

MAKERERE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL RESEARCH

PROJECT

CONSTRAINTS TO AND PROSPECTS FOR

RURAL DEVELOPMENT

-

THE CASE OF UGANDA

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## CHAPTER 1

THE STRUCTURE OF THE UGANDAN ECONOMY

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The rural nature of Uganda is one of the leading structural aspects of the economy that have a life and continuity of their own. The country is a nation of villages. Most of her people live and work in villages and many in towns return to villages to take up agriculture, construction, cottage industries, trading and other pursuits. It is in villages that over 90 percent of the total population is involved and if anything in Uganda is important, rural Uganda is important.

The current dominance of rural residence apart, for many years to come the country is bound to remain a nation of villages. Over the last intercensal period 1969 to 1980 the total urban population as a proportion of the total population increased by no more than one percent from 7.8 to 8.7.<sup>1</sup> Given the population figures for the two end years 1969 and 1980 of 9,535,000 and 13,892,000<sup>2</sup> respectively, the absolute average annual increase in numbers of town dwellers over this period was some 47,000 while the absolute average annual increase of the rural population was over eight times as much at just over 389,000.

The limited sets of consumption and investment goods and services produced by the nation can be exhaustively classified in terms of broad categories of agriculture, services other than government, government, industry and construction. With all of agriculture presumed as rurally based, its dominance under this classification serves to parallel the rural structure of residence with an equally prominent rural structure of production as table I below shows.

Table I: Sectoral Origin of GDP (1972-1982)  
(Percentages)

	1972	1974	1976	1978	1980	1982
Agriculture	51	53	54	57	54	56
Services other than Government	28.5	27	27	24	26	24
Government	8	9	10	11	14	13
Industry	11	10	8	7	5.6	6
Construction	1.6	1	1	1	0.5	1

Sources: Background to the Budget, various years.

Over fifty percent of all output originates from agriculture and hence the rural economy. The processing of agricultural products, mining and quarrying and manufacture of all description including the generation of electricity which come under the general heading of industry in this classification amount to less than a tenth of the annual value of total production. Since not all services, not all government, not all industry and certainly not all construction are based in towns, the structure of production as a whole clearly reflects the rural nature of the economy about just as much as does agriculture alone.

The structural dominance of the rural economy observable in terms of population distribution and in terms of the origin of output is equally pronounced in terms of the spatial origin occupations. Here it must be emphasized that the numbers of workers employed for a wage is low relative to the total population. Statistics of what is happening to wage employment are a poor guide to what is happening on the employment front over the whole economy. Probably around a million people out of some thirteen million and an estimated labour force content of some six and a half million have a formal wage paying job of some kind or other. The general picture of the structure of the economy that emerges when all this is taken into account is that whereas the countryside is home for nine out of every ten individuals and provides four out of every five shillings produced, it also provides perhaps a little over nine out of every ten jobs. Table 2 below gives the basis of these estimates.

Table 2: Estimated Sectoral Origin of Occupations  
(Percentages)

	Total	Rural	Urban
Agriculture	89	89	-
Services other than Government	5	2	3
Government	3	1	2
Industry	2	-	2
Construction	1	0.5	0.5
<b>Total:</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>92.5</b>	<b>7.5</b>

Sources: Background to the Budget, Various years.

It is clear from this sketch of the structure of the Uganda economy (which could be developed further, for example, in terms of demand or the characteristic split of total expenditure into consumption, saving and investment, government and foreign trade) that the prosperity of agriculture, services, government, industry and construction is directly dependent on the performance of the

rural economy. Prosperity principally means incomes and jobs. But the term rural economy is not equally clear particularly for purposes of operating on this so as to ensure more prosperity. A starting point should be made to note and explore the content and heterogeneous nature of this so that the attempt is made to take explicit account of the consequences. In the first place the rural economy is not all agriculture. Perhaps the typical rural producer could best be described as a producer of a range of commodities and services rather than as a person engaged in the pursuit of a definite occupation. Herding, hunting, fishing, farming, the collection of firewood, the fetching of water, house building, beer making, pot making and the making of furniture cannot all be described as agriculture. Evidence suggests, for example, that in parts of rural Kenya non-farm productive activity may be as much as a third to a half of all economic activity.<sup>3</sup> In the second place there are different types of agriculture with different crops and crop combinations using different resource endowments and facing a variety of demand and supply constraints.

In recognition of the heterogeneous nature of the rural economy an attempt should be made to develop a more detailed sectoral classification of the economy. This should at least break down agriculture into groups for which approximately similar relationships between the quantity of product and the quantities of production factors can be described. Thus a permanent tree crop sectors (coffee, cocoa, banana, tea) could be envisaged. So also could a short season annual crop sector made up of say the legumes, maize, millet and cotton. A root crop sector composed of sweet potatoe, irish potatoe, cassava, cocoyam, etc. is yet a third possible group. Animal husbandry and poultry could each form separate sectors. Preferably all activities contributing up to one percent of national output should be classified under one or another of such sectors strictly based on similarity of the production function. Data for most of this is known to be available in unpublished form with the Statistics Department. An estimate of the manhours necessary for assembling this in the suggested format will be made after physical examination and discussions with the Government Statistician.

Immediate benefits from the suggested exercise should include a reduction in the urban bias of the conception of the Uganda economy. It is anticipated, for example, that this will show the matoke sub-sector, which hardly figures in national development plans, to be more important than say the cotton sub-sector whose importance partly arises from its forward linkage with the urban based textile industry.

Agriculture then need not be considered as the activity of tradition bound rustic people but as a whole series of separate industries each of which has separate needs for development and separate returns from effort and investment. Further benefits should hopefully follow from improved ordering of development priorities and from more sector specific and more returns specific approach to overall economic management.

For a self centred economy the sector phase of planning should proceed further through a classification of the sectors into two categories of those that produce "mostly domestically traded output" and those that produce "mostly internationally traded output". The rationale for this is that in the absence of international trade, there is no possibility of substitution of non traded commodities by imports. Sectors in the category of "mostly domestically traded output" must be developed for if you must have millet and you do not import millet then you must produce millet. It is only in respect of internationally traded goods sectors that a real problem of ranking in terms of their contribution to national income arises. The attempt should be made to answer the question: which of the internationally traded goods sector makes the largest contribution to national income in terms of the smallest value of investment.<sup>4</sup>

A relatively articulated capital market is not available in the Uganda economy. Most investment in the private sector is probably financed from personal savings of entrepreneurs or from savings of close friends and relatives. Thus apart from the specificity of capital as to uses and sectors, it may also be region specific. Savings by Kaberamaido based entrepreneurs may be unavailable for investment in Kigezi if there are no close friends and relatives of Kigezi based entrepreneurs in Kaberamaido. Borrowing and lending could then be said to be restricted on a regional basis. Similar considerations apply with regard to the bulk of labour resources. Land is of course wholly region specific. The result is that without any conscious planning effort the sectors previously divided into traded and non traded goods categories can also be described as mainly of this or that region of the country. The significance of this could be a revelation of the bunching of the most promising sectors in one or a few regions. Then for income distribution purposes a case may exist for investment in a sector with relatively low contribution to national income per unit of investment if this is the only way to ensure an increase in income in a particular region. The regional classification of priority ranked sectors in terms of their contribution to national income should reveal the extent to which this is a problem in Uganda.

References:

1. Background to the Budget, 1983, p.13.
2. Ibid. p.52.
3. Biana Hunt, "The Role of Rural Non-Farm Productive Activity in Rural Development", Proceedings of the Conference on Rural Rehabilitation and Development.  
Makerere University, Kampala, 1981.
4. J. Tinberger and H.C. Bos, Mathematical Models of Economic Growth, McGraw-Hill, 1962, p.5 and V.C. Saigal, The Choice of Sectors and Regions, Rotterdam University Press, 1965, pp.5-6.

## CHAPTER 2

### LEGAL CONSTRAINTS TO RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN UGANDA

A. Kiapi

#### Introduction

There is close relationship between law and development. In the first place law is the instrument for maintaining national stability. One of the function of the law in society is to lay down what activities are allowed and what are ruled out in the interest of peace in the community. The traditional and still most important function of any government is the maintenance of law and order. Development cannot take place unless law and order are maintained in the country. Potential investors must not fear for their own security and for the security of their investments. Even a citizen will not work hard to produce any goods if he has reasonable grounds to fear that the internal security situation may not allow him to reap the fruits of his labour. National stability is therefore the most necessary condition for national development.

Secondly law is the instrument through which government policies are implemented. Development must take place within the framework of the law. It is the law that lays down the machinery for governmental actions and regulated the processes of production.

The affairs of each individual in the country are conducted in accordance with the dictates of the law. In this way the law may stimulate and accelerate development or hinder and slow it down. Law being at the service of humanity and not humanity at the service of the law, the law must stimulate development and not prevent it. It is the aim of this research to find out to what extent laws in Uganda hinder rather than facilitate rural development. The effects of the following specific laws will be thoroughly researched into, analyzed and examined.

#### The Town and Country Planning Act

The main function of the Town and Country Planning Act (Cap.30) is to provide for the orderly development of the Urban and Rural areas. It requires every person planning to build a house or develop a piece of land in a planning area or in areas where no outline schemes exists to obtain the permission of a development committee established for that purpose. Unfortunately the Act has been applied only to urban areas. Research is needed to find out the extent to which rural areas were ignored and to which funds have been sunk in

developing urban areas. It is evident that Government spends more money in providing amenities in urban areas. What has been the effect of this on rural development?

### Customary Land Tenure

Uganda accepted the rights of the African population to occupy and use their lands in accordance with traditional land tenure systems. The first law to do this was the Uganda Order in Council, 1902. It provided that in all cases where natives were parties every court was to be guided by native law and custom. The Crown Lands Ordinance 1903, as amended from time to time, recognised the right of Africans to live on their traditional lands, though these were declared Crown Lands and vested in the Crown. It was only the Governor who could alienate them. However, when the Governor leased or sold areas of land upon which there were Africans, Africans who were in actual occupation of such lands could not be evicted until adequate arrangements were made for the removal of such Africans to other areas equally suitable for their occupation or for payment to them of adequate compensation. These guarantees of customary occupation have been carried forward by subsequent laws. The Public Lands Act, 1969, provides that it is lawful for persons holding land by customary tenure to occupy it without grant, lease or licence from the Land Commission.

