human rights commission, the Uganda law reform commission, Uganda parliamentary

women's association, the national association of women's organizations in Uganda, all these are the national implementing structures.

The following however are the perspectives used in the national gender policy;

Social policy as a Philosophy was used as a baseline for defining an implementation of national gender policy as; after having held facts which have been generated by experience or scientific processes, the policy and the implementation was built in a way that Uganda being a patriarchal society where men are the dominant players in decision making although women shoulder most reproductive, productive and community management responsibilities, many of it are not remunerated or reflected in national statistics. The lower status of women in comparison to men is due to gender imbalances that arise from the unequal opportunities and access and control of productive resources and benefits.

The statistics also show that although women in Uganda constitute 70% to 80% of the agricultural labor force, only 7% own land and only 30% have access to control over proceeds. Women's productivity is further hampered by adequate access to credit and general lack of skills and appropriate technology due to high level of illiteracy, poverty and inadequate flow of access to information. However, measures have been taken to promote the participation of women in decision making positions. The mandatory position for women in the local government structure has improved women's participation in local councils where the 1995 constitution provides for a third of these positions to be filled by women and in addition, women have been empowered to contest for other posts like presidency, ministers and others.

Framework for action: Under this was used as the baseline through the sectoral economic policy which sets the priorities within the micro economic framework which emphasizes shifting the government from direct involvement in productive sectors in which NGOs and private sectors can

play the more effective role, encouraging cost effectiveness of expenditure and priority sectors and reorienting government role towards policy formulation and facilitation of the private sector.

To effect the operationalization of the above strategies and to enhance relevance, efficiency in effectiveness in development policy planning and implementation, the government implementing and decentralization policy which emphasizes a resolution of power to the level of governance? The process has empowered the local authorities and communities to decide and plan for their own needs and problems. Hence, gender and women in development issues have been recognized and are being promoted as part and parcel of sustainable development.

Universal Primary Education in Uganda

Marshall also defined social policy as a policy of government with regards to action of having direct impact on the welfare of the citizen by providing them with service or income ,for example National social security fund [NSSF] and Health policies like immunization among others.

On the other hand, social policy has got two categories that are to say, Narrow definition and broader definition of social policy. The narrow understanding of social policy focuses on the welfare of the individuals or group on a regular or temporary arrangement and these could include provision of food to internally Displaced person in camps, drugs and temporary resettlement of people incase of wars, floods and others. Where as, the broader understanding of social policy targets on he social as a whole, not just individuals or groups of people. For example mobilizing resource, sensitizing the community on the causes and effects o social problems such as out breaking of diseases and illiteracy and it has three elements i.e. social policy as a reflection of time, A political process and a battle among competing.

The Uganda universal primary Education was formulated earlier in 1963 by his Excellency the president of Uganda Yoweri Kaguta Museven. I strongly support and belief that this social policy was meant to reduce the high level of illiteracy rate in Uganda n that, the government responded to the social problems associated to illiteracy and came with this policy to reduce it

although some people do say that this was a political trick for winning votes which is not truth as evidenced by improvement of educational level in Uganda as adopted or borrowed from Bangladesh where it proves to have worked.

The epistemological positions in this policy are as follows; Epistemological deals with social policies as a philosophy where the policy is perceived as a proven fact. For example, it's a collective effort where even the grass root people are involved in the policy making by carrying out research, training and collecting information from the public and then the state initiate social policies basing on proven facts and conceptualizing on existence of collectivism as a proven fact.

More so, Primary Universal Education is regarded as collectivism versus individualism in that, the policy is made aware for every citizen and free for all. It is epistemological as evidenced by the involvements of Local Councils, this is because the state's authorities entrust LCs of every sub-counties to ensure that all undergoing school age children should be registered and taken to school as evidenced by increased number of children per household unlike when it was just implemented which required only four children per household.

The identified social policy can be described as epistemological and a broader understanding because it was a long term plan aimed at reducing illiteracy in Uganda and improves on people's level of understanding formally or to be able to read and write. For instance, there is special education provided for the categories of people like the blind and deaf in existence as well as adult education. All these therefore make it right to say that, this policy has got some epistemological elements to education, although some people argue that it's based on political ground.

The formulation of this policy also involve the use of resources that is to say, man power for example, training teachers, building classrooms, provision of school equipments among others as a collective efforts. Therefore making it possible, to say that formulation of the Universal Primary Education has some epistemological positions in the Ugandan education system.

The introduction of ABEK (Alternative Basic Education for Karamoja) and education provided to people that is to say, fishermen and women of

Kalangala District. It's special because it's done according to the community will of time as teachers follow them.

Ontology is one of philosophical paradigm, which also deals with geographical features, problems and facts on the ground. In respect to the identified policy that is universal primary education, ontological positions can be evidenced by the following;

Increased literacy level in Uganda

As mentioned earlier, the government has implemented this policy with sole aim of reducing illiteracy rate in the country; it has to some extent achieved its goal through providing free primary education for all, special education for the blind, deaf and even adult literacy. All these have contributed a lot to the development of Uganda since most people know how to read and write unlike in other countries, although there are few who could not read or write in Uganda. Examples of such institutions include Gulu School of the blind, Lira school for the deaf and Madera Girls' High School for the blind in Soroti which has contributed to calm down illiteracy rate in the country.

Increased number of pupils in schools.

This policy has led to over population at schools, this is because the policy now advocates for all children under school going age unlike I 1997, 98 and 99 where it was restricted to only four children per household. This freedom now is contributing to poor performance of pupils due to large population which is very difficulty to manage and control by teachers. Another local example is that, other schools have become too small to accommodate all the pupils under free universal primary education and as a result, they end up attending lessons under the trees as evidenced by the new vision, Wednesday February 1st, 2005 pg 13.

The conceptual problem.

Many people view UPE and interpret it in different way depending on one's personal perception. Many people perceive it as a political trick which is not benefiting them, yet most of the problems perceived it as one of the social services hence challenging UPE program.

Poverty

Much as the government has taken this role, parents also have the share for the success of UPE by contributing and this can help the to combat the

element of dependency syndrome. For example, most people in rural areas can not afford to cater for the materials like books, uniforms hence rendering this policy/program unsuccessful.

Poor working conditions

For instance, low salaries for teachers, poor housing facilities and social welfare services which would motivate their work of teaching.

UPE has not embraced the entire school age going groups because other vulnerable children like street children can make it through universalized education because of other factors and as a result, it needs to be comprehensive.

School drop-outs

The Universal Primary Education is also associated with a high increase of school drop-outs, this is true since even adults who had not got opportunity of attaining education are now days joining the program. This is especially in rural areas of Uganda and war affected areas like northern districts of Uganda. This gives chance for teachers on tempting situations to abuse such pupils either physically due to their ages who later on feels discouraged and leave school, or sexually abused leading to un wanted pregnancies, defilement hence school drop-outs as witnessed by many schools talked about over the Radio.

Although universal primary education has up lifted literacy level in Uganda, it has also caused a problem of absenteeism by most pupils due to very large number of pupils which is difficult for teachers to manage and control. This has contributed to poor performance by most schools under universal primary education program yet most private schools are beating up such government schools, because of limited number of pupils for easy management by teachers.

UPE has enabled poor people to get access to education as a social service hence it has reduced illiteracy in our society.

b). the value principles of social equality inherit in the policy I have chosen includes the following;

The values and principles of social equality require that benefits should be allocated in a way which can equalize the resources and opportunities which

are available in societies. Therefore, UPE advocates for universalization or uniformity of basic needs by both male and female; it entails removal of the equality for example, UPE is contributing to women's empowerment in Uganda because UPE is admitting both girls and boys and strongly advocates for girl child education. Even when UPE was just implemented in 1997, at least with the limit of children per household, girls were emphasized to be among the four children. Hence making it a value principle for social equality.

UPE is also a value principle of social equality as evidenced by increased scholarship for girls in schools like FAWE and universities. For instance, KULIKA situated in Kampala is providing scholarships for girls entering university level, and the QUATA system which gives scholarships to students who performed fairly yet in unfavorable conditions like war tone areas of northern Uganda.

The policy has brought in increased sensitization to women especially on their rights to education. This is relevant in that, we come to know that UPE policy recruits both boys and girls which help in bringing us (girls) out of the traditional beliefs that may deny us from attaining education. This helps to empower women to perform productive work leading to development of a country. For example, potential women lecturers among others hence UPE is a value principle of social equality.

UPE today supports many families in terms of feeding in that, most schools today are provided with meals where pupils eat food at the school (Lunch). This is a great contribution from the government especially to the people in IDP camps like the three northern districts of Uganda which is affected by insurgency and armed conflicts, most of them do not have food and therefore depend on school foods and that provided by United Nations. Enrolment and advocacy for girl child education which is implemented by UPE as earlier discussed in part b above. It is relevant because the traditional belief which used to create inequality between boys and girls are minimized.

Increased scholarships for girls is also viewed as a vertical equity in that, it increased after the implementation of UPE policy where most girls were denied from joining higher institutions by their parents or guidance in favor of boys although she might have performed well. To eliminate this inequality practices then, the state and other partners like NGO's with donation from above, help in giving scholarships for girls with aims of

creating equality and providing fair treatment for all in the society. Examples of such scholarships come from KULIKA and UWESO among others in Uganda.

Another evidence for vertical equity is the additional 1.5 points policy offered to girls joining Makerere University. This is to encourage girls to compete with boys in order to create equity in the society. Hence promotion of girl child education.

UPE has given opportunity for girls to access education as advanced by FIDA's advocacy for the rights of children and women to improve on their welfare through education.

The relationship between the millennium development goal, government policy in Uganda and the welfare of the people

At the United Nations Millennium Summit in September 2000, world leaders placed development at the heart of the global agenda by adopting the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The goals set clear targets for reducing poverty, hunger, disease, illiteracy, environmental degradation, and discrimination against women by 2015.

In support of these Goals, United Nations (UN) Secretary-General launched the Millennium Project to recommend the best strategies for achieving the MDGs. The Millennium Project's mandate focuses on identifying the operational priorities, organizational means of implementation, and financing structures necessary to achieve the MDGs. The Goals, and the commitments of rich and poor countries to achieve them, were affirmed in the Monterrey Consensus that emerged from the March 2002 UN Financing for Development conference, the September 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development and the launch of the Doha Round on international trade.

World leaders from countries rich and poor described the Monterrey conference as marking a compact between them in support of shared development goals. That commitment forms the basis for the Millennium Development Compact; a Compact through which the world community can work together to help the poor countries achieve the Millennium Development Goals. This compact calls on all stakeholders to orient their efforts towards ensuring the success of the Goals, in a system of shared responsibilities. Poor countries can insist on increased donor assistance and

better market access from rich countries. Poor people can hold their politicians accountable for achieving the poverty reduction targets within the specified timetable. (UN, 2003). Goal number 3 is about provision of basic education to all children by the year 2015. Education was thus seen as vital for development and improved wellbeing of persons (Basker. D 2006)

In Uganda the government is the leading provider of education in Uganda. In 2002, for instance, the ownership of the country's 13332 primary schools was as follows: the government 10,420 (more than 78%); the private sector, 1,884 (14%); the community, 994 (8%); and others/unreported, 34 (0.3%). In that year there were 7,354,153 pupils in the country's primary schools, 50.1% of whom were males and 49.7% female. Similarly, there were 2,198 secondary schools in Uganda in 2002 with a total enrolment of 665,951 students; 359,494 (54%) of whom were males and 296,457 (45%) females. 48% of these students were enrolled in 711 secondary schools and 21% in 688 community secondary schools. But because most of the country's education budget is spent on primary education, secondary and tertiary is not only less accessible to most Ugandans, it is also starved for resources. (Ministry of Education and Sport, 2006). It's against this background that the Government decided to provide subsidized secondary education.

