

**ETHNIC CONFLICTS AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT
IN KAYUNGA DISTRICT, UGANDA**

A

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Kampala International University
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In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the award of a Degree
of Master of Conflict Resolution and Peace Building

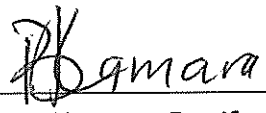
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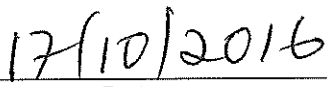
May 2016

DECLARATION A

"This Thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a Degree or any other academic award in any University or Institution of Learning."



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Date

DECLARATION B

"I/we confirm that the work reported in this Thesis is carried out by the candidate under my supervision".

Name and Signature of Supervisor

Name and Signature of Supervisor

Date

Date

DEDICATION

The book is dedicated to my beloved wife, children and all my friends for all their contribution toward my studies. Special thanks goes to my wife.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It would have been almost impossible to have successfully conducted this study without the help and guidance of other people. Being a self-sponsored student, I greatly appreciate such help given to me both morally and spiritually by those listed below:

My wife, thanks so much for your contributions towards my studies.

In a special way I wish to extend my sincere thanks to Dr. Otanga Rusoke my supervisor for his guidance and corrections during this study. I also extend my sincere thanks to all the lecturers from College of Higher Degrees and Research in Kampala International University for their positive contributions towards my studies.

Above all, I am grateful to the Almighty God who guided the above mentioned people to help me in various ways during this study.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

ADF	Allied Democratic Forces
CVI	Content Validity Index
CVR	Content Validity Ratio
FDC	Forum for Democratic Change
LC	Local Council
LRA	Lord's Resistance Army
NRM	National Resistance Movement
SIPRI	Stockholm Peace Research Institute
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences

ABSTRACT

The study was conducted in Kayunga district. A total of 130 respondents participated in the study. The study was guided by research objectives which included: establishing the sources of ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district; establishing the sources of economic development in Kayunga district; examining the relationship between the sources of ethnic conflicts and sources of economic development in Kayunga district; and establishing the effects of ethnic conflicts on economic development in Kayunga district. On the sources of ethnic conflicts, the study found that they were mainly; the prevalence of tribal conflicts are mainly due to political turmoil in Kayunga district; and that a high population growth has been responsible for the cause of ethnic conflicts. On the the sources of economic development in Kayunga district, the study found that there are not many local investors in Kayunnga district, meaning that there are not many local investors in Kayunga district, and that district has skilled human resource but very idle and untapped.

On the relationship between the sources of ethnic conflicts and sources of economic development in Kayunga district, the study revealed that there is no significant relationship between the sources of ethnic conflicts and sources of economic development in Kayunga district. Basing on these results, the study concluded that there is no significant relationship between the sources of ethnic conflicts and sources of economic development in Kayunga district. On the effects of ethnic conflicts on economic development in Kayunga district, the study found that destruction of businesses, loss of lives, low investments, increased tension, and destruction of infrastructure were the major effects of ethnic conflicts on economic development are the major effects of ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district.

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CHAPTER ONE

PROBLEM AND ITS SCOPE

1.0 Introduction

This chapter contains background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, researcher questions, hypotheses, scope of the study, significance of the study, and operational definitions of key terms.

1.1 Background of the study

1.1.2 Historical perspective

In the early years of the twenty-first century, like the first decades of the twentieth century, much of the Third World suffered from ethnic, racial, and religious tensions periodically punctuated by outbreaks of brutality and carnage. Progress in one location was often followed by deterioration in another. Indeed, over the past 50 years, the most frequent settings for violent conflict have not been wars between sovereign states, but rather internal strife tied to cultural, tribal, religious, or other ethnic animosities.