Land rights are so touchy that it is fair for the law to permit the African to occupy land in accordance with principles which he understands and respects. But the main features of the land tenure system under customary law is not conducive to economic development. The individual does not own the land he occupies in the English sense of freehold. Land is owned collectively either by the tribe, clan or family. The individual has right of use and owns only what he had planted on the land and other permanent structures like buildings. These he may sell, but not the actual land itself. In some tribes land can be leased or lent to strangers only with the permission of the clan or family. The consequences of these features are that when land is in plenty no individual has any incentive to stick to one piece and develop it by making it fertile. Once a piece of land begins to lose its fertility, he moves to another. Another result is fragmentation. An individual may have several plots of land scattered all over the area occupied by the clan. As each individual sticks to his land as long as it is yielding him fruits, consolidation of land holdings is impossible. This is not an economic way of land use. Since customary law does not recognise land rights in the English sense, but only right of user,



land tends to have no money value. Banks and other money lenders do not accept it as security for loans. It is only after a person registers his title under the Registration of Titles Act (Cap.205) that banks would recognise such land as 'property'. The African who occupies land in accordance with native tenure therefore has no way of raising funds for developing his land.

The African is thus caught between two systems of law - customary and English. The former allows him to occupy land according to traditional tenure. The latter denies him legal title to the land he occupies for purposes of raising loans in the money market. A serious dilemma has thus been created. This confused state of the law is a handicap to rural development as most of the land is held according to customary tenure. Attempts to convert customary holdings to freeholds met stiff resistance in the mid-fifties because the attitude of the people to land rights and the rules of customary land holdings were not properly studied by the colonial administration. They were trying to reform a system they imperfectly understood. It was only in Kigezi, Ankole and Bugisu where land was scarce, that the government managed to persuade people to consolidate and register their holdings.

Even the Land Reform Decree, 1975, does not improve the situation. It provides that the system of occupying public land under customary tenure is to continue. Customary tenure can be terminated only by the Commission. It is at sufferance. The Commission may grant a lease of land occupied under customary tenure to any person. The Decree, therefore, makes the position of persons holding land under customary tenure even more precarious, because land is held at sufferance. There is no incentive to develop it because the holder can be evicted at any time.

It is submitted that a system of law which places one leg of a nation in the past and another in the modern age is not conducive to development. This is particularly the case with respect to land law. Land is the greatest asset of Uganda. Its development will mean rural development. Unless steps are taken to revolutionise the present state of the law and crop husbandry, the future of rural development is dim. The focus of research will be to find out the extent to which land tenure systems retard the development of the rural areas of Uganda.

#### Commodity Boards

Under the Lint Marketing Board Act, (Cap.234) the Coffee Marketing Board Act, (Cap 40) and the Uganda Tea Authority Decree (8 of 1974), Cotton, Coffee and Tea must be internationally marketed

by the respective commodity boards. Under the Produce Marketing Act, some categories of food crops can only be purchased and sold by the Produce Marketing Board. Each, of these boards constitutes a middleman between the farmer and the ultimate consumer of his produce. At what costs do the peasant farmers maintain these boards! What is the cheaper alternative for marketing these produce so that the farmer loses as little as possible?

### Co-operative Societies

Another institution that needs close scrutiny is the co-operative movement. Under the Cotton Act (Cap.233) only ginneries are allowed to purchase raw cotton from the grower. Ginneries belong to co-operative unions. It is a well-known fact that on many occasions the co-operative union fail to pay cash on delivery for the cotton of the farmer! To what extent is this practice acting as a disincentive to growing of cotton? Would the acreage of cotton have been increased but for this practice by the co-operatives? Research is needed to find out the magnitude of this problem, the farmers feeling and action to it and then its general effect on the growing of cotton.

### Customary Marriages

From colonial days the Protectorate Government allowed Uganda Africans to marry in accordance with Customary Law. (Marriage of Africans Act (Cap.212). African customary marriages are potentially polygamous. Among many tribes in Uganda having more than one wife is status symbol, particularly in Madi, Teso, Acholi and Lango. The Military Regime gave legal effect to polygamy by providing that a customary marriage may be polygamous. (Customary marriages Registration Decree) (16 of 1973). A man with more than one wife obviously produces more children. The more children a man has the more difficult it is for him to provide amenities of life for them. Many of his children may not go to school. Research is required to find out the extent to which Ugandan men are polygamous, the average number of children a polygamous man has, the difficulties he is facing in feeding, clothing, housing and educating them and the over-all effect of polygamy on rural development.

### Soil Conservation

Uganda has no general law requiring all users of land to conserve soil and prevent soil erosion. It is only non-Africans who are required to take all necessary measures to prevent soil erosion. (Soil Conservation (Non-African) Land Act) (Cap.245). The majority of the land in Uganda is occupied by Africans. Why should Africans not be required to conserve soil? Research is

needed to find out the extent to which lack of legislation to conserve soil by Africans has resulted in soil erosion, the extent to which Africans leave a piece of land as soon it becomes infertile and move to another. How has the fertility of the land been affected by shifting agriculture?

### Deforestation

Under the Forests Act (Cap.246) licences may be given to persons for cutting trees for timber and other uses. But the Act does not impose corresponding obligation to cutters of trees to plant another tree for each tree he cuts. Trees are required in the rural areas for firewood, making of charcoals and furniture. Trees therefore make a significant contribution to rural development. Urgent research is needed to find out the extent of deforestation in Uganda through lack of provision in the law requiring every person who cuts down a tree to plant another.

### Methodology of Research

1. The first thing that will be done is to find out the history of the legislation that retard rural development and their rationale. This will involve delving into archives, Legislative Council and Parliamentary debates and government files.

2. Secondly different research techniques must be used in investigating the effects of the various laws.

(a) Town and Country Planning Act: How much money has been sunk in developing the urban areas compared to rural areas. Past records will be consulted in the offices of the Treasury, Town and Country Planning Board, Local Administrations, Urban Authorities, etc.

(b) Land Tenure Systems: Sample areas in which African land tenure systems predominate must be visited, interviews conducted with the peasants, local leaders and administrators. Interviews will also be conducted with the banks and other finance houses. A questionnaire will be designed to find out the views of the banks, the peasants and local administrators.

(c) Commodity Boards: The offices of the Boards will be visited, the budgets for the past many years will be examined, their staff, salaries, fringe benefits and other allowances will be scrutinised. Interviews will be conducted with the management of these boards, officers of their parent ministries and the growers of the commodities they sell. A questionnaire will also be designed to find out the feeling of the government, the boards and the farmers.

(d) Co-operative Movement: Sample areas of Uganda will be visited, the growers of cotton, officers of co-operative societies and local government officials will be interviewed. A questionnaire will be designed to find out the views of the cotton grower on co-operative societies. Offices of the Lint Marketing Board and the Ministry of Co-operatives and Marketing will be visited and their officials interviewed. The amounts of money given to the co-operative societies for buying cotton and the amounts actually used for this purpose will be found out.

(e) Customary Marriages: Sample areas of Uganda will be visited and interviews conducted with polygamists as well as questionnaire administered. The views of their wives, children, religious leaders and local administrators will be sought. The registry of customary marriages in each Gonbolola headquarters will also be examined.

(f) Soil Conservation: Sample areas of Uganda will be visited, questionnaires will be administered to farmers, agricultural officers and their staff and the extent of soil erosion will physically be observed. Interviews will also be conducted with the officials of the Ministry of Agriculture.

(g) Deforestation: Sample areas of Uganda will be visited and local people interviewed about the extent to which trees had been destroyed in their areas and not replaced. Interviews will also be held with local forest officers and officials of the Forest Department.

## CHAPTER 3

### THE FINANCIAL SYSTEM AS A CONSTRAINT ON RURAL DEVELOPMENT

FIRIMOONI R. BANUGIRE

#### 1. SCOPE AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.1 The Rural Development: embraces political, cultural and economic progress. The process of rural development, therefore, has two central dimensions, namely,

- (a) Increasing productive capacity of the production units and hence an increasing stream of the volume of production, (i.e. the dimension of material progress).
- (b) An improvement in the social welfare of the population in terms of basic needs satisfaction and an ever-increasing standard of living (i.e. the social welfare aspect).

Rural development therefore embraces both economic growth and the distribution of the benefits of growth among all the major social groups of society. It is now generally accepted that accelerated economic development requires an integrated approach to the attainment of economic growth and social welfare.

1.2 The Financial System consists of those institutions which mediate between economic units with surplus funds on the one hand and those with deficits in their planned expenditure budgets. These financial intermediaries can promote economic growth by mobilising funds from savers and delivering them to deficit units who need them for productive and welfare purposes. A shortage of funds is therefore a constraint on growth and basic needs satisfaction. There is a need therefore to survey the financial system in terms of the types of financial institutions, their scope of operations, and the volume of funds they can mobilise and deliver to the rural sector. We must therefore determine both the appropriateness of existing institutions and their effectiveness in terms of delivering finance to the rural sector.

#### 1.3 Financial System and Rural Development

The relationship between the financial system and rural development constitutes the major scope of this research project. To what extent are agricultural and non-agricultural activities in the rural sector constrained by lack of finance? To what extent are incomes, employment, and the social welfare of the various social groups especially the peasants constrained by finance? Will removal of these constraints accelerate rural development? And in what key respects? In other words, we are trying to ascertain the nature and extent of the financial constraints.

Given such constraints in what directions should we reform the financial system in order to promote rural development. Here we should distinguish between the short-term questions of credit availability and the long-term question of choice of appropriate financial technology. The latter is the question of financial development policy necessary to generate and propell an agragian revolution of some kind (i.e. a self-sustained rural transformation process).