The USE scheme has caused a lot of excitement among many Ugandans especially those in the rural areas. Currently only a fifth of the country's population of 25 million people has had access to secondary school education, the majority are from the higher income groups and urban families. This new scheme is targeted at low-income groups and children from rural families. (Ministry of Education and Sports, 2007)

USE came at a time when the country is being praised world-wide for its successful implementation of free Universal Primary Education (UPE), a project it launched in 1997. Implementing USE will make Uganda the first African country to have free secondary school education.

The project started with students currently at Senior One (the first level of secondary school) benefited an estimated 300,000 pioneers at a cost of 100 billion shillings (53.6 million US dollars) in the first year. This comprised of pupils who sat Primary Leaving Examinations in 2005 and those who

completed Primary Seven (the last level in primary education) under UPE in 2004 and 2003 but were unable to continue due to lack of fees,

According to the Education Sector Annual Performance Report 2005, an estimated 700,000 students are currently enrolled in the secondary sub-sector, with 370,807 in the 780 public schools and another 317,114 in private schools. Successful implementation of the USE will require the Ugandan government to pool a lot of resources looking at its meager resource envelop. The country has many competing sectors that also require resources to run. However, as noted attitudes have a bearing on individual behavior and response to a given activity.

Critics have already started arguing that USE is merely a fallacy and a political gimmick which will not take off because of the meager resources that the country has. The donor community finances more than half of the 620 billion shillings (332 million dollars) education sub sector budget (Kibalamira George, 2007)

The government plans to construct a secondary school in every sub-county in the country in order to ease the anticipated congestion. Currently 327 of the 970 sub-counties in the country still lack government-aided secondary schools. The government is currently reviewing a possibility of giving incentives to those who want to invest in building secondary schools. Under the USE scheme, government will also pay 15,621 shillings (8.37 dollars) per student per term. Each year comprises of three terms.

Although the evidence is not definitive, education has been shown to strengthen social and cultural capital. Absolute increases in educational attainment can shift disadvantaged groups, such as ethnic minorities or females, from absolute deprivation to relative deprivation compared to more advantaged groups. How far true this is in the case of the people of Tororo is not clear and that's why this study is important.

Collier and Hoeffler, (2001) argued that if the content of the education encourages it, education can promote social justice, human rights, and tolerance. As the percentage of the male population enrolled in secondary school goes up, the probability of civil conflict goes down. These desirable effects depend on the content of education and do not flow from the fact of education per se. This study therefore will explore the education policy in

the context of the millennium development goals and examine how they have affected the welfare of the people in the area. .

Theoretical Frame Work

For purpose of this study, the researcher based the study on the public choice theory about welfare.

The public choice theory is a strong variant of the rational choice theory. The theory is concerned with the provision of so-called public goods, goods that are delivered by government rather than the market, because, as with clean air, their benefit cannot be withheld from individuals who choose not to contribute to their provision. It assumes that political society is composed of self-interested individuals who coalesce into organized interests. Interest groups, which tend to form around relatively narrow issues of special importance to their members, are created by individuals seeking specific self-interested goals. Individuals join with other self-seeking individuals to acquire access to public resources (Grindle and Thomas, 1991). In short, at the heart of the public choice theory is the self-interest maximization hypothesis.

Four principles underline the public choice theory. They are: (i) Public sector actors or officials behave as if they maximize their own interests; (ii) All social entities are fundamentally sets of individual actors; (iii) Political interaction is to be based on voluntary exchange; (iv) Politics as voluntary exchange requires the making of an economic constitution that is to guide the relationship between the state and the individual; (v) Citizens provide rulers or the state with resources and power for which they expect a return of goods and services as well as laws regulating society that matches what they are giving up (Buchanan et al., 1978; Buchanan, 1987; Lane, 1993).

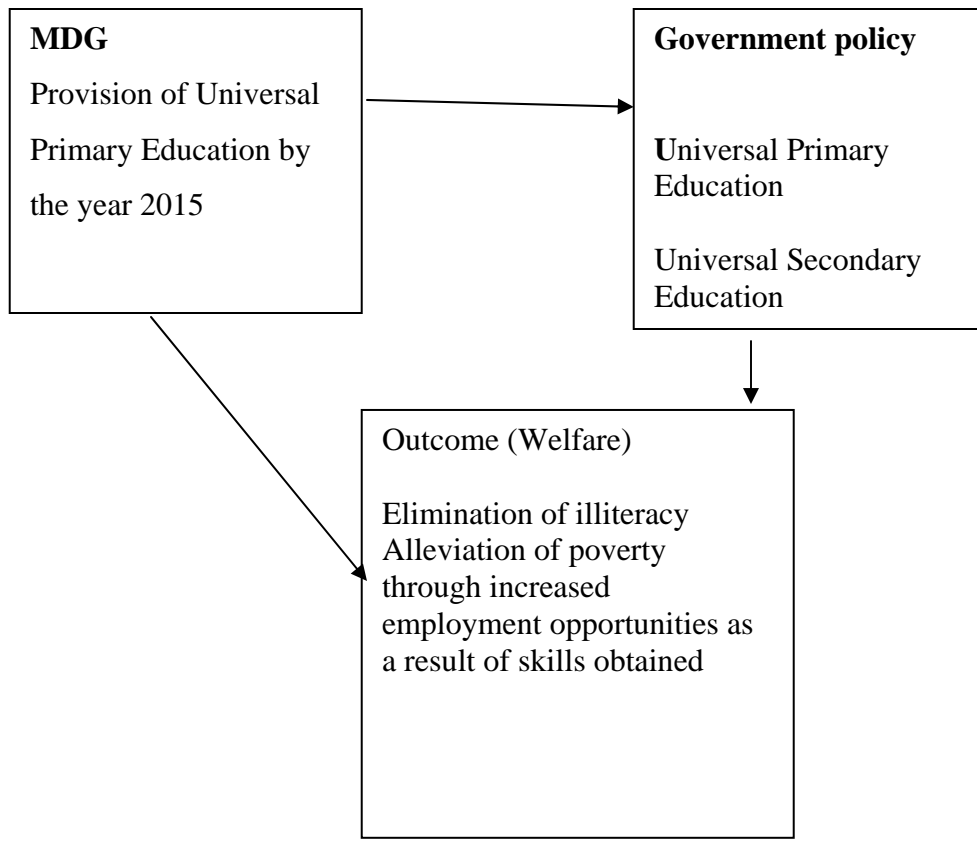
The public choice model is important of a number of reasons. First, it offers a coherent explanation for seemingly non-rational decision making by governments. Why should governments adopt public policies and programs which are harmful to society? The solution to the problem is to closely limit the activities to fall under the regulatory power of the state. Second, it explains why “the public interest” is not achieved. Third, by focusing on the power of vested interests, it demonstrates the barriers to reform that area created by pre-existing policies and by the political relationships that they engender.

It explains why existing social policies are a result of an inevitable rationality of rent-seeking (Lane, 1993; Grindle and Thomas, 1991). It provides an explanation for the willingness of public officials to respond to the pressures and imprecations of lobby groups and other types of special interests. It also provides an explanation for policy choices that are detrimental to society as a whole over both the shorter and the longer term and offers a way of understanding the constraints on policy change that develop over time.

An analytical framework is needed for the discussion of social policies intended to curb problems in the education sector. However, in spite of its relevance, it is limited for the following reasons:

- It is much less able to explain how policy changes or how policy itself can lead to broadly beneficial outcomes. There is then little room for public officials who adhere to particular ideologies, whose professional training provides them with independent judgment in the analysis of policy issues, or who may adopt goals that transcend the interests of any particular group or coalition groups. Instead, policy elites are creatures of vested societal interests, however, much they seek to work these to their individual rent-seeking advantage, and their actions –devoid of ideological or technical content–can be explained by motivations to maximize political support; It is not able to explain how, why, or when reform occurs, except through events or appearance of wise statesmen or technocrats who, for unexplained reasons, exhibit behavior that is politically irrational;
- Though it indicates the importance of the power-seeking motivations of decision makers, it tells us little about how their motivations are developed or altered over time (Grindle and Thomas, 1991; Lane, 1993; Turner and Hulme, 1997)

Figure 15: Conceptual Frame Work



The above diagram illustrates the relationship between the variables. It can be seen that the MDG influenced the government policy in education resulting into UPE which is also linked to welfare in the form of reduced illiteracy, increased social status among others.

Universal Education is justified on ethical and humanitarian grounds as right, good, and fair. Education enables people to develop their capacities to lead fulfilling, dignified lives. High-quality education helps people give meaning to their lives by placing them in the context of human and natural history and by creating in them an awareness of other cultures. Article 26 of the United Nations' Universal Declaration of Human Rights, adopted in 1948, asserts: "Everyone has the right to education." It maintains that primary education should be free and compulsory. The Convention on the Rights of the Child, which entered into force in 1990, obliges governments to make universal primary education compulsory and also to make different forms of secondary education accessible to every child. It is against this

background that the government of Uganda has initiated the Universal Secondary Education (Ministry of Education and Sports Report 2001)

The government has been providing full universal but non compulsory primary education (UPE) to its children since 1997. Initially UPE covered four children per family but has recently expanded to cover all children, increasing the enrolment in primary schools to 98 %. Although Uganda spends 70% of its education budget on UPE, parents still shoulder a significant portion of the cost of educating their children (Ministry of Education and Sports Report 2001).

CHAPTER EIGHTEEN

Education policy and millennium development goals in Uganda

Formal education was first initiated by Voluntary Missionary Organisations in Uganda during the colonial times around the 1880s. Since 1925, the Government started playing an active role of exercising control over education, which was expanded rapidly during the 1950s and 1960s. In the early 1920s and 1930s, education was available only to a small group of people mainly children of the aristocracy, clergy and tribal chiefs. A strong emphasis on the equality of education for all people was pointed out by the Castle Commission (1963), which argued for raising standards of agriculture, and technical education, expansion of girls' education, and provision of adult education. Since 1963, education policy in Uganda was mainly guided by the Castle commission report up to the inception of the 1992 Government white paper. Between 1971/2 – 1975/6, the Government Educational Plan was almost not implemented due to manpower vacuum created by the expulsion of Asians. Between the early 1980s and 1990s, emphasis on educational policy was largely a general recovery and rehabilitation of educational facilities and man power to restore functional capacity (Ministry of Education and Sports Report 1995)

Uganda's education system has undergone tremendous changes since 1979 when most institutions in the country had virtually collapsed. In the early 1980's, emphasis was mainly on the rehabilitation and expansion of schools, albeit without proper planning. Between 1980 and 1985, education accounted for an average of only 15.6% of recurrent government expenditure, reflecting its low priority at the time. However, since 1986, government expenditure on the education sector has risen steadily, and as of 2000, accounted for up to a third of total government discretionary recurrent budget. (Ministry of Education and Sports Report 2005).