Still, the level of ethnically based internal conflict remains far higher than in the decades prior to the 1990s, in marked contrast to the dramatic decline in wars between nations in the same period. Between 1989 and 2004, there were 118 military conflicts in the world. Of those, only seven were between nation-states and the remaining 111 occurred within a single state, a large portion of which involved ethnic conflict (De Maio, 2009). According to another estimate, "nearly two-thirds of all [the world's] armed conflicts [at that time] included an ethnic component. [In fact], ethnic conflicts [were] four times more likely than interstate wars" (Monica, 2003). Another study claimed that 80 percent of "major conflicts" in the 1990s had an ethnic element (Bloomfield, 1998). Any listing of the world's most brutal wars in the past few decades would include ethnically based internal

warfare or massacres in Rwanda, the Congo, Ethiopia, Sudan, Lebanon, and Indonesia (East Timor). In 1998, one authoritative study estimated that some 15 million people had died worldwide as a result of ethnic violence since 1945 (including war-related starvation and disease).

While the more widely known cases of ethnic conflict are those that have involved large-scale, protracted or demonstrative episodes of violence such as the Lebanese civil war (1975-90), urban riots in Kenya (2007), or ethnic massacres in Rwanda (1994), it is important to note that conflict and violence are conceptually distinct. Ethnic conflict is commonplace, but ethnic violence is rare. Most multi-Ethnic countries in the developing and developed world experience ethnic tensions of some form or another—but these are for the most part either peacefully channeled through formal or informal institutional mechanisms, or they remain latent and suppressed.

More recently, Hutus in the African nation of Rwanda massacred some 800,000 of their Tutsi countrymen, while in the former country of Yugoslavia, Serbian militias initiated “ethnic cleansing” of their Muslim and Croat neighbors, killing and raping untold thousands. During the twentieth century, religious conflicts (India and Lebanon), tribal animosities (Nigeria and Rwanda), racial prejudice (South Africa), and other forms of ethnic rancor frequently produced violent confrontations, civil wars, and genocidal brutality. Continuing ethnic tensions in the early years of the twenty-first century seem to confirm Mahabun ul Haq’s prediction—that wars between “peoples” (ethnic, religious, racial, or cultural groups) will continue to far outnumber wars between nation-states:

Classic accounts of modernization, particularly those influenced by Marx, predicted that the old basis for divisions, such as tribe and religion, would be swept aside. As hundreds of millions of people poured from rural to urban areas worldwide, during

the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, it was expected that new alliances would be formed, based on social class in particular' (Yueh-Ting Lee, 2004).

The conflict between Palestinian Arabs and Zionist (now Israeli) Jews is a modern phenomenon, dating to the end of the nineteenth century. Although the two groups have different religions (Palestinians include Muslims, Christians and Druze), religious differences are not the cause of the strife. The conflict began as a struggle over land. From the end of World War I until 1948, the area that both groups claimed was known internationally as Palestine. That same name was also used to designate a less well-defined "Holy Land" by the three monotheistic religions. Following the war of 1948–1949, this land was divided into three parts: the State of Israel, the West Bank (of the Jordan River) and the Gaza Strip (Middle East Research & Information Project, 2014).

But ethnic conflict has been particularly widespread and cruel in Africa, Asia, and other regions of the Third World—in part because LDCs tend to have more ethnically diverse populations, and in part because their political systems often lack the institutions or experience needed to resolve these tensions peace-fully. A recent study determined that there are approximately 275 "minorities at risk" (i.e., ethnic groups facing actual or potential repression) throughout the world, with a total population exceeding 1 billion people (about one-sixth of the world's populations) scattered in 116 countries. Approximately 85 percent of that population at risk lives in the LDCs. Victoria M. Esses *et al* (2008) states that although Asia has the highest absolute population of ethnic minorities, sub-Saharan Africa has the highest proportion of its population at risk (about 36 percent), followed by North Africa and the Middle East (26 percent).

A study of 191 independent countries throughout the world revealed that 82 percent contain two or more ethnic groups (Appapillai, 1999). Furthermore, earlier

research indicated that in 30 percent of the world's countries, no single ethnic group accounts for even half of the total population (Lake *et al*/1998). This pattern is most striking in sub-Saharan Africa, where virtually every country is composed of several ethnic (tribal) groups. For example, it is estimated that Nigeria, the most populous sub-Saharan African state, has more than 200 linguistic (tribal) groups (Rothchild, 1986).