1.4 The Objectives of the Study, therefore, are as follows:-

- (a) To determine the nature and extent of financial constraints on rural production and social welfare.
- (b) To ascertain the inadequacies of existing financial system in mobilising rural savings and delivering credit to the rural population.
- (c) To determine to what extent lack of effective demand for credit is a problem and the nature of this problem.
- (d) To determine the factors conditioning the choice of appropriate financial technology for long-term development and therefore recommend the appropriate financial development policy.

## 2. JUSTIFICATION

### 2.1 The Central Role of Financial Institutions

Economic growth and social welfare depend on several key real factors including:-

- (a) Natural resource base (for agricultural, and industrial development).
- (b) Labour power.
- (c) Machinery and equipment and technology associated with it.
- (d) Legal and institutional framework including organisation of production.
- (e) Social and economic infrastructure.
- (f) Political institutions and politics.
- (g) Social consciousness and the learning process.

While these factors may be regarded as the key constraints (or opportunities) for the rural transformation process, they are all related to the mobilisation and utilisation of financial resources. Moreover, the financial system is an economy-wide institution which is central to the process of capital accumulation in a private or quasi-private enterprise economy. Hence the need to focus on the financial dimension of rural development as a separate factor. Money and financial institutions are as central to the development process as politics and the political system.

## 2.2 Need for an Integrated Approach

There is also a need to examine issues of rural development from the view point of an integrated rural transformation process. The financial system, along with peoples participation in the decision-making process, is a key factor of integrating the various forces of social progress. Indeed, the institutional framework seems to constitute the tightest constraint to the utilisation of the abundant natural resources, labour power, and stock of know-how. It is therefore important that the financial system be studied as a key aspect of this wider institutional framework.

## 3. APPROACH AND METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 The Approach to this study has several aspects:-

- (a) To examine the various subsectors of the financial system (e.g. commercial banks, development banks, cooperatives) with respect to their contribution to rural development.
- (b) To examine the adequacy and effectiveness of various credit programmes.
- (c) To take a sample of rural households and survey their savings potentials and credit needs.

### 3.2 Methodology

The following methodological approaches will be followed in the relevant areas of study:-

- (1) The institutional/organisational approach:  
To determine the institutional framework, motive forces, and dynamics of each institution.
- (2) To determine the demand and supply for credit and indicate existence of shortage or surplus of loanable funds.
- (3) To identify the determinants of effective demand and distinguish between the impact of economic and non-economic factors.
- (4) To identify the determinants of successful credit schemes in a systematic fashion as well as conditions for their replication over a wider population coverage.
- (5) To conduct participating action research programme in the context of a new financial institution in order to determine savings potential, effective demand conditions, and credit needs. A sample in one county of Rukungiri district is to be undertaken.
- (6) To integrate the results of the above approaches in an analytical policy framework and derive appropriate financial development policy.

### 3.3 Data Collection

It should be noted that much of the data on financial institutions and credit programmes up to the 1970s has been collected but needs processing. There is a need to up-date it to the post-float period 1981-84. Similarly for data on credit programmes. Emphasis is therefore on data processing and filling in the gaps on past series as well as the current period.

The sample survey is also facilitated by the fact that we shall be sampling from members of a peoples rural development bank which is in process of formation in Rukungiri District. The survey will cover at least 1,000 members and 500 non-members in Kinkizi county. The questionnaire will be administered by Makerere Students during the vacation under the supervision of the researcher.



CHAPTER 4

THE SEARCH FOR RURAL LEADERSHIP

J. NALWANGA

D. Mudoola

The basic thesis underlying this chapter is that the search for effective rural leadership, capable of coordinating rural development efforts, has been and remains elusive. In the rural areas one finds a multiplicity of competing leadership whose bases for legitimacy for effective rural development leadership are still fluid.

In the research that shall follow, we shall seek to examine the leadership structure at the village level on a comparative basis, taking a case study of three villages. In this exercise, the village shall be identified as the smallest organisational unit in the rural areas. In this unit, the nature and types of leadership shall be identified, and the influence of their competing and conflicting characteristics, hindering successful implementation of rural development efforts explored.

Our study shall be classified into four categories to facilitate identification of the problem areas.

a) Identification of formal leadership- In this category formal leadership which includes chiefs, clan heads or village headmen, ten cell system heads (Mayumba of kumi) and extension workers shall be dealt with. This will be in an effort to identify the problems this type of leadership faces in regard to material, political and moral status and how it has negative consequences for rural development. In examining the above, we shall <sup>see</sup> how and why social recognition of formal leadership has undergone a substantial negative transformation, the emergence of several power centres with conflicting interests, the creation of a leadership vacuum and <sup>giving rise</sup> a situation where the village populace is indecisive and divided in their search for proper leadership.

The ideal chief is supposed to have derived his legitimacy from the village. He was a man who commanded respect of the people and whose opinion would carry much weight. Since many rural areas are agricultural this man had to have a form of material wealth which would identify him from the other villagers. He had organisational ability which would rank him and therefore facilitate his role as an arbiter in village quarrels or an organiser of communal labour i.e. building of village roads and maintenance of <sup>law and order</sup> / for the welfare of the village. In some case he would also act as the spiritual leader. In effect he was at the pinnacle of the village power structure and enjoyed the monopoly of village allegiance. <sup>S</sup> Such type of leadership ruled out the idea of conflicting roles of leadership since they were performed by one man who was the focus of village attention.

In cases where there were no village chiefs, village headmen or clan heads were the centre of attention of the villagers and their leadership was also based on the above qualifications.

With the increasing infiltration of government tentacles within the village structure, whereby the chief owes his legitimacy to government authority, it can no longer be taken for granted that a chief will command attention of the people. In such a situation therefore, it is quite unavoidable that other new power centres gain momentum and the chief slowly loses the villagers rapport. Even where the situation is different, a village chief today does not have those resources at his command which would enable him to exercise effective leadership. In many cases he may be a man with little or no formal education and, therefore, like all the other villagers he leads, we may not be able to perceive the importance of the development projects disqualifying him as an effective leader in rural development efforts.

Extension workers as a form of formal leadership could be identified as an alternative to village chiefs, with the advantage of possessing technical capability to forge rural development. In this group we shall look at the agricultural officers, field

extension workers in agriculture and veterinary, social-welfare workers, visiting nurses etc. Unfortunately, this kind of leadership cannot effect rural development unless it allies itself with a recognised village power structure. In most cases, the villagers will look at this kind of leadership with suspicion because it does not have roots in the village structure. They can only operate as an effective form of leadership if the projects they stand for are taken up favourably by the villagers. But in most cases the projects do not take into account the immediate local needs, in the process detaching the villagers from the projects which, in the first instance, were meant for them. This, in due course, erodes the leadership legitimacy of extension workers leading to their failure to capture the villagers enthusiasm towards the development programmes.

b) Identification of informal leadership.

It has now increasingly become clear that new power centres have been created which erode some of the powers that the formal leadership could claim to hold from the populace. Such a situation may have arisen because of the failure of the formal channels of leadership to command effective leadership and establish their legitimacy. Therefore the people look for other forms of authority which may seem to be representative of their interests, thus creating an increasing gap between the formal and informal leaderships.

When we are looking at the search for rural leadership, therefore, we cannot ignore the informal category of leadership, exemplified by spiritual leaders with their different value systems, progressive farmers and opinion leaders or local interest groups. The spiritual leaders in this case imply the church leaders, (Pastors, parish priests) traditionalists or even witches, <sup>who command communication links</sup> with the villagers since they go there voluntarily in a search of reconciliation with that invisible power which seems to control their destinies. These leaders may thus have great influence on the people,

since they represent those powers beyond human understanding.

As a form of leadership therefore, there could be no doubt that they are in a position to forge an effective leadership which can be instrumental to rural development.

Unfortunately, however various spiritual leaders, represent varying value systems, which may create conflicting values, thus hindering their capacity to form a unified leadership to forge development. The villagers in turn will oscillate from one to the other value system and will also adopt thus divisive attitude. The question arises, therefore, of creating a leadership which puts into account such value differences and strains to reconcile them.

Progressive farmers are also another kind of informal leaders. The own big pieces of land, enjoy the monopoly of cheap labour plus high profits. In most cases, they tend to adapt easily to any innovation which they feel can bring them higher profits, and in so doing they may be an example to the other villagers. Their problem, however, lies in the fact that they will follow a project up to a time when they feel they have an upper hand especially where profit is concerned. It is highly doubtful whether they can be relied upon to launch projects whose gains are not clearly spelled out especially when there is that fear of loss of monopoly through the emergency of other competitors.

Another group of informal leadership can be called opinion leaders. Originally the village chief enjoyed the status of opinion leader, but as time went on, and the chief was identified more and more as a representative of higher authority, especially in cases where those in the higher authority were not very popular with the villagers, there emerged a fellow or fellows in the village, commanding high respect and whose opinions on matters carry a lot of weight. There is no way therefore such people can be ignored if development has to be realised since their opinion may matter more to the villagers than any other means of persuasion which can be used.

In our study therefore we shall seek to identify such types of informal leaders and the role they could play in leadership and whether it could be possible to exploit them as instruments of rural development effort.

c) Identification of the political leadership - this category of leadership is composed of people like the village party chairman, of existing political parties, youth wingers and the like. This type of leadership enjoys a direct communication link with the government or the powers that be. This type of leadership, however, is no much dependant on the party in government, that it is never permanent. It  $\angle$  <sup>may not</sup> be relied upon therefore to provide effective leadership for longterm rural development programmes. Furthermore, there is a tendency for the party in power to ignore other parties, village political leaderships as significant. This creates a divisive element and unrepresentative nature of the political leadership category. In other cases, the village party political leadership in power may be unpopular but takes it upon itself to legitimise its authority at the expense of all other forms of leadership. The village populace therefore, develops a tendency to ridicule and frustrate the efforts of such leaders. Short of threats, there is no way such leadership can effect rural development programmes.