Between 1986 and 1996, primary school enrolment rose modestly from 2.2 million to 3.1 million. But with the introduction of Universal Primary Education (UPE) in 1997, it jumped to 5.3 million, an increase of 70% in just one year. By 1999, the number had risen to 6.6 million, and the Ministry of Education and Sports expects numbers to reach 6.8 million by 2003. Without doubt, the introduction of UPE is the single most important development in the education sector in the last decade. This development

has not only transformed the entire education system in Uganda, it has also presented many challenges for Government, while at the same time opening up investment opportunities for the private sector (MoES 1998 b).

Education policy in Uganda has evolved over the years resulting in several documents, one of which is the White Paper on Education Policy of 1992. The document covers all levels of education from pre-primary to higher education, and all types of formal education such as general, technical, vocational, teacher training as well as non-formal education. The Ministry of Education has developed a sectoral approach to education in partnership with funding agencies. The Education Strategic Investment Plan (ESIP) 1998 - 2003 is a medium term vehicle that embodies this approach and other key aspects of the Education White Paper.

The Uganda's Universal Post Primary Education and Training (UPPET) policy was formulated in the context of the: 1992 Government White Paper on Education; the long-term holistic Education Sector Strategic Plan (2004-2015); the education sector long-term expenditure frame; the international long term commitments (in particular the Millennium Development Goals and Educational for All); and the medium term goals and plans of the sector.

USE has four purposes: (i) increasing equitable access to post primary education and training (PPET); (ii) assuring achievement of the MDG of Gender parity in education delivery by 2015; (iii) enhancing sustainability of the universal primary education (UPE); and (iv) reducing the high costs of PPET.

Not all those children who complete the primary cycle successfully are able to join secondary schools. The Education Management Information System (EMIS) 2004 indicates that only about 50% of those who complete primary seven (P7) are able to transit to post primary. According to the National Poverty Assessment Report 2003, secondary education remains prohibitively expensive and as such inaccessible for many learners, in addition to other impediments such as culture, attitude to education, early marriages, petty trade and insecurity in some areas of the country. All the studies undertaken cite poverty as the major cause of drop out or failure to access USE

At present, Government has only 845 secondary schools. There are 314 sub-counties operating without Government schools and 314 sub-counties

without any form of secondary school. Overall, according to the PEAP 2004/5–2007/8, the incidence of secondary education is highly skewed toward the higher income groups and urban and semi-urban families. Much as the private sector plays a significant role, its participation in rural areas is limited. The World Bank (2004) indicates that in contrast with primary education, the incidence of secondary education has been becoming more unequal, with the public sector not adequately targeting the poor. While gender disparities have been overcome in primary education, there are about 35% more boys than girls in S1-S4 and over 60% in S5-S6.

The current Policy is on expanding the functional capacity of educational structures and reducing on the inequities of access to education between sexes, geographical areas, and social classes in Uganda. It advocates for redistribution of resources viz a viz reforming the educational sector. More resources have been allocated to lower educational public sector through the UPE programme in order to enhance equity of access at that level between boys and girls (MoES 1998 b). Higher education especially tertiary education is increasingly becoming liberalised – in fact privatised. The impact of this shift in policy on the female gender is yet to be ascertained, but for females from poor districts, their chances for higher education have become decimal.

Education and the welfare of the people

According to the Humana Development Report 2005, although education is not available to hundreds of millions of children, neither are health care, adequate nutrition, employment opportunities, and other basic services available to these children or their families. Why should universal primary and secondary education be a development goal of high priority? Several rationales support the pursuit of universal primary and secondary education. Education provides economic benefits. Education builds strong societies and polities. Education reduces fertility and improves health.

According to UNICEF 2005, education is a widely accepted humanitarian obligation and an internationally mandated human right. These rationales are commonly offered for universal primary education, but many benefits of education do not accrue until students have had 10 or more years of education. Completion of primary education is more attractive if high-quality secondary education beckons.

As Hannum and Buchmann report (2002) in their chapter on the consequences of educational expansion, extensive sociological and economic studies have found that education generally enables individuals to improve their economic circumstances. However this view considers only the economic benefits and thus focuses only on economic welfare thus neglecting social welfare.

Although the benefits of education for the individual are clear, the aggregate effects on economic growth are more difficult to measure and remain a matter of dispute (Krueger and Lindahl, 2001).

Pritchett, 1997; and Bloom and Canning, 2004) noted that more education contributes to a demographic transition from high fertility and high mortality to low fertility and low mortality, and Bloom and colleagues (2003) find this change is associated with accelerated growth. When fertility rates fall, the resulting demographic transition offers countries a large working-age population with fewer children to support, although only for a transient interval before population aging begins. In this interval, the large fraction of the population that is of working age offers an exceptional opportunity for high economic growth (Bloom et al., 2003). Women who attend school, particularly at the secondary or tertiary level, generally have fewer children than those who do not. How far true this is in the case of Tororo is uncertain and this study will try to investigate on this.

Jejeebhoy, (1996) pointed out that in some African societies; total fertility is reduced only among girls who have had 10 or more years of schooling (Jejeebhoy, 1996). Education contributes to reduced fertility through numerous pathways. Maternal education can lead to increased use of contraceptives. Education can enable women more easily to work outside the home and earn money. This improvement in status leads to empowerment and increased decision-making authority in limiting fertility. Educated women tend to delay marriage and childbearing, perhaps because of the increased opportunity costs of not participating in the paid labor force. Education and income may also become intertwined in a virtuous spiral: as incomes grow, more money is available to finance the spread of education, which leads to further increases in income.

Strong societies and politics

Educated citizens may be more likely to vote and to voice opposition. Among states, higher enrollment ratios at all levels of education correspond to increases in indicators of democracy

Health

Controlling for income, educated individuals have longer, healthier lives than those without education. Children who are in school are healthier than those who are not, though causation could flow in either direction or both. Many effects of education on health are indirect effects through increased income. Education increases economic status, and higher income individuals have better access to health care services, better nutrition, and increased mobility. Education also has direct impacts on health, unrelated to income. It can provide vital health knowledge and encourage healthy lifestyles. For example, the offspring of educated mothers have lower child and infant mortality rates and higher immunization rates, even when socioeconomic conditions are controlled statistically. Improved health may in turn enhance education. For example, as Kremer and Bettinger discuss in their chapters, randomized evaluations of school-based health programs in Kenya and India suggest that simple, inexpensive treatments for basic health problems such as anemia and Intestinal worms can dramatically increase the quantity of schooling students attain. Bloom reviews research on the reciprocal relationship between health and education in chapter ten.

A basic human right

Universal education is justified on ethical and humanitarian grounds as right, good, and fair. Education enables people to develop their capacities to lead fulfilling, dignified lives. High-quality education helps people give meaning to their lives by placing them in the context of human and natural history and by creating in them an awareness of other cultures. Article 26 of the United Nations' Universal Declaration of Human Rights, adopted in 1948, asserts: "Everyone has the right to education." It maintains that primary education should be free and compulsory. The Convention on the Rights of the Child, which entered into force in 1990, obliges governments to make universal primary education compulsory and also to make different forms of secondary education accessible to every child.

Some critics of USE argue that, the Government policy is to keep the children of the peasants, rural and urban workers who constitute over 90% of

the population in poorly funded UPE schools. The majority of these children of peasants and workers study in "schools" without basic requirements such as text books, exercise books, pens and even motivated teachers. After seven (7) years of neglect, they pass in division three or four from where they are admitted to equally poor USE schools. (Musoke Alfred, 2007)

According to the UPC press Release (2007) the USE schools which charge less than Shs 25,000 have no libraries, textbooks, or motivated teachers, let alone, laboratories, equipment and other accessories. According to last years senior four results only 813 schools out of 1,929 had at least 5% of their students passing in first grade. Indeed 406 schools had no single first grade. The situation in these poor schools is bound to worsen under USE.

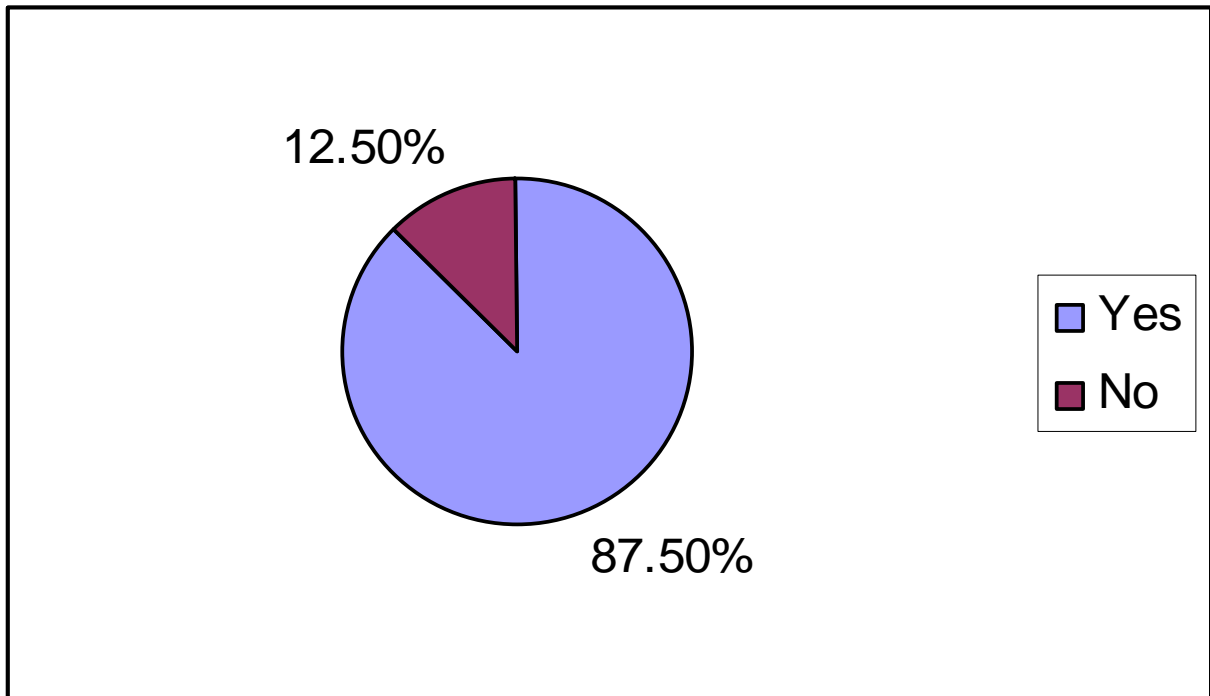
According to Wafula Ogutu (Monitor News Paper September 2007) the government policy is ostensibly to promote science education. However the practice is to pay lip service to education let alone science education. The failure rate of science subjects at primary seven and senior four attest to the NRM's failure to put in place any credible science oriented education. The USE, poorly funded as it is, will result into worse performance in science subjects and promote mediocrity. Large numbers of students with poor science backgrounds at primary level will study in schools which have no functioning laboratories.

The Changes in the Education Policy since the Declaration of Millennium

Development Goal

The study observed (87.5%) changes in the education policy as presented in the figure below.