The population of Sub-Saharan Africa is very diverse in nature. In Liberia, for example, Veronica Nmoma (1997: 1-27) has reported on the tension between so-called Americo-Liberians (consisting of Liberians who settled along the coast after the abolition of the slave trade in North America, and later joined by so-called "recaptured" Africans nick-named as "the Congos" by indigenous Liberians) and indigenous Africans (consisting of several ethnic groups, the largest of which are the Kpelle, 298, 500; Bassa 214,150; Gio, 130, 300; Mano, 125,540; and Kru, 121, 400). In addition to the larger indigenous communities are other smaller groups consisting of Grebo, 108, 099; Gola, 106, 450; Loma, 60, 840; Bandi, 30, 870; Kissa, 25, 500; Vai, 24, 00; Krahn, 18, 464; Mandingo, over 10, 836; Del, 7, 900; and Belle, 5, 386 (Nmoma, 1997 quoting Harold D. Nelson, 1987). This demographic data on the constituent populations of Liberia might have changed to some extent since it was collected in 1997. Due to the diversity of Sub-Saharan countries, political participation can become really problematic if these areas are not managed properly in terms of resource allocation.

1.1.2 Theoretical perspective

This study was based on 'Relatedness Theory.' This theory evolved initially from the researchers' clinical observations that psychiatric clients seemed to demonstrate various states of connectedness and disconnectedness. It appeared that these states could be operational at any time in different contexts.

A pervasive human concern is establishing and maintaining relatedness to others, objects, environments, society and self, since relatedness is the context in which persons survive, develop and grow (Kohut, 1977; Gilligan, 1982; Berlin & Johnson, 1989). We all have a need for meaningful relationships that transcend our separateness. Although previous research has examined such components of relatedness as attachment (Bowlby, 1969) and loneliness (Weiss, 1974), no broad theoretical framework for relatedness in adulthood has been proposed. The literature which addresses the nature of human relationships is often vague and disorganized with varying definitions and premises about individual concepts (Antonucci, 1990).

1.1.3 Conceptual perspective

The ethnic conflicts of sub-Saharan Africa of the late 20th and early 21st centuries have been as violent and vicious as those in other parts of the world, but are not unique examples of atavistic savagery. Most of the violence has been focused on defending or gaining control of the state within a nation and redolent of the earlier struggles in the construction of European nation-states, although in a strikingly different global context (Connor 1972; Bayart 2000). The movements of democratization attest to the continuing reality of African nations and nationalism both internally for citizens struggling to reconstruct the state and externally for the international community. The repeated efforts to rewrite national constitutions attest to the continuing political energy of nationalism in the popular consciousness (Berman 2009). At the same time, the disturbing connection between democratization and civil violence, increasingly expressed in the bitter conflicts of autochthony, reveals the growing ethnicization of nationalism and more narrowly bounded notions of citizenship in Africa.

As Wolf (2004, pp.1-17) rightly noted, the term 'conflict' is used to describe a situation in which two or more interacting subjects seek to pursue incompatible

goals; they try to justify these doggedly, and the pursuit generates animosity that ends up in disagreement and disaffection. In most cases, the degree of disagreement is so high that the players resort to using abusive, hurtful language or actions that are hurtful, and provoke acts leading to physical abuse, killings or massacres. Conflicts are therefore typified by recourse to violence and disruption of what prevails in the community. Conflicts frequently manifest in competition, antagonism, hostility, insecurity, hatred, harm or damage (Oucho, 2002, p. 10). It is also important to briefly examine territorial claims as source of conflicts.

1.1.4 Contextual perspective

In the words of the Women's Commission (2001: 81), "the conflicts in northern Uganda has its roots in ethnic mistrust between the Acholi people and the ethnic groups of central and southern Uganda as well as in the religious and spiritual beliefs of the Acholi people and the manipulation of these beliefs." And this distrust has persisted, as "still today it is common for people in Kampala and beyond to regard people from northern Uganda as backward and martial" (Finnstrom 2008: 79).

Besides this major violent conflicts between the southern government and the northern rebels of the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA), there have been in recent years several other smaller-scale ethnic conflicts in Uganda. For example, the rebels of Allied Democratic Forces (ADF) have been fighting the government in southwestern Uganda, while there has been wide-spread tribal violence in the northeastern Karamoja region, triggered by cattle raiding (Nannyonjo 2005; Finnstrom 2008).