In areas where the party may have gained legitimacy, the characters of the leaders especially their behaviour towards those opposed to them may not create an environment of popular mass support thus incapacitating the villagers from fully participating in any project which may be launched.

In the course of the research we shall seek to examine the various types and nature of political leaderships and identify the roles which each plays, plus their consequent effect in hindering or promoting rural development.

d) The political dynamic relationships among all the above categories of leaderships and the consequences for rural develop-

ment programmes until such a time when efforts are made to identify an effective leadership there will be problems with regard.

If one examines all the identified power structures, there is one basic problem and that is their failure to reconcile their interest in order to build a firm base and structure for effective leadership. The isolation of these power centres, creates, a leadership vacuum which can only be filled by a leadership that owns a whole mandate of the villagers. A chief as he stands on his own can no longer exercise effective leadership, unless he puts into account other power centres. The spiritual leaders can only be instruments of division unless they reconcile their interest and as long as they are still divided, they cannot form an effective leadership base.

The political leaders, can only be effective leaders, who can even erode the authority of all the other leaders, if they seek an environment which bestows upon them a legitimacy based on the good will of the people.

Finally the extension workers who can be identified as the major actors in implementing development programmes, because of their possession of skills and technical know how, can only do so through a medium already established in the village structure.

Until such a time, therefore, when efforts are made to identify an effective leadership whether any one of a combination of the above, or any other outside, these, there will be problems with regard to successful implementation of rural development programmes.

#### Aims and Objectives of the Research.

1. By observing the relationships among all the above forms of leaderships and identifying their characteristics, the research seeks to give insight to social scientists who would be able to propose what form of rural leadership that can be adopted in order to facilitate rural development which so far is merely a word on

peoples mouths and not a reality.

2. By examining the problems of leadership at the village level it is hoped that the research will facilitate the identification of general rural problems hindering rural development. For purposes of this objective, the research will take into account three village case studies from different regions, etc.

3. It is hoped that the findings of this research will be a cumulative contribution to the guidelines to planners, government or otherwise, for feasible rural development programming.

CHAPTER 5

PROBLEMS OF RURAL URBAN MIGRATION AS A CONSTRAINT TO RURAL  
DEVELOPMENT IN UGANDA

JOHN B. KABERA

Definition of the problem

The influx of rural population into urban centres has been a characteristic feature of almost all developing countries. The economic and other consequences of these migrations to both the outmigration and immigration areas pose problems of development for the developing countries. Yet the consequences of these migrations have not been seriously studied and where they have, only the receiving areas have been given attention.

A number of rural - based studies suggest that outmigration from rural areas has both economic demographic and social implications (Gaude, J. and P. Peek, 1976; Okereke, O. 1975). The problem of rural outmigration to the more developed regions of a country is that it is age and sex selective. The most energetic, sometimes also skilled and innovative human resources from rural areas are involved. This creates a drain of manpower from the rural areas which has implications for rural development, in general, as well as agricultural innovation and production in particular.

In subsistence economies, where rural areas rely heavily on physical strength, the drain of able-bodied men from the rural areas leaving mainly the aged, the young and the women poses enormous problems for the production of food to feed the increasing rural and urban populations and for development of rural areas.

The selectivity of rural outmigration affects revenue of individual families and collectively of local governments to service their amenities. The poor base of revenue creates a vicious circle which accentuates rural stagnation and stimulates further rural exodus. Remittances which some migrants send home or come home with, help only to meet immediate problems and a large chunk of these remittances is spent on social rather than economic development activities.

It could also be argued that the rural outmigrant who has been educated locally or elsewhere on local funds represents a drain of scarce rural savings and his input back into the rural area is perhaps not matched by the sacrifice of the rural people who educated him.

Elkan (1977) has shown that rural outmigration of males has affected production in agriculture in Botswana and similar remarks have been given for Lesotho (Bolming W.R., 1977) and Tanzania



(Mascarenhas A.G., 1976).

In Uganda, the problem of rural migrations to urban centres is perhaps not so serious as in other developing countries but there is a tendency for rural populations to migrate to the richer economic regions in which also the main urban centres are located.

The movement of migrants to the better economic regions of Uganda traces its origins from the events of the recent past. From the early colonial period, the need for wage-earning was ushered in by the introduction of payment of taxes. Nattersley (1904) states that:

"... It was the imposition of the hut tax... that gave the first great impetus to work and paid labour."

Bishop Tucker (1911) corroborated the same idea when he observed that:

"... it stirred to action and electrified into life the whole nation. Men knew that by a certain date the requisite rupees must be forthcoming ... Men from the more distant parts of the country poured into such centres of population as Mengo and Entebbe seeking work, the reward of which would be rupees."

During the second decade of this century, Europeans and Asians opened plantations of coffee, sugarcane and tea, mainly in the central region (Buganda and Busoga). At the same time cotton growing had been started in Buganda and had spread to Busoga. Hence, the central area of Uganda was favoured for immigration by the early introduction of cash crops which created a volume of cash income that was sought by migrants from the more distant districts where the people depended on subsistence practices. The demands for cash for tax payment in outlying districts were, therefore, crucial in driving the able-bodied male population to move to central Uganda for wage labour.

In addition, government policy was designed in such a way that it had to encourage the direct flow of labour to the more developed regions. In 1925 the Director of Agriculture was informed by the Governor that:

"The policy of this government is at present to refrain from actively stimulating the production of cotton or other economic crops in outlying districts on which it is dependent for a supply of labour for the carrying out of essential services in the central or producing districts until such a time as labour difficulties in the more central districts... become less acute". (Uganda Government, 1925).

Another factor was that labour-recruitment had been sanctioned to induce people to work for at least six months before returning home.

Recruitment centres were to be seen in Kigezi, Ankole, West Nile, Acholi, Bukedi and Bugisu. By the time labour recruitment wound up in 1960, voluntary labour movement had taken root and had to continue unhindered up to the present.

One of the districts which has been so much affected by out-migration of the able-bodied male population is Kabale, in the south west corner of Uganda. Table I shows the sex composition by different age-groups and indicates that the age group 20-34 is very much affected by outmigration of the male population. A proportion of 38% male population in Ndorwa, 52% in Bufumbira and 41% in Rubanda in the age group 20-34 was out of Kabale district during the 1969 census. It is therefore imperative to find out how far this out-migration is an important phenomenon.

Table I: Evidence of outmigration of the able-bodied male population in Kabale District 1969 census.

<u>County:</u>	<u>Age-Group</u>					
	<u>Total</u>	<u>0-14</u>	<u>15-19</u>	<u>20-34</u>	<u>35-49</u>	<u>50+</u>
<u>Bufumbira.</u>						
Male:	51,424	30,535	4,026	5,938	4,838	6,087
Female:	63,374	30,666	6,796	12,452	7,178	6,282
<u>Ndorwa:</u>						
Male:	64,809	37,268	5,769	9,516	6,302	5,954
Female:	76,362	37,441	7,615	<u>15,392</u>	8,721	7,193
<u>Rubanda.</u>						
Male:	39,419	23,353	3,672	5,783	3,412	3,199
Female:	47,955	23,717	5,317	<u>9,762</u>	5,354	3,805

(Uganda Government, 1971).

Aims and Objectives.

1. To carry out a sample survey of parishes so as to discover the male - female composition and to find out whether outmigration of the able bodied males is still an important feature.
2. To find out whether this outmigration is restricted to certain seasons of the year or whether it is of longer-term duration.
3. To study the effect of absence of the able bodied male population on farm activities during preparation of land, sowing, weeding and a harvesting of crops.
4. To find out whether there are any economic and social development strategies which suffer as a result of the absence of the able-bodied males.
5. To study the field work input in selected households by men and by women in a month of busy agricultural work.

Hypotheses of the study.

The following hypotheses will attempt to test the objectives presented, and it is hoped that some evidence will emerge to prove

whether or not rural outmigration to the more developed regions is a constraint to development of outmigration areas.

1. Outmigration from rural areas to the more developed regions is an important feature in Uganda.
2. Rural outmigration of the able-bodied male population is not restricted to seasons of lax periods and migrants now take longer to return than was the case in the past.
3. The absence of the able-bodied male migrants is a constraint to farm activities, the growing of cash crops and the construction of social amenities, e.g. schools, dispensaries, roads, wells, etc.
4. Women provide most of farm labour as a result of the absence of their male counterparts and hence concentrate on subsistence crops than on the more cash earning crops and activities.

#### Research design.

a) Target population: This part of the project will be aimed at all families in Kabale district where the adult male population has been seen to be away for labour for at least one year longer, once or several times. The total population of Kabale district by 1980 census was 455,471 people. At estimated 10 persons per household, there were about 46,000 households in Kabale district.

b) Sample design: We shall list all parishes (the smallest administrative units headed by a paid government official called a Parish Chief. There were 148 rural parishes in Kabale district by the 1980 census.

(i) From the list of parishes drawn, we shall use random sampling methods to select 4 parishes from each of the four counties of Kabale district. These are estimated to have about 5,000 households.

(ii) The sample size of 1,000 households will be used (about 2% of households in Kabale district).

#### c) Questionnaire:

Two questionnaires will be drafted. The first will be the Household questionnaire which will aim at collecting particulars on individuals in the Household. The second questionnaire will seek to find out details about the impact of outmigration, agricultural practices, farmwork input by both sexes, etc. Both pre-coded and open ended questions will be formulated and individual questionnaires will be used.

#### d) Methods of data collection:

(i) Interviewers will be employed.

(ii) Quality control methods will be used.

(iii) Pilot Survey.

(iv) Collection of data in the sample parishes.

e) Data processing:

(i) Coding.

(ii) Computer.

f) Analysis.