Figure 16: Responses on Changes in Education Policy



Source: Data collected from the field 2007

These findings were further confirmed by views obtained from a section of the key informants interviewed

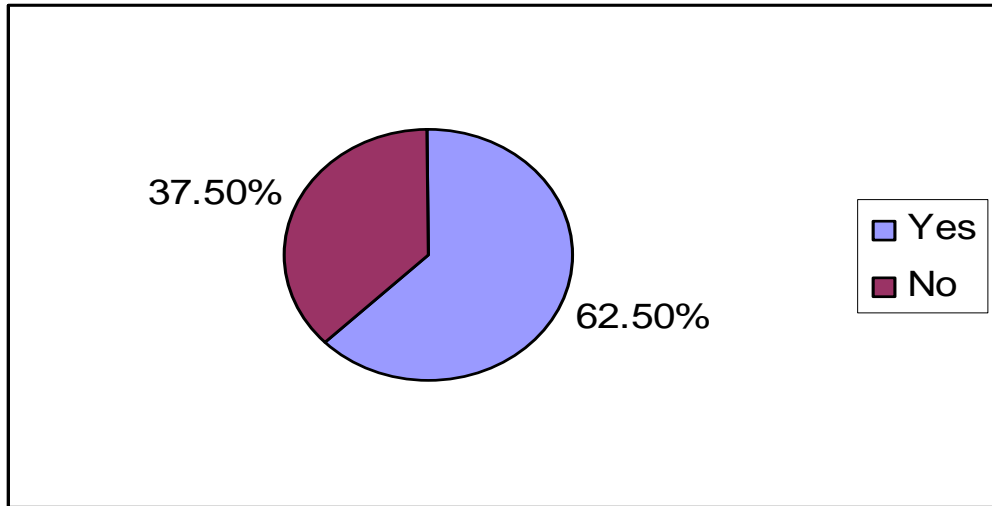
According to the Head master of St. Peter's college Tororo,

“The education system has been evolving. What was there in the 1960s and 1980s is not what it is today. That therefore means the education policy has changed. Look at policies such as U.P.E and U.S.E, these are new policies’

The effects of the changes on People's welfare

The changes in the education policy have had an impact on people's welfare. Out of the 80 respondents interviewed 50 (62.5%) said that the changes in the education policy have had an impact on people's welfare.

Figure 17: Showing Responses on Whether the Changes in Policy has had an Impact on People’s Welfare



Source: Data collected from the field 2007

The above figure reports (62.5%) changes in education policy having serious impacts on the welfare of the people.

One education official had this to say,

“The changes in the education policy in Uganda have in away improved on the welfare of the people. Look at the U.P.E policy, although highly criticized for producing half baked products; it has reduced on the dropout rate, reduced illiteracy, and reduced crime rates as a result of juvenile delinquency activities among others. In my opinion, I think yes the changes in the education policy in Uganda have in away improved on the welfare of people in this area”.

The relationship between the millennium development goals, education policy and the welfare of the people

The study established that there is a correlation between the millennium development goals, the education policy in Uganda and the welfare of the people in Uganda

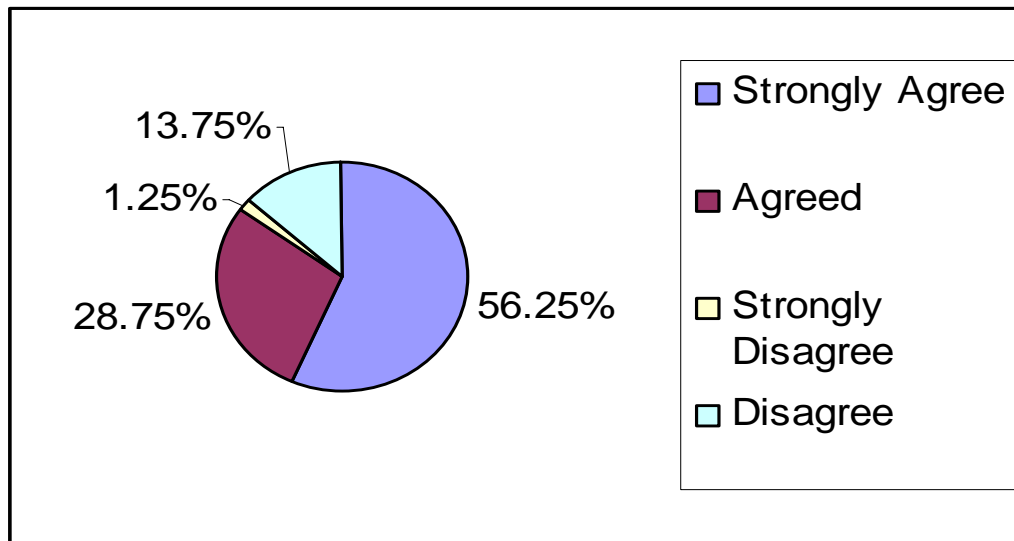
Millennium development goals and the education policy in Uganda

The study findings established that the Uganda's Universal Post Primary Education and Training (UPPET) policy was formulated in the context of the: 1992 Government White Paper on Education; the long-term holistic Education Sector Strategic Plan (2004-2015); the education sector long-term expenditure frame; the international long term commitments (in particular the Millennium Development Goals and Educational for All); and the medium term goals and plans of the sector.

It was further established that USE has four purposes but most important being assuring achievement of the MDG of Gender parity in education delivery by 2015. it thus can be argued that the changes in the education policy in Uganda as seen in the fore going was due to the Declaration of the Millennium Development Goals and so countries including Uganda were compelled to design policy measures to effect these goals.

The responses obtained revealed that the millennium development goals have influence on the education policy in Uganda (56.25%)

Figure 18: Responses on Whether the MDG have influenced the Education Policy in Uganda



Source: Data collected from the field 2007

Education Policy and Welfare of the People

Bloom and Canning, (2004) noted that more education contributes to a demographic transition from high fertility and high mortality to low fertility

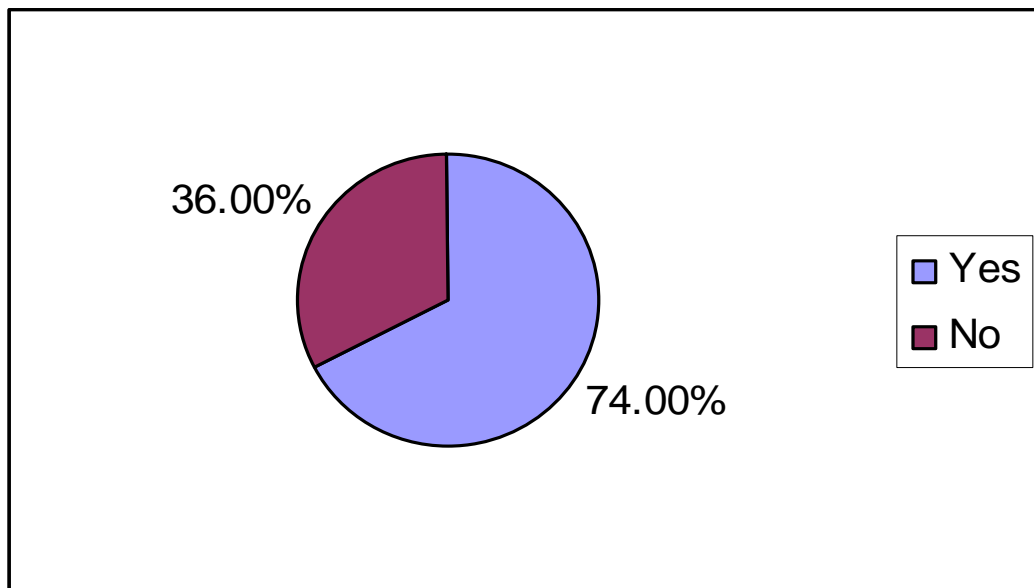
and low mortality. When fertility rates fall, the resulting demographic transition offers countries a large working-age population with fewer children to support, although only for a transient interval before population aging begins. In this interval, the large fraction of the population that is of working age offers an exceptional opportunity for high economic growth. Women who attend school, particularly at the secondary or tertiary level, generally have fewer children than those who do not.

One key informant interviewed concurred with the above line of thought as follows

“Education contributes to reduced fertility through numerous ways. Maternal education can lead to increased use of contraceptives and in fact women who have attended school in this area have been found to have high rate of acceptability of contraceptives than their counter parts who have never attended school. Education can enable women more easily to work outside the home and earn money. This improvement in status leads to empowerment and increased decision-making authority in limiting fertility. Educated women tend to delay marriage and childbearing, perhaps because of the increased opportunity costs of not participating in the paid labor force. Education and income may also become intertwined in a virtuous ways, such as incomes growth”.

Education has influenced fertility at 74% as can be seen in figure.. below,

Figure 19: shows Responses on Whether Education Influences Fertility

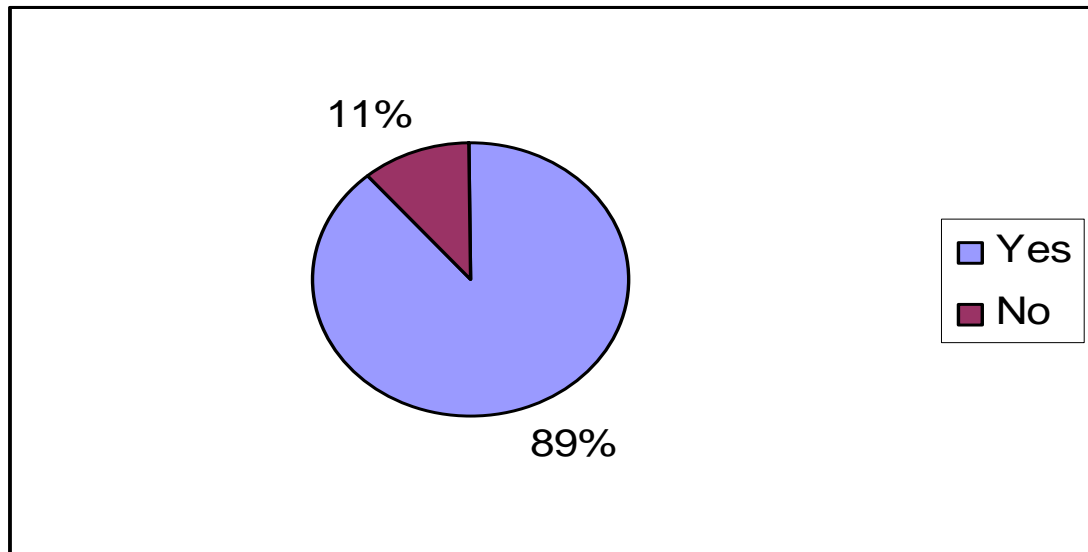


Source: Data collected from the field 2007

From the above figure shows that education 74% a bearing on fertility

On whether education affects one's social status it was discovered that the higher the education attained the higher the social status. According to responses obtained, it was discovered that the education policy especially in terms of free education has to some extent improved on the social status of the marginalized groups who included the girl child and the children from poverty stricken homes.

Figure 20: Responses on whether education affects ones social status



Source: Data collected from the field 2008

From the above figure 5, it can be noted 89% agreed that education affects one's social status while 11% disagreed.

As Hannum and Buchmann report (2002) in their chapter on the consequences of educational expansion, extensive sociological and economic studies have found that education generally enables individuals to improve their economic circumstances, this study finding tend to concur with this assertion. Majority of respondents (87.5%) interviewed noted that education improves on ones chances of earning reasonable incomes; this can be seen in table 5 below,

Education policy and its effects the economic status of the people

According to one key informant,

“Education increases economic status, and higher income individuals have better access to health care services, better nutrition, and increased mobility. Education also has direct impacts on health, unrelated to income. It can provide vital health knowledge and encourage healthy lifestyles. For example, the offspring of educated mothers have lower child and infant mortality rates and higher immunization rates, even when socioeconomic conditions are controlled statistically. Surely with increased access to education service through government policy of U.P.E, we anticipate that the future of Uganda is bright as these children will be employable and thus earn a decent life”.

Another user of education services stated that;

“Educated citizens may be more likely to vote and to voice opposition. In Uganda today, higher enrollment ratios at all levels of education correspond to increases in indicators of democracy. Unlike in the past where illiterate citizen could rely on the educated relative who in some instances would misdirect them, today as a result of government commitment to fighting illiteracy, a number of people in this area can read and write and that means they can interpret political messages and thus vote candidates of their choices”

In Uganda the government is the leading provider of education in Uganda.

Uganda's education system has undergone tremendous changes since 1979 when most institutions in the country had virtually collapsed. In the early 1980's, emphasis was mainly on the rehabilitation and expansion of schools, albeit without proper planning.

Education policy in Uganda has evolved over the years resulting in several documents, one of which is the White Paper on Education Policy of 1992. The document covers all levels of education from pre-primary to higher education, and all types of formal education such as general, technical, vocational, teacher training as well as non-formal education.

The Uganda's Universal Primary Education Universal (UPE) Secondary Education policy (U.S.E) was formulated in the context of the Millennium Development Goals and Educational for All

UPE and USE have the purpose of assuring achievement of the MDG of Gender parity in education delivery by 2015 as well as enhancing sustainability of the universal primary education (UPE)

The government has been providing full universal but non compulsory primary education (UPE) to its children since 1997. Initially UPE covered four children per family but has recently expanded to cover all children, increasing the enrolment in primary schools to 98 %. In Tororo the enrollment rate has shoot up to 90% compare to the previous 56%

It was also established that the current policy is on expanding the functional capacity of educational structures and reducing on the inequities of access to education between sexes, geographical areas, and social classes in Uganda. It advocates for redistribution of resources viz a viz reforming the

educational sector. More resources have been allocated to lower educational public sector through the UPE programme in order to enhance equity of access at that level between boys and girls so as to achieve the Millennium Development Goal 3 by 2015

It was established that just as several rationales support the pursuit of universal primary and secondary education, Education provides a number of benefits. Education builds strong societies and polities as seen in the case of Tororo. Education reduces fertility and improves health.

As Hannum and Buchmann report (2002) on the consequences of educational expansion, extensive sociological and economic studies have found that education generally enables individuals to improve their economic circumstances, this study did concur with their view

Also this study noted that just as Pritchett, 1997; and Bloom and Canning, 2004), noted that more education contributes to a demographic transition from high fertility and high mortality to low fertility and low mortality, evidenced from this study attests to this as it was established that education in Tororo has reduced on fertility in the area.

It was noted that education contributes to reduced fertility through numerous ways. Maternal education can lead to increased use of contraceptives. Education can enable women more easily to work outside the home and increase the household income. This improvement in status leads to empowerment and increased decision-making authority in limiting fertility. Educated women tend to delay marriage and childbearing, perhaps because of the increased opportunity costs of not participating in the paid labor force. Education and income may also become intertwined in a virtuous spiral: as incomes grow, more money is available to finance the spread of education, which leads to further increases in income.

It was further noted that educated citizens may be more likely to vote and to voice opposition. Among states, higher enrollment ratios at all levels of education correspond to increases in indicators of democracy

It was further established that education increases economic status, and higher income individuals have better access to health care services, better nutrition, and increased mobility. Education also has direct impacts on health, unrelated to income. It can provide vital health knowledge and encourage healthy lifestyles. For example, in Tororo, it was established that

the offspring of educated mothers have lower child and infant mortality rates and higher immunization rates, even when socioeconomic conditions are controlled statistically. Improved health may in turn enhance education.

From the study the following conclusion can be made,

As the public theory asserts that the provision of so-called public goods, goods that are delivered by government rather than the market, because, as with clean air, their benefit cannot be withheld from individuals who choose not to contribute to their provision, education is one of such goods because of its impacts on development.

It can also be noted that just as Collier and Hoeffler, (2001) argued that if the content of the education encourages it, education can promote social justice, human rights, and tolerance. As the percentage of the male population enrolled in secondary school goes up, the probability of civil conflict goes down.

Basing on the hypotheses of the study it was thus concluded that the Millennium Development Goals have shaped the education policy in Uganda and that this has in turn affected positively the welfare of the people in Tororo, in the social, economic and political aspects of life.

Basing on the study findings, the following recommendations were made, There should be co-operation between teachers and pupils or students so that the children can get the required service for their studies this in turn will have a long term bearing on the career opportunities of the children and thus enhanced welfare in the long run..

The government should continue with its support for the education sector in its efforts to fight poverty as per the PEAP since education is fundamental to development as it enhances health in the community as well as economic opportunities.

More teachers should be recruited to tally with the large numbers of pupils so that the teacher – pupil ratio can be solved and the aged teaching staff should be provided with refresher courses to improve on the management of the Programme.

Education officials should recruit enough staff to inspect supervise monitor, evaluate and advice on the use of school facilitation grant so as to benefit the education sector as a whole.

Politicians should also support the UPE and U.S.E programmes as well as other education programmes intended to benefit their constituencies rather than engaging in criticizing some of these programmes. They should also be involved in designing these programmes since they are for the benefit of all Ugandans, them inclusive.

Donor communities should also continue supporting the education sector through their funds so as to enhance the welfare of the Ugandans as education as one of the key sector to the development agenda. The central government and the local government should also provide direct funding for the inspection and supervision of the UPE and U.S.E programme.

CHAPTER TWENTY

Water policy Uganda

More than 1.2 billion people in the world lack access to safe drinking water article 2.6 billion lack access to even basic sanitation, fresh water is a finite and serious resource essential for sustaining life and human development, in other words, “water is life.” Most developing countries such as Uganda, lack sufficient clean water and proper sanitation which is the leading cause of illness and death.

In Uganda, the enabling environment for management of water resources has been finally put in place taking advantages of a linking with overall developments in Uganda towards decentralization, privatization and creating frame for environmental management. The following now constitutes the enabling environment for water resource management.

The constitution of the Republic of Uganda enacted in 1995 provides the framework for decentralization, set state objective and principle of state water and sanitation policy.

The Local Government Act

This Act was enacted in 1997 to give effect to the decentralization functions, powers, responsibilities and service to Local Government.

National Environment Action Plan and management policy (1994) and subsequent environment statute (1995) which provides the frame work for co-coordinated and sound management of the environment including environmental impact assessment of water resources projects.

The water statute (1995), provide the frame for the use protection and management of water resources and water supply, constitution of water user association and devolution of water supply and sewerage under takings.

The water resource regulation (1998) and waste water discharge regulation (1998) which prescribes the threshold and procedure for application to construct any works use water discharge waste under water statute 1995.

The water Act was enacted in 1995 to provide the legal basis for water resources management in Uganda. The main objective of the water statute/Act include;-

1. To promote the rational management and use of waters in Uganda
2. To promote the provision of clean safe and sufficient supply of water for both domestic and industrial use
3. To allow for orderly development and use of water resource
4. To control pollution and promote safe disposal of waste water

The epistemology position of this policy include;-

The idea to promote the provision of clean, safe and sufficient supply water for domestic use is more epistemological because this arose as a result many people falling sick and dying as a result of using unsafe water. In the water sub sector, progress has been result of using unsafe water. In the water sub sector, progress has been made during 2003 in respect of improving on the percentage of the population that has access to reliable water.

The overall percentage population that has access to reliable water

The overall percentage as reported during the 2002 water and sanitation sector review as reported during the 2002 in rural areas, this percentage was 58% in June 2003 and is projected to improve to 61% by June 2004. At the recent joint Government sector review. Officials of the Ministry of Health estimated that still more than 60% of illness in Uganda is linked to water cholera in Kitgum district because of dirty water from Pager river and poor sanitation.

The need to allow orderly development and use of water resource for commercial purposes, industrial, agricultural among others is paramount. This was put forwards to improve on Agricultural sector in the country. For example the people from West Nile who are producers of cotton and tobacco experience along dry spell. So the provision of this water will helps to improve on agriculture through irrigation, Kibimba rice scheme uses water from lack Kibimba.

The need to promote safe disposal of waste water, in Uganda there is no proper disposal of waste water and other waste from industries are disposed in water and this has resulted to death of flora and fauna industrial waste also contaminate water for human consumption.

The ontological position of this policy include;-

There is reliable supply of water in schools; this has helped reduce on the rampant strikes in most schools because of un reliability of water. For example in Iganga, a Shs 5.2m water well was set up at Iganga High School to provide safe water to the staff quarters and students dormitories. This construction which took 6 months brought to an end water problems which the school faced since 1970.

Mukono district has over the past 5 years experience tremendous increase in the provision of clean and accessible water right from the days of RUWASA project. With the safe water coverage rising from 40% in 2000 to 56% in 2005, there are 380 boreholes 1474 springs, 307 dug wells and gravity flow scheme and 97 rain water tanks. Part of the town council water system is covered under the National water and sewerage corporation and over 850 homes have been connected to receive piped water. This has greatly increased on water supply in the district.

In Shebeya. 36 water tanks have been commissioned, these water tanks were constructed by the women with the assistance of Kigezi Diocese, the tanks each with a capacity of 4000 liters, are well distributed on Bufundi Sub Country, Ruchand country in Kabale district.

Through the help of NGOs (NUSAF, Northern Uganda Social Action Fund and Goal (derived from goal in football) there are 107 bore holes which are constructed around IDP (Internally Displaced Camps) in Kalongo, Pader district. This helped to reduce the problem of water shortage and high spread of water borne disease like guanine warm.

The value principle of social equality prescribe that benefit should be allocated in a way which can equalize the equation of resource and opportunities available in societies. Looking at safe water, there are some factors which hinder some category of people to get access to safe water for example Karamoja which is a desert, does not favor the drilling of bore holes because of the low water level, to add on to that, borehole can not be drilled in Karamoja because the water is both for human beings and their livestock. Therefore, what should be done is construction o valley dams, protected wells, gravity flow stream to provide water for both human begins and live stock.

Horizontal equity principle base on like treatment for like people in like circumstances. Basing on my policy (above). Considering people living in

towns, there are people who can afford to be connected to people water from National Water and Sewerage Co-operation and there are some people who just buy water for daily use, the government should therefore drill more bore holes (should be free of charge) to allow everyone enjoy safe water.

The relevance of horizontal equity is that it will reduce on the water borne diseases, for example when the government drill bore holes for every one, the poor section of the population will be able to enjoy safe water as well and not buy water collected from unprotected wells, swamps among others.

Vertical equity in content to horizontal equity evokes the principle of “to each according to need” according to water policy, provision of free safe water to the rural population like bore holes, protected well is seen as vertical equity because it benefits a small part of the population.

This can be of importance because it allows equal enjoyment of employments of resources by everyone in the country. For example the poor who can not connect people water to their houses which needs money are provide with free water from boreholes.

Social policy as a programme in this social policy is defined as consisting conclusions reached by the government concerning the better men through the creation of visible changes. For example looking at water policy detailed design of the works in Mubenda and Hoima has been completed and tendering will be undertaken within 2004. The Masindi water supply works contract started in June 2003 and the expected completion date is the beginning of September 2007. with respect to the improvement of the water supply and sanitation conditions in the rural areas, a project underway to improve the water supply and sanitation in the three mid-western towns of Mubende, Hoima and Masindi.