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CHAPTER 6

PROBLEMS OF RURAL INFRASTRUCTURES AS A CONSTRAINT  
TO RURAL DEVELOPMENT

John M. Were

Statement of the Problem

In recent years increased attention has been directed to rural development programmes. This has awakened greater interest in the potential significance of rural infrastructures. These infrastructures constitute the structure on which the development plans have to be built.

Most of the developing nations suffer from a seriously inadequate rural infrastructures, that is, shortcomings in energy-producing facilities, transportation and communication networks, educational, medical and administrative facilities. These shortcomings frequently result in a relatively high operational costs and low levels of efficiency.

Most Ugandans live in dispersed homesteads. The dispersed settlement pattern is punctuated by distinctive nodes which are a collection of buildings. These places are usually described as service centres, being the site of medical, educational, sales, administrative and associated activities. These service centres constitute what are described as rural infrastructures.

It has been observed that despite attempts of planned rural development for sometime, the standard of living in rural Uganda has not significantly improved. It is important to find out the extent to which the absence of rural infrastructures is a constraint to rural development.

Aims and objectives:

1. To identify the existing rural infrastructures.
2. To assess the relative importance of the existing rural infrastructure to rural development.
3. To find out whether the absence of some rural infrastructures is a constraint to rural development.

Hypotheses of the Study

The following hypotheses will attempt to test the objectives presented and it is hoped that some evidence will emerge to prove whether inadequate rural infrastructures is a constraint to rural development.

1. The absence of rural infrastructures is a constraint to rural development.
2. Distance to service centres (rural infrastructures) and accessibility to them are a constraint to the people and therefore rural development.

### Research Design

The rural economy in Uganda is characterised by inadequate rural infrastructures. In this study two counties, that is, Banyole county and Budaka county in Tororo District are going to be used to study the effect of inadequate rural infrastructures to rural development.

The distribution of rural infrastructures in the two counties will be studied and mapped. This will identify the existing rural infrastructures. The vital rural infrastructures to be studied will include:

- a. health centres - hospitals and dispensaries
- b. educational centres - schools and colleges
- c. water supply facilities - boreholes, wells
- d. post office and telephone services
- e. administrative centres - office space
- f. community centres
- g. co-operative stores
- h. energy producing facilities - electricity supply
- i. food processing facilities e.g. maize mills, etc.
- j. roads - surfaced and unsurfaced roads.

To identify the constraints to rural development because of inadequate rural infrastructures, interviews will be conducted and a questionnaire will be designed. The focus will be on distances people travel to get vital services and the accessibility of rural population to the existing rural infrastructures. This will measure the social well-being of the rural people. If the needs of the rural population cannot be satisfied then rural development cannot take off.

CHAPTER 7

FARM STRUCTURE AND THE PATTERN OF FARM LABOUR  
SUPPLY AND USE AS CONSTRAINTS TO RURAL DEVELOPMENT

L.L. KYEYUNE-SSENTONGO

Introduction

Factual evidence shows that Agriculture has always been the main stay of our economy. It has played a role in various ways: by supplying almost all the basic food requirement of the people, by being the only source of cash income to the overwhelming majority of the Uganda Community; by being the chief earner of Foreign exchange; and by being the chief source of employment. Agricultural production has been carried out by small scale farmers, farming less than 1 hectare per person on (according to 1960-5 census of Agriculture) about 1.3m million holdings of about 2.5 hectares of farm land. Large-scale agriculture has not played the sort of central role it has played else where - such as in Kenya. Crop acreage has risen from about 100,000 hectares in 1910 to cover 1.0 million hectares in 1978. The growth of this crop acreage has been due to the expansion of food production and to an even greater rate of expansion of the production of cash crops.

The farmers who form over 90% of the population (over 13 million) have continued to produce all their basic food requirements, and, if and when possible, produce more of the same crops or some other crop for selling in markets for cash income thereby developing a "subsistence - plus cash" agricultural economy. The main cash crops have all been for foreign markets. They are: Cotton whose acreage rose from 0 in 1910 to over 0.5 million hectares in 1973 and production reached a new peak of 425,000 bales 1974/5; Coffee whose acreage rose up to 300,000 hectares and production also rose to 180,000 tons; Tobacco whose production also rose to over 5 million kg. of cured leaf; and Tea, which is of very recent introduction into small-scale farming. The materials, the tools and implements for cultivation have remained the same for the last 80 years. Hand labour supplied mainly by the family, use of the hand hoe, absence of non-traditional industrial inputs such as in-organic fertilizers, chemical sprays etc. continue to be the chief characteristics of the farm organisation. Under these conditions, the expansion in crop production has been due to the geographical expansion of acreages of certain crops rather than in increased resource productivity. For example, the Cotton yield has remained at around

280 kg. per hectare - a very low yield indeed.

The net result of this lack of specialization, small-scale farming, use of old-fashioned technology and therefore very low resource productivity is the low farm income, particularly the Cash Farm income.

The problem of raising farm incomes has exercised the minds of many people and the prescriptions varied a great deal. The revolutionary reformers prefer complete social transformation which include the formation of new social unit such as Communes, villages, Kibbutz, etc. To these people the basic reason for the poor farm conditions is to be traced in the social organization of the community which has no built-in progressive features. At the other end we have had the evolutionists who only want to make gradual desirable changes in the basically traditional ways of production. So the rough iron hoe is to be replaced by an iron steel blade, keeping the same shape; old low yielding seed is to be replaced by new varieties of seed which have the potential for higher yield; Intermediate technology which does not involve the need of social transformation is to be introduced. This includes the use of simple hand operated tools and equipment such as Khapsack sprayers (e.g. the plantector pump) or light pneumatic sprayers (such as CP 3 and CP15). First consideration was to be given to the use of Farm Yard manure (since cattle are already on the farm) before considering the controversial use of in-organic fertilizers etc.; and improved efficiency in farm resource allocation has to be effected through farm planning.

People are therefore agreed that in order to solve the problem of low farm productivity and the consequent low farm incomes there is an urgent need for some sort of change. This change must be in the direction of more specialization, greater use of non-traditional farm inputs which have potential for vast improvement in resource productivity, increased size of operation and better farm resource allocation. All this leads to increased commercialization of Agriculture and reduced subsistence production. The only differences are in the method of approach. In the main the method of approach has tended to be influenced by the political-ideological stand of the ruling powers of the day rather than by other considerations.

Uganda's development has taken an evolutionary approach and (for good reasons) it is difficult to visualize a new Uganda under much changed conditions (i.e. Kibbutz, Communes, Villages, Collectives, etc.). Perhaps one can think of Moshav for some areas.



What is relevant to day is not so much the history, as given above, as the fact that the historical situation, with all its characteristics, has become the present and, for all we can tell, shall continue into the fore-seeable future. Experience elsewhere shows that not only has agriculture failed to increase farm incomes but, more disturbingly, has failed to produce enough food to satisfy the basic needs of the community. The possibility of hunger and, indeed, famine has emphasized the urgent need for increasing agricultural production. It seems to many that at the moment what is required, more than anything else, in the way of rural development, is "getting agriculture going". As the battle of recriminative words continues on the issue of who and what is to blame for what, the people who are really concerned with the business of seeing to it that the Community has enough food and rural people are earning good income are trying to find out the direction which agriculture is at present taking and try to see in what ways they could help in the process of change. They know that there have been lots of developments in Agriculture since 1910 - developments which have made us: self-sufficient in food; produce over 0.3% of the world's cotton; produce more than 3% of the World's Coffee, and above all it has produced a standard of living in many rural areas which compares favourably with any similar rural population in Africa. The question they are asking themselves is: where and how can they come in, in these changes? The purpose of this research is to make some contribution to this effort.

#### Justification of the Study

A. Although superficial observation of the general Uganda agricultural scene gives an impression of stagnation and fixedness, certain adjustments of great importance are slowly, but surely, taking place in various parts of Uganda. The main objective of some of these new adjustments is to achieve great increases in that part of farm production which is destined for marketing and consumption outside the farm family. Specialization in the type of farm product, introduction of new useful non-traditional technology and, in many cases, substantial increase in farm fixed capital investment together with marked increase in the size of operation are some of the means by which these transformations are being implemented.

One view to which I subscribe is that for a long time to come an adequate subsistence farm production level must continue to be the primary objective of the overwhelming majority of the farming community in Uganda because the food marketing system is not sufficiently developed to cope satisfactorily with distribution of food throughout the

country. There is, on the other hand, no reason why (and this is not to say that) the institutional and functional development of the food markets should not start (or continue). Secondly, it should be realized that subsistence production and Agricultural development are not mutually exclusive. Agricultural development can take place while farmers continue to derive the biggest part of their basic food requirements from their own farm product.

Two of the adjustments which are the subject of this research being proposed are:-

- (a) The Development of Medium-size farms (i.e. farms of 25-200 hectares) in Uganda.
- (b) The Horticultural development around the Kampala City (i.e. about 60 Km' radius of Kampala).

The first embodies the features which give an impression of modernisation. These features include big-sized operation; Tractorization (or Mechanization); use of barbed wires and the use of hired labour and the attendant establishment of labour lines. It also has the potential for achieving greater resource productivity by: the proper use machinery; better management through the use of trained personnel; use of better production inputs such as new varieties of seed and new breeds of livestock together with the necessary complimentary inputs such as pest and disease control chemicals, supplementary feeding and environmental control methods - such as housing facilities for livestock, better storage facilities etc; reduction in production costs by the exploitation of whatever economies of scale and advantages of specialization there might be, etc.

The second case illustrates an adjustment geared to making the best use of resources by specializing in the production of the most profitable cash crop in the area while, at the same time, continuing to produce the required food on the farm. Horticulture always gets centred around the cities which are the chief market for those highly perishable, and very high value products. Included in this adjustment is the use of new varieties of seed which are potentially high yielders and produce high quality products. Commercial Horticulture requires higher degrees of management and more fixed and working capital investment since pest and disease control methods have to be carried out as a necessary operation for success. Similarly greater crop care, in the way of intensive weeding, pruning etc. must be paid to these crops. The point is that this is a very profitable undertaking for the right person: It increases farm income dramatically.