The principle of social control, this is the process of punishing wrong doing and rewarding appropriate behavior. For example when going to fetch water from any bore hole drilled by “GOAL” in Kalongo, Pader district, your jerrycan has to be clean and any one who carry a dirty jerrycan to the water source pay a fine of 500/= this will serve as a good example to others.

In conclusion, it is true to assert that all social policy is implemented under the influence of social policy perspectives. In this case therefore, water and sanitation policy has been implemented basing on epistemological and

Ontological paradigm of social policy perspective as discussed above. Other key value another supplementary component that has played a major contribution on the existence of water policy.

Background of the decentralization policy in Uganda

Decentralization refers to the transfer of power over decision, making and implementation of lower administrative levels to improve efficiency and effectiveness in service delivery.

The post-independence constitution of Uganda provided for decentralization based on regional governments which were abolished in 1966 when the constitution was abrogated and all executive powers were vested in the presidency. The post of prime minister was repealed central Government centralized almost all powers until 1993 when parliament enacted the local Governments (Resistance Councils) statute and function , powers and services were gradually transferred from central government to the local governments. Before decentralization, the central government decided how funds were to be utilized and remitted them directly to the departments in the district with the district authorities having no control over their use.

In conformity with the local governments (Resistance Councils) statute 1993, the 1995 constitution of the Republic of Uganda provided for decentralization of governance, with the district as local governments below which are lower local governments and administrative units.

Decentralization is both political and a technical process. At the political level, it involves leadership participation, inclusion, representation, decision making and power relations between central and local governments and between higher and lower governments. On the technical level, it involves administration, planning, budgeting , financial management, human resource management and development ,and monitoring and evaluation, supervision and monitoring.

Decentralization takes three forms and the degree of flexibility that the lower administrative units have in decision making and implementation is contingent on which form is applied.

Decentralization policy

This is the transfer of powers and responsibilities to lower administrative units, mannered by centrally appointed officials who implements defined functions under tight central control.

Delegation:

This is the transfer of powers to lower administrative units that are granted some relative discretion in managing defined responsibilities although they still report directly to the center. The center need not appoint its officials to carry out delegated functions.

Devolution

At a lower specific level, we must also note that decentralization policy is a much more expensive transfer of power to lower administrative units. The lower units are granted corporate status and extensive decision making, planning, administration, financial and development management, powers and responsibility while the center retains policy making and sight functions. Devolution is the most empowering and democratic of the 3 forms of decentralization because it gives beneficiaries sufficient say in decision making and local priority setting in addition to enabling them to held local officials to account.

At the inception of the policy, the objectives of the decentralization were:

1. Transfer real power to local governments and thus reduce the work of remote under resourced central officials.
2. Bringing political and admin and administrative control over services to point were there are actually delivered and there by improve accountability and effectiveness and promote people feeling of ownership of programmes and projects executed in their local government.
3. Improve financial accountability and responsibility by establishing a clear link between payment of taxes and provision of services.
4. Improve the capacity of local authorities to plan finance and manage the delivery of services.

Perspective of social policy as a planning reflected in the decentralization policy

Richard Titmus defined policy as a principle that governs deliberate actions. Social policies are therefore deliberate and are geared towards specific goals. The making of policies involves planning, thus the planning social policy is perceived as the end product of a rational cognitive exercise involving the

determination of goals , the generation of process and methods of action, and allocation of resources.

It also entails transition through the variable of time and space. The decentralization policy began in a few districts and was to cover all the other districts (space) in a specified number of years (time). The system is currently operating under 44 district councils with one city council and 5 city division councils in Kampala.

The districts lower governments comprise of 903 sub county councils and 63 urban councils who comprise of 13 municipal councils, 34 municipal divisions and 50 town councils making it to a total of 1050 local governments.

Also the strategic framework brings out the perspective of planning and it can be seen from its objectives such as strengthening service delivery in order to raise people's incomes and material well being and also to strengthen the role of ministry of local government in promoting and coordinating the implementation of decentralization in the country.

Development planning and budgeting is also participatory to ensure that all local development programmes reflect citizens input and priority. It is also evidenced in that people are sensitized on their rights including the rights to demand for services and on their obligations including the obligation to pay taxes to provide for the services.

Citizens are allowed to elect their own regional local governments and participate in their own governance by determining their own governance by determining their own development priorities, making and approving their own development plans. Also through the affirmative action principle the participation of the marginalized groups in local council's affairs has been promoted which has enabled them to contribute to the decision making and development processes of their respective areas.

The functionalism theory as a baseline for the design of decentralization

A theory is a set of argued ideas intended to explain facts and events.

Functionalism theory is where different parts of the society work together in harmony to achieve a desired goal.

Decentralization policy, much as the services have been brought nearer to people, it requires every one to contribute even those at the grass level and this can be seen from the communities participation where by citizens are

involved in health councils, citizens can participate in democratic development process which include their right to vote , public hearings and information sharing forum.

The local authorities are also a better place to determine local needs and priorities to mobilize local resources on a sustainable basis and to engage beneficiaries in implementation of the programmes.

The functionalism theory is inherent in the decentralization where by it involves other institutions comprising of ministry of local government, central government ministries and agencies, local governments, community based organizations, non governmental organizations, local government association, development partners, private sector which constitute to provide effective coordination and harmonization.

Conclusively, the implementation of the decentralization policy has given to a number of experiences of which indicate that it is not enough to strengthen institutions and to increase access to services if this is not accompanied by increases in peoples incomes. In recognition of this fact and the need to sustainable address poverty in communities the policy will promote local economic development to enhance people's incomes and expand the tax base for local governments.

Drug policy in Uganda

The national drug policy and Authority statute gives the NDA powers of regulations of the pharmaceutical sector.

NDA ensure the quality, safety and effectiveness of drugs in circulation by carrying out the following measures.

a) Licensing of premises in which pharmacies and drug shops are operated; This entails inspecting proposed premises for their suitability in terms of location, size, structure and fittings. A certificate of suitability of premises can then be issued, before an operating license can be issued. The operating license is issued in the name of the pharmacist supervising the operations of the pharmacy.

Drug assessment and registration

Drugs were last registered in Uganda in the sixties and seventies by the old pharmacy board under the drugs and pharmacy act. Subsequently as

described above the situation was free-for-all and any drug could virtual be imported into the country provided the importer had the funds to do so.

The drug assessment and registration department of NDA started to work in July 1995 when it called for notification in National and International papers if NDA, by all intending importers of all drugs which had been on the Ugandan market, for the last three years. Ten thousand notifications were receive. In December 1995, the department called for full registration applications for all drugs intended to be sold on the Uganda market. The first applications were received in March 1996. Applications under-went provisional assessment and in February 1997, full assessment of applications started. These included detailed information about the applicant, the manufacturers and the manufacturing process for the drugs.

Quality control and assurance

The department has taken over newly build and equipped drug quality control laboratory in Mulago. It carries out analysis of samples from;

Manufacturers applying for registration of other drugs

Entry points for drugs collected by NDA Inspectors.

Drugs collected from the field in routine surveillance

Surveillance in the control of counterfeit/substandard/expired drugs

The NDA is mandated by the statute to prevent the circulation of drugs which are unfit for use. These could be counterfeit, substandard and not conforming to standards as lain down by the law or expired. A drug or medicine becoming expired means that it has passed its expected useful life as determined during the process of manufacturing. The expiry date of a drug is written on the container. This means that the drug must not be sued beyond this date. The drug becoming expired has to two very import implications.

The strength of the drug may reduce beyond what the label on the container states.

The contents of the drug may deteriorate and become poisonous.

Sensitization of the public

The public is the greatest ally the NDA is fighting malpractice. The training and information department of NDA carries out a campaign of public awareness about medicines using the electronic and print media. There are programmes in each region in five different languages and Fm Radios and TV stations.

The people are informed that they have a right to know what they are given and why by the health workers. That they should only accept medicines from properly licensed outlets with an NDA license. They have a right to know and to be shown the containers from which drugs are dispensed. That they should report suspected malpractice to their leaders who can enlist the help of drug inspectors and police to unearth this malpractice.

The NDA and decentralization

At the moment NDA has two regional offices in Mbarara and Tororo with one to be established in Lira soon. There are 48 assistants drug inspectors in 45 districts and these carry out the work of the inspectorate on behalf of NDA. They are paid by the district but facilitated by NDA in terms of transport, fuel and office stationery.

The medium plan is to open more regional offices and to build capacity so that NDA can operate more independently at the level of the districts

Proposed amendment of the law of Government NDA

In order to strengthen the regulatory function of NDA it is proposed to amend the law in the course of the year.

h) National drug policy Overall goal

The National Drug Policy (NDA) aims to contribute to the attainment of a good standard of health, through ensuring the availability, accessibility and affordability at all times of essential drugs of appropriate quality, safety and efficacy and by promoting their rational use.

Epistemology – proven facts, National Drug Authority needs to investigate the working conditions of pharmacists and examine the drugs on market before awarding them with licenses. This helps to safe guard the lives of unknowing, innocent people who would fall victims to fake pharmacists.

Principle of social control is used in society as a fundamental pillar to achieve designed behavior without measures to control them, it could lead to disaster. Fake medications would be on the counter, overpricing and giving out wrong dosages and prescriptions which could endanger (kill) the lives of many innocent people.

This helps save the lives of many innocent unknowing people by discouraging and reducing on malpractices, as there are fines and

imprisonment terms not to mention their certificate (papers) academic can be disqualified.

Opportunity theory – if opportunities are harmonized then they will become universal.

When the National Drug Authority oversees all the activities of pharmacies then there will be provision of correct medication, no over pricing medicine.\\only professional certified are allowed to be on the counter. This will result in healthy citizens who are productive and able to contribute to the well being of society wealth and development.

Cyclic theory advocates that social phenomenon always repeat them. If the National Drug Authority does not regulate pharmaceutical activities.

During the designing of social policies like NDA policy makers make use of cyclic theory by carrying out systematic theories which integrate particular societal values, which checks and measures against particular problems that may re occur in the society if not address.

The on going NDP review is a long overdue process aimed at streamlining and harmonizing both the policy and drug legislation with recent developments in the health sector and country.

In particular, need to harmonize the policy with the current decentralization policy of government. These characters are important to use see the implement of NDP viable.

Poverty alleviation policy

Poverty is lack of enough income to live adequately by the community standards (World Bank 1949).

There two types of poverty:

Absolute poverty, when a person cannot afford the basic necessities of life (food, housing, medication among others).

Relative poverty is the overall standards of living that prevails in particular society (i.e. A person finds him/her self poor though the necessities are there).

(a) Epistemology refers to proven facts

Education started in china as universal and later Uganda in 1997 to reduce poverty.

Industrialization, Japan is known for industrialization and there fore poverty is low then Uganda got the idea (Mukwano industries, textile industries).

Agriculture, Nigeria, German, Tanzania, and then Uganda (Tea growing, Rice growing, cotton).

(b) Ontological position refers to existence of knowledge.

People are able to acquire needs (education, medical, food etc.).

Clean and safe water (through provision water guard, boreholes, taps)

Income maintenance through agriculture

Involving women (land ownership and other property).

Education (UPE, USE, adult education and disabled).

(c) Equality all people should be treated equally (UPE, USE)

Land tenure, allowing the vulnerability to own land (women, orphans)

Education for all (UPE, USE, disabled and adult education)

Improving on the life of the poor through (Agriculture, Education)

(d) Equity means fair treatment therefore all people should receive what they deserve.

Horizontal equity, based on the equality principle of like treatment for like people in the like circumstances.

Vertical equity, resources should be distributed to people according to their needs (prosperity for all).

Relevance:

Involving women (land ownership, decision making, and leadership)

Rural development (land utilization, road construction, school etc)

Equality of life through (education, UPE and USE, safe water)

Development of financial sectors (rural development banks)

Negative relevancies

Continued insecurity and the socio-economic challenges (17 year old war / conflict in Northern Uganda)

Corruption (nepotism, tribalism, and graft than entrepreneurship productive activities)

Poor government coordination of resources (inadequate accountability and follow-up)

(e) Perspective means the way of looking at something

As a philosophy, it is based on the held facts generated by experienced process.

As a product, activities are seen taking place to deal away with poverty (education, agriculture).

(f) Principles of social policy are produced that guide societies and organization to put plan into action

Redistributive justice, resources are distributed to ensure that all people access the basic needs (education, taxation).

AIDS Control Program

AIDS Control Program is a department under Ministry of Defense (UPDF). It was established in 1988 and thereafter a Directorate of Public Health was established and ACP was a department under DPH. But of recent 2004, ACP was placed under the Chief of Medical Services and work independently of other departments but with close links and collaboration, to ensure that work goes on smoothly. Therefore, ACP is a government department in the Ministry of Defense.

Aims and objectives of the AIDS Control Program

AIDS/HIV was reported in 1982 in Uganda. By 1987 soldiers and their dependants were dying of HIV/AIDS so when the Uganda Government established AIDS Control Programme in the Ministry of Health also Ministry of Defense established a complementary department under it and called it ACP – Ministry of Defense.

Its aims are: -

- . Educate and sensitize soldiers and their families on the prevention and control of AIDS.
- . Support and mitigate soldiers who are HIV positive.
- . Offer free voluntary testing and counseling services to soldiers and their immediate families.
- . Offer free ARVS to soldiers and their immediate families.
- . To reduce the prevalence of HIV/AIDS in UPDF as an institution.

Clients handled at the centre

At this Centre, different types of clients are handled.

- . Clients who voluntarily come for counseling and subsequently tested.

- . Patients who are admitted in the hospital and the Doctor, wants to rule out HIV/AIDS infection.
- . Mandatory testing – those recommended for military courses especially abroad by army administration.
- . Mandatory testing for those joining the army.

All the above categories are pretest counseled and thereafter sent to the laboratory for HIV serology testing. After testing the results are brought to the counseling room by the laboratory personnel. Post-test counseling is done before the results are disclosed to the client. Each client enters the counseling room alone where a high degree of confidentiality is observed.

When a client is HIV positive, he/she always counseled in depth. The client can be helped to cope with the situation and that positive result does not mean death sentence. The client is assured that with good feeding – balanced diet life can be sustained. Information on the availability of ARVS is always provided; these can prolong life if taken appropriately.

Comprehensive package of positive living

Client on positive living and the practice of safe sex

After the testing process the client is always sent to the treatment clinic with the results to see a doctor. The doctor assesses the client's condition, give appropriate treatment and also request for the client's CD4 count. The client is again sent to the laboratory where blood is removed and taken to Uganda Virus Research Institute, Entebbe for the CD4. When the results are brought, it is the doctor to determine weather the client should be started on ARVS or not and this depends on the number of CD4 count the client has in the body.

If the CD4 count in less than, 200 then the client can be guided to start on ARVS. If the CD4 count is more than 200 then the client is strong and is advised to feed very well so that the immunity is boosted. The client is always advised to visit the treat clinic to monitor any opportunistic infections and if any are there to be treated immediately.

These infections include Tuberculosis, Harps Zoster, and Corpuses Sarcoma. Septrin is administered for prophylaxis measures.

The client is advised to practice safe sex by using a condom. The client is advised to bring his/her spouse for counseling who is also subjected to the same process. Thereafter, they are both advised to live positively.

If a client is admitted and the doctor has requested for his/her HIV sero status, the counselor moves to the ward where the patient is admitted and talks to him to come to the counseling room. If the patient cannot move then he is counseled on bed. The laboratory personnel take blood from the client after counseling and the blood is tested for HIV sero status. If positive then, the doctor requests for more blood for CD4 count. As I have earlier mentioned, if CD4 count is less than 200 then, the patient is started on ARVS. If the patient is HIV sero is negative then the doctor requests for more investigations in order to come up with proper diagnosis.

The client is given comprehensive adherence counseling on ARVS before he or she starts the treatment. Several clients are always sent from army administration to be tested for HIV. These normally are clients who have been identified for courses both internal and external and they are usually counseled in groups. Thereafter they are sent to the laboratory for HIV testing.

After testing their results are sent to the army administration. If one wants to know his HIV sero status results, he/she comes back alone and the results are disclosed to him after posttest counseling in confidence.

New entrants into the army are subjected to mandatory testing as a policy in the army due to rigorous training and nature of work. It is not surprising that these clients are also are subjected to the same process of counseling and testing.

Services offered

- . Voluntary counseling and testing services.
- . Health education of clients on positive living

- . Guiding people on nutrition and early treatment and avoid infection.
- . Treatment of the sick with ARVS.
- . Psychosocial support to clients.
- . Education and sensitization of communities on ABC strategy.
- . Solve problems of domestic violence.
- . Offer pariative care.
- . Home visits to guide family members on the caring process.
- . Outreaches on VCT.
- . Training of counselors.
- . Training of peer leaders/educators.

Collaboration with other centers

Joint Clinic Research Centre, Mengo (JCRC) offers ARVS for adults and children at the Treat Clinic in Bombo. JCRC also offered furniture and information technology equipment and renovated the Treat Centre.

Also the Department of Defense under the United States Embassy collaborate with ACP Ministry of Defense in seating up voluntary counseling and testing centers in different parts in UPDF institutions like Gulu, Mbarara, Nakasongola, Lira, Mbuya, Kakiri, Rubongi, Jinja, Masindi and Mubende.

The centre collaborates with the following partners.

PSI – Population Service International

AFORD –

UAC – Uganda AIDS Commission

MOH – Ministry of Health

Also collaborate with District Health Department in the country.

Treatment of HIV cases with ARVS

Emphases during the counsel ling of clients on anti retroviral therapy

- . Clients are asked how much they know about ARVs.
- . Clients would be informed that ARVS are not a cure.
- . Clients would be informed that once they start on ARVS they should be taken for the rest of his her life.
- . Client should adhere to the treatment without absconding.

- . Clients are always informed that once they start on the ARVS, the body immunity is always be boosted and CD4 count cells increases.
- . Clients are informed that once on ARVS, chances of getting opportunistic infections such as tuberculosis, Herpes Zoster, Carposis, Sarcoma are reduced.
- . Clients are informed that the drug is very dangerous if not taken as prescribed by the doctor.
- . The client are guided to concentrate on a balanced diet by eating fruits, greens, beans, fish, rice, posho, potatoes, milk, these foods are rich in proteins, carbohydrates and vitamins essential for the body metabolism.
- . Usually ARVS are given to clients monthly, but clients are free to come at any time to see a doctor or a counselor.

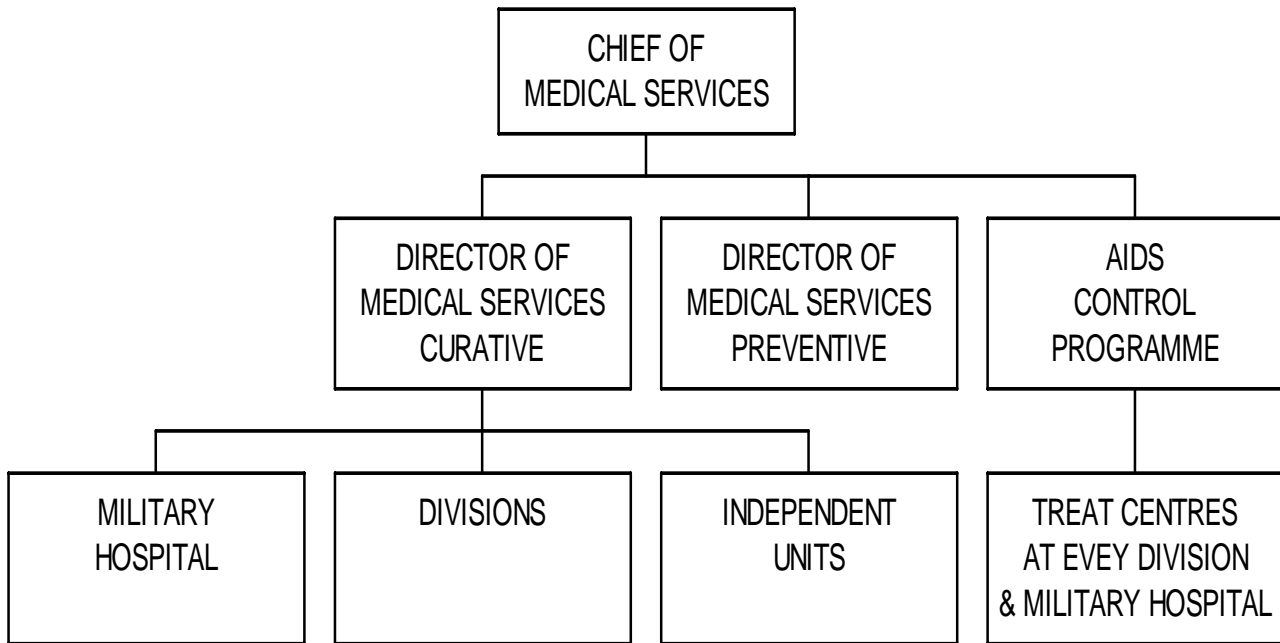
Problem faced by the treat centre

- . CD4 count machine is at the centre but there are no people to operate it.
- . The treat centre is small there is need to put up a new structure instead of a tent
- . The centre has no vehicle hence need to purchase a vehicle for the centre.

Contribution of the Treat Centre

- . This Treat Centre has contributed enormously in the VCT of soldiers, their spouse and the communities surrounding Bombo barracks. The Treat Clinic offers free AVRS to HIV/AIDS patients. The Treat Clinic gives medicine to patients with opportunistic infections like Tuberculosis

Figure 21: ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE



Guiding questions during counseling: -

- . What is compelling the client to have an HIV test?
- . When did the client get the idea of having an HIV test?
- . Who might have advised the client to come for an HIV test?
- . After establishing what has prompted the client to come for HIV test, then the counselor would go into in depth counseling.
- . What would you do if you found yourself HIV positive?
- . What would you do if you found yourself HIV negative?
- . Could you explain to me about your family life?
- . Could you explain to me what you know about sexually transmitted diseases?
- . If yes, how were you treated and where were you treated?
- . The counselor can also ask the client what he knows about ARVS.

The clients are always informed that ARVS stop the multiplication of the virus and increases the CD4 count.

Field activities

Film shows in 4th and 5th divisions.

Soldiers and their families at the 4th and 5th divisions were sensitized on issues of HIV/AIDS.

The following films were watched.

- 7 Silent epidemic:
This shows how Sexually Transmitted Diseases including HIV/AIDS are transmitted and their dangers.
Diseases like HIV/AIDS, Gonorrhoea, Chancroid, Syphilis, and Candidiasis were illustrated during this film show.
- 8 No need to blame -HIV/AIDS
- 9 Life at stake - HIV/AIDS
- 10 Time to care – family planning and counseling.