B. Pattern of Farm Labour Supply and Use:

Because Uganda's Agriculture is characterised by the use of human labour as the chief source of farm power; the use of hand tools and impliments and the non-use of modern farm inputs; farm labour is <sup>then</sup> the most important farm input (besides land) determining the level of farm output and therefore farm income. For this reason it is extremely important to ensure that all the available farm labour is mobilized and used efficiently so as to maximize its productive potential in form of farm output and, consequently, farm income.

A major controversy surrounding the issue of proper farm labour use is concerned with the presence or absence of under-employment in the rural area and the productivity of labour' on farms.

It is proposed to make an actual estimate of the rural labour force and its productivity. The questions to answer are:

- a) How much of the available family labour force is used, per-month, and therefore how much of it remains unused?
- b) At the average labour intensity use and using the known and available technology, is it possible to increase significantly total agricultural production by the intensification of labour use? In other words is the marginal physical product of labour significantly above zero?
- c) Is the allocation of Farm labour optimal?

Methodology

- a) The Farm labour supply and use will be estimated from 5 detailed farm studies already carried out in:-
  1. Central Ankole: 132 Farms
  2. North Ankole: 107 Farms
  3. North Kigezi: 110 Farms
  4. Toro: 30 Farms
  5. Lango: 119 Farms

The work will consist of re-analysis of the data; short spot checkes in the field in selected areas; and the development of typical optimal farm plans.

Preliminary results of data analysis tend to support the following hypotheses:-

1. There exists a very significant level of under-employment on farms. The level varies from area to area.
2. There is room for increasing total farm output - and therefore farm income by labour intensification.
3. Better farm plans can be devised.

- b) The Development of Medium-size farms study will consists of:-
1. The designing and production of a farm Records Book which is suitable for the type of farms in question.
  2. The carrying out of a complete farm study of a sample of farms which will include the analysis of the Farm Business as required by the farmer; and the cost/enterprise and farm analysis as required for farm management purposes.
- c) The study of Horticultural development around Kampala City will consist of:-
- i) The study of the Marketing of horticultural products in the Kampala City.
  - ii) A comprehensive farm and cost/enterprise study of a sample of farms which grow vegetables on a commercial scale. Although the study might have covered only the horticultural enterprise it is necessary to carry out a complete farm study because vegetable growers have integrated this enterprise into the general farming system and this has created problems of integration and farm resource allocation which need to be studied concurrently.

CHAPTER 8

CONSTRAINTS TO BASIC EDUCATION FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT

A CASE STUDY OF THE NAMUTAMBA PROJECT

A. NALWANGA-SEBINA

Introduction

During the last 3 years, the Ugandan government has put educational expenditure to be one of the top-five priorities of its budget. The 1984/85 budget estimates show education number two or 24.82% of the national total expenditure. Education therefore, is a major concern to our leaders and it is being considered as the crux in the rehabilitation and development efforts being extended to the public. Major changes have been introduced in the Ministry of Education in order to bring about qualitative education which aims at improving upon the country's manpower and to boost its development efforts. The increment in the education expenditure and the expansion of the educational system at all levels aimed at putting more emphasis on agriculture and technical subjects which are most crucial in our socio-economic development.

Under education in general, are several types of education each with different approach but with the same purpose of improving on the country's manpower situation and widening the employment opportunities of individuals. Among these types of education is the concept of Basic Education. This concept has evolved out of the need to improve on the rural environment by departing from the formal realm of education which has failed solve the immediate problems in the rural areas.

The government through the Ministry of Education has keen interest in adapting basic education as a means through which it can solve some of the prevalent constraints to rural development.

This study will examine major constraints to basic education for rural development as seen from the Namutamba project which was initiated by the government and UNESCO and is being implemented by the Ministry of Education. It will seek to establish whether the basic objectives of this project have been realised.

Abstract:

Basic education in Uganda's context is that education which aims at improving on the socio-economic conditions of the people in both rural and urban areas. It involves educating different target populations (especially the youth) of various trades and activities with the purpose of uplifting their standards of living. The Namutamba project or Basic Education Integrated in Rural

Development (BEIRD), is based on this aim.

The site of the project is a teacher training college in rural setting. The programme is based on solving the problems of primary school leavers and is designed to impart relevant education which these people would utilise for betterment of their lives.

Nature of BEIRD<sup>1</sup>:

- a) Immediate relevance to the economic and social development of the individual and the community.
- b) Relatedness to development and the world of work.
- c) Applicability to everyday situations in life.
- d) Capacity to benefit all its participants rather than a small part of them.

Specific Objectives to BEIRD:

1. To explore and demonstrate ways and means of checking the rural exodus through the provision of sound experience in general education, prevocational, and vocational education.
2. To introduce new curriculum content, teaching methods and materials in primary schools and in pre-service and in-service teacher's colleges.
3. To undertake or strengthen post-primary services in pre-vocational skills.
4. To provide functional literacy, general education, crafts and nutrition and health education for youths and adults, both men and women.
5. To provide data and information which may make it possible for other countries facing similar problems to benefit from experience of the project.

Before scrutinizing these specific objectives, it is necessary to elaborate on the general environment at the actual site i.e. Namutamba Teacher Training College (NTTC) and its neighbourhood. NTTC is 87km north-west of Kampala on Mubende road. It covers about 1500 sq. km. and is surrounded by 15 associated primary schools. The population is about 83 people per sq. km. (total of 123,812). Thus by Uganda standards, Namutamba or BEIRD is in rural

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1. BASIC EDUCATION INTEGRATED INTO RURAL DEVELOPMENT, An innovative Approach to Education in Uganda. By National Curriculum Development Centre, Uganda, 1984, page-7.

setting. The people in the area are farmers with a reasonable number of general and prentice shops. There are no vocational schools in the area. The above objectives are set to be carried out in this environment.

There are two facets to BEIRD programmes; general and adult or non-formal education. Here we find the first discrepancy in the national definition of the types of education that could be extended to the populace\*. For the time being however, adult education is synonymous with political and non-formal education.

In all the literature about adult education in Uganda, there seem to be a mix-up on the target groups or recipients of non-formal education now summed up under BEIRD. There are no clear-cut lines at what level those programmes should begin because in the process, they must be meaningful to the target population. Therefore, programmes pertaining to basic education should recognise that there are at least three categories of people outside the formal schooling on which attention should be focused.

These are:

- a) Illiterate - those who have never stepped in a classroom comprising 50%.
- b) Semi-literate - primary school drop-outs at different levels - over 45%.
- c) The Literate - Those who have finished primary school but with scanty knowledge or no skills to plan and improve on their lot.

In drawing clear-cut lines to basic education or N.F.E. programmes, these three categories should clearly be defined. In addition, other types of education such as political, continuing (up-grading or-refresher), and informal education for the educated ones should also be defined by the concerned Ministries. Political education is particularly important because it has been rather missing for the last ten years.

The purpose of this study then, is to dispel the elusive objectives implied in BEIRD and to investigate the missing elements that ultimately lead to constraints in implementing the programme. For example, the objective of providing functional literacy, nutrition and health to the youth and adults without first defining the above mentioned categories of which a larger majority of the population is composed is certainly elusive. The study will also review the activities of other Ministries partaking in the project.

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\* A more elaborate definition on different types of education will come forth in final work of this study.

There is a need to establish in relative numbers the different recipient groups in Namutamba area and thereby set precedence for methodology to be applied on a national scale. Also, there is a need to establish the (success or failure) of BEIRD by looking into the welfare of these drop-outs and graduates who had the opportunity to participate in the current programme.

Overall objectives:

1. To establish in relative numbers the level at which most children drop out of school and why. This number is estimated to be over 45% of the total primary school enrollment of a given period.
2. To establish the need for vigorous NFE or learning and producing centres for category (a) in Namutamba area. For example, community centres for the most basic or functional literacy.
3. To justify the types of vocational schools most needed in Namutamba area. Presently there are no such schools.

Specific objectives:

- 1.1 To establish the crucial class levels at which most children drop out of school and why by examining school records for the number of drop-outs for each class from p.3 to p.6 in the 15 associated schools.
- 1.2 Determine the level at which children acquire functional literacy i.e. interpreting meanings and uses of selected objects presented to them.\*
- 1.3 Determine levels at which to develop appropriate communication channels i.e. through sign/posters or written language by administering oral tests in both vernacular and English languages. Tests will be administered to p.3-5 pupils through general questioning and noting the responses. Similar tests will be done to a sample of adults selected at random.
- 1.4 To provide information to teachers of Namutamba project, and the nation, at large, on the most effective communication module to be used in youth and adult education programmes using the results from 1.3.
- 2.1 To clearly establish the percentages of identified categories of target groups in order to draw lines in between programmes or educational skills to be imparted.

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\*This will be done by an education specialist from the National Institute of Education, Makerere University.



2.2 To identify the target groups' learning needs in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes by random sampling of the school leavers and the community.

2.3 To identify preferred change agents as perceived by the target groups by interviewing drop-outs (youth) and adults.

3.1 To identify the most popular or preferred skills among pupils of the 15 associated schools and from 6 other schools not participating in BEIRD by conducting suitable interviews and questionnaires.

3.2 To determine the general opinion and attitude of the people on the BEIRD programme in the area.

3.3 Establish the real needs of primary school leavers who are unable to join either secondary or technical schools.

Sampling: a) The p.6 and 7 pupils in 21 schools - 15 associated schools plus 6 others selected at random.

b) School leavers who attended the 15 associated schools and about 200 from other schools.

This will justify the need for vocational schools in the area.

#### Methodology:

A major part of this study will be to compile statistics from Mityana District in which Namutamba project is located. From these statistics we can then deduce the viability of the project. There are three sub-counties in the District with a total population of 123,812<sup>2</sup>, and 15\* associated primary schools to BEIRD. Data and information to be used in the study will come from these schools plus 6 more schools not included in BEIRD. The study will be carried out during regular school term in order to obtain first hand information from pupils, teachers and other school staff. Most data will be collected by means of person to person group interviews but with designed questionnaires to be filled out at the time of the interview. This will be done among p.6 and p.7 pupils who would be nearing the end of their primary school. A total of 21<sup>+</sup> schools with an estimated no. of 2520<sup>++</sup> pupils will be included.