Films were shown in the following places:

Date:	Place:	Estimated attendance:
3/7/06	Gulu 4 th Division HQs	Approx. 1500 soldiers and their families.
4/7/06	Opit	Approx. 900 soldiers attended.
5/7/06	Lugole Training Wing	Approx. 600 soldiers attended.
6/7/06	Bobi	Approx. 500 soldiers attended.
7/7/06	Lira Barracks	Approx. 700 soldiers attended.
8/7/06	Acholipii 5 th Division HQs	1200 soldiers and their families attended.
9/7/06	Pajule	600 soldiers attended.
10/7/06	Karongo	400 soldiers attended
Estimated total attendance		6,400 people

Issues that were raised after the film shows

1. Does it mean that one has HIV/AIDS when he/she develops Herpes Zoster?
2. Why are there discordant couples? But unlikely situation could, of course occur so it becomes a question of fact in a situation where in some couples one spouse test positive and the other negative?
3. How can ARVs be accessible?
4. Why do medical personnel prescribe Septrin is it an ARV?

Making medical injections safer

Making medical injections safer is a project that is intended to reduce the number of HIV and other blood borne infections, among health workers, patients/clients and the community.

This project facilitated the directorate of Medical Services UPDF in carrying out sensitization sessions on Injection Safety in the divisions of UPDF including General Headquarters.

40 participants were targeted in each division and these included both ordinary soldiers and health workers. A total of 240 personnel were sensitized.

Objectives:

- . To reduce the number of risks resulting injections at Out-Patients Department in UPDF
- . To ensure single use of needles and syringes
- . Ensure proper storage and final disposal of medical wastes.

Topics Covered.

- . What is a safe injection?
- . When should an injection be given?
- . When is a safety injection realized?
- . What are the dangers of reusing needles and syringes
- . What are the dangers of mismanaging health care wastes?
- . The common unsafe injection practices among the community
- . What community members are supposed to do at the health facility?
- . Segregation of different medical wastes in the health facility using different bins of different colour.

Methodology:

The sessions are always accomplished by giving explanation and asking questions. These are always done in two-way sessions. Facilitators and participants fully participate in the sessions. Flip charts and makers are always used. Demonstrations are done using 5ml and 2ml syringes.

Safety strategies

All health units in Uganda should use needles and syringes with reuse prevention features.

- Demonstrations should emphasize the need of no recapping after an injection by the health worker.

Issues raised:

7. Will the supplies of needles and syringes be constant and maintained? Those with reuse prevention features.
8. When will the project provide the safety boxes and the bins in UPDF?
9. What would health worker do if he/she got a needle stick injury from a patient who is HIV positive?

In number 1: Needles and syringes with reuse prevention features should be in all health units and drug shops in the country.

In number 2: injection supplies should be delivered to Bombo UPDF Medical Stores and when collecting drugs from the stores also these supplies should be supplied to UPDF divisions.

In number 3; It should be explained that you leave the part injured to bleed freely under running water, report to the in-charge and go for treatment with in 2 hours for (ARVs), post exposure prophylaxis.

In UPDF there are 6 established hospitals and health facilities at different levels. Health Centre II, III and IV.

For this project to be felt and take root in UPDF medical establishment, there should be training for at least 2 health workers from each health facility one of them being the manager of the health facility.

These should be trained in details on making medical injections safer. This means that if the manager is aware, he will be able to train his health workers below him. We have estimated number of health workers standing at 900 health personnel from the highest to the lowest, qualified health personnel.

Link Community Development

Link Community Development was founded in 1989. The current program reaches over half a million school children in over 2400 schools in Uganda,

South Africa, Ghana, Malawi and the United Kingdom. LCD emerged out of a spontaneous action for members of Cambridge University Students' Union (CUSU) of education and NGOs working in disadvantaged communities in South Africa. After a majority rule was achieved in 1994, LCD began working directly with the local authorities and educators to achieve better service provisions to schools. LCD established a separate South African partnership with Uganda in the year 2000.

In the year 2000, LCD was invited to share their experience with the Ministry of Education and Sports in Uganda and to establish the Masindi District Education Project (MDEDP). Shortly thereafter, LCD was established as a separate locally registered Ugandan NGO.

Due to the remarkable work that LCD has done, Uganda's Ministry of education together with the local government has requested LCD to extend their contract and expand their services to benefit other districts of the country which LCD has agreed to do and has signed a contract extension of five years. This must have been possible because LCD still has enough funds to continue facilitating the project and extending it to other districts like Katakwi and Soroti.

LC D'S mission and vision

To improve the potential of the disadvantaged people in Uganda
To gain meaningful employment by sharing and developing skills through education and training

Objectives of LCD

LCD aims to improve and increase pupil's learning outcomes.
LCD aims to provide access and equity in learning opportunities for all
The also aim to improve the quality of the teaching process
They also aim at monitoring the effectiveness of management and governance
LCD also aims at increasing parental and community participation in school programs.
LCD also aims to improve on the effectiveness of management at district level.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE OF LCD:

POSITION	LOCATION	FUNCTION
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<p>LCD – UGANDA PROGRAM DIRECTOR</p>	<p>KAMPALA</p>	<p>Overall management of LCD Uganda including ensuring that the projects meet delivery targets, managing project reporting, representing LCD to the Ministry of Education, Donors and partners, management of staff, development of funding proposals and financial management.</p>
<p>SENIOR EDUCATION ADVISOR</p>	<p>KAMAPALA/ MASINDI</p>	<p>Overall management of MDEDP including ensuring project delivery in areas of district capacity building, school development and training, the link schools program, schools performance review, and global teachers program, liaising with the education officials and VSO partners, production of term and annual project reports and management of staff.</p>
<p>EDUCATION ADVISOR</p>	<p>MASINDI</p>	<p>Technical assistance to MDEDP, in planning and school inspection. Provision of head teacher and teacher training.</p>
<p>EDUCATION SPECIALIST</p>	<p>MASINDI</p>	<p>Organizing and supervisor of SPR process, including data collection, production of reports and individual school meetings, providing support to schools undergoing SPR, provision of training for schools.</p>

IT SPECIALIST	MASINDI	Setting up of SPR and other data base; data entry and analysis; production of reports; IT training and support.
SCHOOLS OFFICER	MASINDI	Supervising and day – day management of the link schools program and global teachers program.
PROJECT OFFICERS	MASINDI	Office administration, fleet management and management of district support budget, facilitation of link school management programs and global program
OFFICE ADMINISTRATOR	KAMPALA	Administration of Kampala LCD office
DATA ENTRY CLERK	MASINDI	Data entry for district and other data bases
PROJECT COORDINATOR	NAKASEKE	Project coordinator for HAART Harvest project.

Activities of LCD

LCD aims to improve the quality of education in rural schools so that school ages going children and their communities have better life opportunities.

LCD helps develop of the district education department of education so that they can better meet the needs of their schools and communities.

LCD supports government education policy by using lessons learnt at grass root levels to form national and regional strategies.

LCD facilitates partnerships between the African and UK schools for mutually beneficial development and learning.

How LCD operates

LCD works in partnership with the Ministry of education at district, regional and national levels.

LCD programs complement and inform department policy.

LCD uses a mix of centre based training complemented by on site school support.

LCD provides financial support to the schools using Schools Improvement Grants (SIG) to match their own fundraising efforts.

LCD promotes accountability and performance assessment throughout the education system.

LCD places experienced UK teachers in project primary schools for five weeks and link African and UK teachers for mutual learning and benefit.

LCD encourages local communities to actively participate in school life, decision making and fundraising.

LCD shares the lessons and experiences learned from projects in Ghana, Malawi, South Africa and Uganda.

Activities that the researcher got involved in:

The activity that the researcher got involved in was mostly going out o the field with the agency staff and supervisor to follow up ongoing projects which had been established in the various project primary schools that are being facilitated by the LCD in Masindi District and its neighboring areas. This is reflected in the case dairy.

The other activity that the researcher personally got involved in was sensitization of the pupils in the various project primary schools. The sensitization was about HIV/AIDS, its dangers, how it is acquired, how it can be avoided or treated and also teaching them about the real facts about it so that they do not cause the infected persons to face stigmatization.

The other activity that the researcher got involved in was the writing of reports such as the SPR reports. Here data collected from the various project primary schools are brought back to the agency, evaluated and areas of weakness pointed out then they are taken back to those primary schools and advised on how best to rectify those weaknesses. An example of this is the schools management budgets.

The broad perspectives and functions of social work that the agency adheres to:

The agency adheres to mainly two types, namely:

Developmental

Promotive

They aim at developing all the project primary schools around their areas of operation.

LCD provides financial support to project primary schools using the schools Improvement Grant (SIG) and the Special Projects Grants (SPG) to match their own fundraising efforts.

They also provide budgetary support to mobilize inspectors.

LCD helps to develop the skills of the district department of education so that they can better meet the needs of their schools and communities.

LCD develops information management systems at the district level.

Using promotive work, the agency provides services that aim at promoting the community as follows

LCD places experienced UK teachers in the various project primary schools for five weeks and link African and UK schools for the promotion of mutual learning, benefit and sharing of knowledge and diversity of cultures.

LCD also aims to improve the quality of education in rural schools so that children and their communities have better life chances. This is done in an effort to promote the level of education in the rural settings to match those in the rural environment to improve on the grades acquired between the rural and urban settings.

LCD promotes accountability and performance assessment throughout the education system. This is done in an effort to check the rate at which the pupils are learning and understanding what they are instructed in school.

LCD aims to promote Schools Development Plans (SDP) and provision of the Schools Improvement Grants (SIG) and Special Project Grants (SIG).

LCD encourages the local community to actively participate in school life, decision making and fundraising. This is in effort to promote and improve the good relationships between the community and their schools.

The main activities of LCD (2000 – 2009)

Since august 2000, the main focus of LCD's activities in Uganda has been the MDEDP that aims to improve the quality of education in 200 schools in Masindi district, 215 km North West of Kampala. The UK lottery fund has largely funded MEDEDP. In the project, LCD works in partnership with Masindi district and Voluntary Services Overseas (VSO).

The main activities of LCD therefore are as follows:

Placement of VSO inspectors in the district office to mentor the inspectorate
Provide support for district planning and management
Providing budgetary support to mobilize inspectors
Construction of a new District education office
Delivery of school management training to all head teachers.
Developing information management systems at the district level
Promotion of the school development plans and provision of the school
Improvement grants and special project grants.
89 schools have been linked with UK schools.
94 schools have received UK global teachers (G.Ts).

Special projects under LCD:

LCD has special projects outside Masindi district and such projects include:
These include the HAART Harvest project in Nakaseke and the QUESTT project in the two districts in the Rwenzori areas of Uganda.

The HAART Harvest project

LCD Uganda is now working in collaboration with Nakaseke primary teachers training college in a ground breaking project, The High Active Retro–Viral Project. HAART project supports HIV/AIDS affected and infected people in the community. The project illustrates how the local management of information can be used in the service of a community outreach project which promises to have a marked impact on the retention and performance of children who are affected and infected by HIV/AIDS. Two years ago, the PTC made land available to the local community for the cultivation of crops to provide targeted nutritional supplements to the affected and infected community members. This project has the capacity to develop a locally sustained model for how community food security for vulnerable children can be attained.

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