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2. County Map: Uganda population by counties 1980. By John Kabera, Senior Lecturer, Department of Geography, Makerere University.

\* There are more than 15 schools in the District but only 15 are included in BEIRD.

+ The study will cover all the 15 associated schools to BEIRD plus 6 more schools which will serve as control schools for the final analysis.

++We estimate 60 pupils from each class : x (2 classes in a school) x 21 schools.

Similar interviews will be conducted with 4 teachers from each school. The 6 additional schools will be drawn from 3 sub-counties (2 from each). They will be mixed schools of both boys and girls. Likewise, 4 teachers from each school (2 per gender) will be interviewed from all 21 schools.

From the data, we will then find out the ideal careers of most pupils thus drawing lines among those who wish to continue to secondary school, those who wish to join technical schools and those who hope to join the world of work.

We will carefully study the school records in order to establish the drop-outs rates of a given period; emphasis will be put on the p.3 - 5 enrollments. Attempts will be made to interview school drop-outs and find out reasons for this failure to go on.

Finally, we shall come to both qualitative and quantitative analysis from individuals' response and by assessing of proportions (%) of the total number of interviewees. We will also examine the correlations between prevailing variables in the Namutamba area.

About 200-300 homes will be visited in each sub-county in order to:

- a) find out children's activities during the course of the day,
- b) know from parents and children the most common obstacles concerning school work and activities,
- c) find out from parents or adults in general what they would like to learn and how, in order to improve on their situation.

The idea is to find out from the people exactly what they think should be done for them. More information will be sought from the district headquarters and parishes. There will be about five (5) designed questionnaires for:

1. P.6-7 pupils from 21 schools.
2. Headmasters and teachers from 21 schools.
3. Parents - 600-900 households from 3 sub-counties.
4. Adult workers from trade shops and small industries in Mityana Township and other trading centres.
5. First and final year Teacher Trainees from Namutamba and Busubizi T.T.C's.

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CHAPTER 9

POLITICS OF RESOURCE ALLOCATION: THE COOPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN UGANDA

- THE CASE OF BUSOGA

TEZITTA - MUKOBE

Human Possibilities:

The human potentiatics which the cooperative movement is supposed to enhance (i.e. the physical, economic, social, political, cultural and spiritual) and upon which do hinge development shall be surveyed in light of the political forces and government policies that have passed and affected the movement during the decades to be surveyed.

The survey will ascertain the purpose and advantage of legislation on co-operatives with a view to confirming the fact that legislation on co-operatives, and which involves - the registration, concellation, supervision, education, management and auditing of co-operatives is for partnalistic or economic emancipation reasons or otherwise.

Co-operative Movement Performances:

The research exercise shall examine the enterprises undertaken by the Co-operatives along temporal and spatial lines within rural development. Have rural areas gained or lost out of these enterprises?

Interest Articulation and Leadership:

The major sources of influences of power and authority in the administration and management of the Co-operative Movement resources shall be surveyed. The Co-operative Department Officials, Movement officials and Workers, politicians and administrators shall all be a vital consideration in this area.

Terms of Reference:

The research project shall be kept within the broad considerations of the Project: that is to investigate constraints to and prospects for Rural Development particularly as:

- (a) an Article of faith which has to be subscribed to by African Leaders as ideological ways of seeking legitimacy over the ruled, whereat ideas about Rural Development (R.D.) are no more than declarations of intentions;
- (b) a Program of action aimed at bridging the material gap between rural and urban areas, whereat political ideas, plans and programmes are conceived and executed to effect improvement to rural areas;

- (c) a System that has no body of knowledge which identifies constraints to successful rural development arising out the past and present institutional frameworks, legal frame works, rural leadership, agricultural transforma-tion, rural - urban migration, rural infra-structure, patterns of farm - labour supply and use, technological innovation, politics of resource allocation, education for rural development, problems of Management of rural development and finance as a constraint to rural development.

#### Methodology:

Generally statistical methods of observation shall be used but involving features such as:

- (a) Past records collected by the institutions as a routine matter.
- (b) Fresh Inquiries (topical and general): questionnaires, face to face interviews and discussions with selected respondents and at forums to be applied. Personal involvement by the researcher himself to be highly encouraged at this level.
- (c) Target Area to be studied or investigated: This will be the Co-operative Movement in Uganda with Busoga Growers Co-op. Union Ltd. (BCCU) as a case study. BCCU - has been selected because of its current position in the Co-operative Movement activities in Uganda:
  - (i) It is the largest (in Business volume and in the category of regional or tertiary co-operatives) both in membership, economic activity and political action.
  - (ii) It covers three districts (area of operation/ comprising concurrently eleven political constituences) of Jinja, Iganga and Kamuli and reaches well about 150,000 households through its estimated membership of about 240 primary co-operative societies operating in about 330 parishes in the region.
  - (iii) The area covered by this Union has not been significantly damaged either due to political disturbances or liberation wars.
  - (iv) Unlike other tertiary co-operatives, this Union is self-financing (i.e. not aided by government) although its top administration is under very strong political and government influences.

- (v) Its economic and political activities have embraced almost all the aspects of rural life a lot more than one would find in other regions with similar tertiary co-operatives.

Therefore, it is remarkably and historically an area of total significance and one that would representatively answer all questions and interests as might be raised by researchers in the co-operative movement in Uganda and more or so in the area of rural development.

Contemplated Research Works Proper in the Target Area/BGCU:

(a) General Background:

- (i) Factors leading to the formation of this Union shall be surveyed and the geographical area occupied by it considered.
- (ii) BGCU as an organisation shall be stretched and sketched out right from its grassroot level/primary co-operative Society and shall be traced upwards until it emerges out as a regional or tertiary co-operative. Consequently its structure and administration or organization shall be observed.

(b) Specific Features of BGCU:

Features of BGCU shall be investigated up to the extent they have enhanced or hampered rural development in its area of operation.

The following are suggested features:

- (i) Effects of legislation on BGCU;
- (ii) Reconciliation between BGCU - affairs and national affairs;
- (iii) Membership (primary co-operative societies) participation in BGCU - Programs;
- (iv) Effects of BGCU on its member societies;
- (v) Position of Primary Co-operatives in the affairs of BGCU;
- (vi) The failure of primary co-operatives in the failure of BGCU;
- (vii) BGCU is a strong influence over leadership and administration in the Primary Co-operatives.
- (viii) BGCU is a formidable counterracting force over the Government's paternalistic or controlling force in the Movement.
- (ix) Co-operative Education, Training, Consultation, documentation and research in the movement are all the responsibility and accountability of BGCU in its area of operation.

(c) Economic bases of BCGU:

The economic bases of BCGU are the primary member Co-operative Societies it embraces. Through both vertical and horizontal relationships, BCGU operates through these societies first, to make them economically strong, second to enable them similarly to make their respective individual members or households economically strong too and then thirdly, to facilitate these co-operatives to embark on rural development programmes or projects intended to benefit the entire co-operative community as a unit --- Thus reflecting, at grass root, the Co-operative Slogan: ALL FOR ONE AND ONE FOR ALL.

So all these primary co-operative level relationships must be examined in light of their influences to rural development:--

- (i) Distribution of Primary Co-operatives in the region and
- (ii) Their structures and organizational patterns;
- (iii) Their economic activities;
- (iv) Their influence on community;
- (v) Their responsiveness to national/political demands;
- (vi) Their responsiveness to their local individual household and community requirements.

(d) Economic Bases of Primary Co-operative Societies:

These are the geographical areas of operation covered by these societies respectively and they are the areas the societies and their leaderships pledge to enhance in all forms of development. They mean and include all the human, natural and financial resources in the area of pledge and how they are to be mobilized to benefit the individual household members and their community at large.

BCGU embraces about 240 Primary Co-operative Societies located in about 330 parishes in the Region. Roughly, meaning that in every two parishes, there is a Co-operative or two. So investigations as it were to determine (and ascertain if any):

- (i) Their influences over their respective individual members and their communities.
- (ii) The resources so far allocated to co-operatives and the way they have been shared amongst the individual members and community affairs. (Here consideration shall be made of government or political resources and their allocation or distribution including financial resources or facilities.

(iii) And relate, the successes or failures of the Co-operative communities to national or regional politics and government policies and then take positions to finally determine whether or not there have been or are still constraints to successful rural development --- For in course of the investigations, by the time the last respondent is reached, such constraints if any at all, will have been identified and collected.



CHAPTER 10

MARKETING INSTITUTIONS AS INSTRUMENTS OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT: A CASE STUDY OF THE OILSEEDS SUBSECTOR IN NORTHERN UGANDA

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Research Associate, MISR.

INTRODUCTION

A key feature in the process of rural development is the rise in rural incomes as a result of increasing specialization and commercialization of agriculture. The transformation from subsistence to commercial agriculture requires the simultaneous development of both improved production technology to provide for the necessary marketable surplus, and reliable, efficient marketing institutions which can move that surplus from the farm to consumers in the form, place and time desired. Marketing institutions act as transmitters of information between consumers and producers, the majority of this information being in the form of the prices and relative profitability of commodities and thus the incentives for production. In addition by providing reliable alternative sources of necessary commodities they facilitate increasing commercialization and specialization. Without a certain supply of food, farmers cannot specialize, but must instead assure the full range of household needs from their own production.

Research Objective

This research effort seeks to conduct a case study of the oilseeds subsector from production through assembly, processing and marketing in Northern Uganda. The objective is to determine the extent to which existing marketing institutions act as a constraint on increased production and sale of oilseeds and what alternative institutional arrangements are best suited to meeting the needs of the subsector.

Rationale of Commodity Focus

Sesame and groundnuts have always played an important role in the traditional cropping systems of Northern Uganda, and form an essential source of both lipid fats and protein in the local diet. In recent years, however, sunflower production has been of growing interest to producers in Northern Uganda as both a replacement source of cooking oil for home consumption, and as a desperately needed cash crop. The production of cotton which once played the role of principal cash crop and the major source of cooking oil in the North, has in recent years been severely constrained by both production (varieties, inputs) and marketing problems. There is

significant doubt that cotton can regain its degree of importance in the Ugandan Food System. The Cooperative Unions which formerly served as both channel for inputs and ginner's/marketing agents have been poorly managed, plagued by shortages of operating capital and transport. The farmer's share of world market price has fallen while an increasingly disproportionate share is absorbed by marketing and ginning (even though the rising volume of cotton ginned and exported should lower the per unit processing costs). There are indications that many of the cooperatives are interested in diversifying their operations, several having expressed interests in oil-seed marketing and processing.

The introduction of a new crop such as sunflower as a substitute cash crop and source of cooking oil into farmer's cropping systems requires careful simultaneous attention to production and marketing constraints. In the past, farmers have had negative experiences with the production of both sunflower and soybeans. They responded enthusiastically to encouragement to produce these crops and then were faced with inadequate demand and marketing channels. Care must be taken that such a situation does not reoccur.

There are current experiments with sunflower underway in the North in which the Catholic Diocese acting as a commodity "channel captain" is attempting to simultaneously overcome production and marketing constraints. These appear to have been quite successful, and there are indications that additional parties are interested in becoming similarly involved. Too little information, however, is known about the exact nature of the operations or about the potential for expansion and replication. What is the potential for sunflower to become a significant cash crop and food source in Uganda? Can these modest experiments in sunflower production and processing be expanded to a larger scale operation.

To answer these questions, it is necessary to investigate:

- (1) The nature of existing cropping systems and identify potential constraints to expanded sunflower production.
- (2) The existing channels for inputs and information to reach the farmer and for the product to be assembled, processed and marketed.
- (3) The potential for alternative institutional arrangements (for example cooperatives or private entrepreneurs) to fulfill certain of these functions more effectively.

- (4) The possible impact of key macro-level policies (such as import and sales tax levels, produce marketing board licensing and regulation of trade, incentives for cotton production or reorganization of cotton marketing, credit policy, incentives for domestic livestock feed industry, etc.) on oilseed production and marketing.

The emphasis on the entire subsector from production and marketing through to macro policy issues is essential, as is the consideration of other oilseed crops as substitutes in both production and consumption. The timing of changes in new technology development, the availability of production and pricing information, and the availability of effective institutions for input delivery, assembly of product, processing and marketing is a critical factor in the future contribution of the subsector to rural Development.

#### Relationship to Rural Development

Rural development is a dynamic process which results in an improved quality of life and an expanded number of options available to rural residents. Given that the vast majority of Uganda's rural residents are farmers, increasing the available nutrient supply and raising farm incomes will be essential to rural development. The accomplishment of this process requires improved labor productivity and the development of efficient marketing institutions to both provide inputs and consumer goods to farmers and reward them for their labor through fair prices for the sale of their products.

In relation to improving the available nutrient supply, oilseed crops provide essential calories, protein and fats in the diet. Historically, Uganda's rich agricultural potential has in large part provided a sufficient and stable supply of virtually all of the nation's nutritional requirements in addition to providing the vast majority of the available foreign exchange. The nationwide degradation of the economy under Amin and the disruptions in marketing during and after the liberation war have, however, led to a degeneration of the available food supply. Not only has total per capita calorie availability fallen from an estimated 2,068 calories in 1961-65 to 1,784 calories in 1979-81 but lipids consumption has fallen dramatically from 30.2 grams in 1961-65 to only 22 g. In 1979-81 (FAO food balance sheets). This is barely over 50% of the recommended daily requirements for lipids.

The precipitous fall in both national oilseeds production and cotton seed availability (which served as the basis for the edible

oils industry in Uganda) accounts not only for 45% of the overall reduction in per capita calorie availability but also for a nearly 50% reduction in vegetable fats in the diet (partly compensated for by a modest rise in animal fat consumption). The production shortfall has not been made up for with imports due to foreign currency shortages. In fact, imports of edible oils fell throughout the 1970's and early 1980's.

Clearly, improvements in the production and marketing of oilseeds are necessary to redress an important deficiency in the available nutrient supply.

The oilseeds crops are also of special importance for their potential impact on rural income levels. The Northern portion of Uganda suffers from substantially lower per capita income levels than does the South. Coffee and tea, clearly the most profitable of the traditional cash crops are not produced here, and cotton production has collapsed in recent years. Research on the oilseeds subsector with an emphasis on sunflower production, processing and marketing may help address the need for a high productivity cash crop to fill the void left by cotton in the Northern cropping system. It may also provide the basis for new agro-industries in an area under represented in the national industrial production, and provide employment for participants in the marketing and processing of oilseeds.

#### Overview of Proposed Research

The research effort will follow a phased approach. Initial literature search and preliminary analysis of relevant secondary data has already begun. Data sources available include (1) Agricultural Secretariate cost of production data, (2) Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry statistics on production as well as earlier farm management studies from other parts of the country, (3) Ministry of Planning and Economic Development price statistics and information anticipated from the planned consumption survey to be conducted in late summer, (4) Ministry of Commerce data on trade and processing levels, (5) Census data.

The initial phase of the research will also entail supplementary field interviews with key subsector participants to complete a descriptive/diagnostic overview of the subsector.

Phase two, the Design Stage, will be based on the findings of the diagnostic study. Areas requiring detailed primary data collection will be identified in order to answer those questions concerning the subsector which are of highest priority. Data

collection instruments and analysis procedures will be designed for micro-level farm management and marketing research. This will include selection of the sample frame, survey design, training of field assistants, pretest, and selection of specific institutional case studies of organizations involved in or interested in components of oilseeds assembly, processing and marketing.

Phase III entails the actual primary data collection and analysis necessary to identify existing constraints in the sub-sector and evaluate the potential of different marketing institutions to overcome these constraints.

The research is expected to require 12 to 18 months of field work. The geographic coverage of the project will depend upon the availability of resources. Ideally the project should encompass Gulu, Kitgum, Lira and Apac districts, but initial work will emphasize Gulu district for logistical reasons.

This research effort will form the basis of a Ph.D. dissertation in Agricultural Economics in conjunction with Michigan State University in the U.S. The principal researcher expects to return to Michigan during the final write up and analysis stage.

CHAPTER 11

THE RURAL OFF-FARM SECTOR IN UGANDA-OPPORTUNITIES AND CONSTRAINTS

DR. J. OMODING-OKWALINGA

PROBLEM: Since Independence (1962) Uganda's Rural Development effort has mainly focused on the improvement of agricultural practices as a basis for increased farm productivity. This has been evidenced by substantial investment in and expansion of Agricultural extension training programs. Even under the post liberation rural development strategy, emphasis has continued to be laid on further expansion of agricultural output, particularly the export oriented sector of it (Recovery Programme 1981).

It is evident that Uganda's potential and source of survival is rooted in agricultural productivity based on peasant small holdings. For that reason it would appear that effective agricultural extension programmes should continue to be designed and implemented. However, other productive activities in the rural sector have made and might continue to make a contribution to overall productivity and quality of life in rural communities in Uganda. As a response to the shortage of imported goods experienced in Uganda since 1972, rural off-farm productive activities have since increased mainly based on indigenous technologies (Omoding-Okwalinga, 1985). But little attention has been paid to the contribution which the rural off-farm sector is making in providing agricultural implements and household goods in the rural areas of Uganda. No conscious effort has been made to assess its extent as a source of employment and cash income and to explore some of the barriers that might stand on the way of its further growth.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY:

In light of inadequacy of data regarding the rural off-farm sector, the purpose of this study is to determine the types of rural off-farm productive activities in rural areas of Uganda and to measure their relative contribution to rural welfare and productivity. The study will in addition explore some of the barriers to output growth experienced by rural off-farm producers in their social context of production and distribution.

QUESTIONS TO GUIDE THE STUDY:

The following three major questions based on the study objectives were formulated to guide the research.

1. What is the extent of practice, in the study site, of the four selected occupations.

2. What is the relative contribution of the four occupations to the quality of life and productivity of practitioners and non-practitioners.
3. What do practitioners perceive as barriers to further productivity growth in the four rural off-farm occupations.

The following major concepts in each of the three questions will be operationalized so as to yield forms of measures for each one of these critical concepts.

1. "Extent of practice"
2. "Relative contribution", "Quality of life", "Productivity".
3. "Barriers".

#### BRIEF REVIEW OF PASTWORK:

Studies in technological innovations in off-farm productive sectors of rural economies have mainly focused on searches for what are considered appropriate technologies for the rural poor (Schumacher 1973, Vita 1978, Boyd 1978). Most of these studies have sought for ways to introduce innovations which are viewed by the innovators as technologies that are appropriate to rural communities.

However, little effort has been made to determine the extent of practice, relative contribution to welfare, productivity and learning modes in rural technologies which have for so long sustained rural house holds (Hunt 1981). Some of the recent studies have pointed to the existence and viability of rural indigenous technologies whose learning takes place in rural communities, utilising rural resources (Muller 1981, Onoding-Okwalinga 1985). Evidence based on studies conducted in China, India, Kenya, Tanzania, suggests that rural off-farm technologies have a contribution to make to the overall welfare of rural communities.

#### METHODOLOGY:

- A. Study Sites - This study will be conducted in four counties to be selected in Eastern Uganda.
- B. Study Population and Sample - A range of activities practised outside the farms in rural areas qualify as off-farm productive activities mainly based on indigenous technologies. Practitioners of such activities include blacksmiths, basket weavers, carpenters, potmakers, builders, brewers, medicine persons, etc. The population for this study will comprise carpenters, blacksmiths, potmakers and



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