Ethnic bloodshed sometimes occurs when one ethnicity seizes political power and then takes retribution for real or imagined past indignities. Thus, when General Idi Amin seized power in Uganda, he ordered the slaughter of Langi and Acholi

soldiers who were identified with the regime of ousted President Milton Obote. In both Rwanda and Burundi, the deaths of Hutu presidents opened the floodgates to violence between Hutus and the long-dominant Tutsis.

1.2 Statement of the problem

An economist views conflict rather differently. Economists who have studied rebellions tend to think of them not as the ultimate protest movements, but as the ultimate manifestation of organized crime. As Grossman (1999) states, in such insurrections the insurgents are indistinguishable from bandits or pirates (p.269). Rebellion is large-scale predation of productive economic activities. Tribal conflicts can set back social and economic development gains by decades; hard-won development successes can be wiped out in an instant.

Moreover, the physical, economic, and psychological insecurity that accompanies outbreaks of violence, and that lingers long thereafter, negatively impacts on freedom and choice, the very basis of development itself (Sen 1999). Countries that have endured such conflicts have diverted vast amounts of resources, both economic and human, to support military actions. 'Victory', if ever finally declared, has a very hollow ring indeed. In such conflicts there are no victors, only victims. Such countries often find themselves in a state of complete economic and social collapse. In the aftermath of the 1994 Rwanda genocide – which resulted in the deaths of an estimated 800,000 children, women and men – the national economy was decimated, and almost every institution of local and central government destroyed. Large portions of international aid that could have gone to development were, instead, diverted to emergency assistance. It is estimated that international emergency relief to Rwandan refugees and displaced persons during nine months in 1996 alone amounted to US\$ 1.4 billion (Sellstrom and Wohlgemuth, 1996; Cantwell, 1997).

Kayunga is a district with many tribes, making up many ethnic groups in the area. The conflict in the district stem from different sources, ranging from economic, social to political. The differences in cultures and language have caused tension as to which culture and language to adopt. Kayunga district is a home of Baganda, Banyala, Bakenye, Bagwere, Itesoit, Basoga etc. Migration has caused over population in the district which has exerted pressure on land. Conflicts have since been reported in land ownership. The existence of different political parties with different political ideologies have equally worsened the conflicts in the district. Key political figures come from different political parties and they all struggle to influence decisions in the district. For some time now, this ethnic differences have caused tension among the residents and has often led to cultural conflicts. The different cultural groups tend to impose their cultures which brings a rift between the different ethnic groups. The 2009 Buganda riot is an example of such ethnic tension in the district. At helm of the conflict, the Baganda who are the majority of the population wanted recognition of their King (the Kabaka) and the Banyala (second largest tribe) also wanted the recognition of their cultural leader (the Ssabanyala). This later caused a longstanding disagreement on whose leader takes control of the district (Bugerere Region). The central government swung in action to block the coming of Kabaka to the alleged territory of the Ssabanyala, hence causing uproar and arrests among the Kabaka loyalists. In general, the conflicts in Kayunga district mainly stem from political ideologies, intertribal groups, land tenure ownership, and intercultural differences and values. Thus, this study seeks to establish the effects of ethnic conflicts on economic development in Kayunga district.

1.3 Research Objectives

General: This study investigated the effects of ethnic conflicts on economic development in Kayunga district.

Specific: To be sought further in this study was as follows:

1. To establish the sources of ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district
2. To establish the sources of economic development in Kayunga district.
3. To examine the relationship between the sources of ethnic conflicts and sources of economic development in Kayunga district.
4. To establish the effects of ethnic conflicts on economic development in Kayunga district.

1.4 Research Questions

1. What is the sources of ethnic conflicts in Kayunga District?
2. What is the source of economic development in Kayunga district?
3. What is the relationship between the sources of ethnic conflicts and sources of economic development in Kayunga district?
4. What is the effects of ethnic conflicts on economic development in Kayunga district?

1.5 Null Hypotheses

1. There are no significant differences in the sources of ethnic conflicts and level of economic development in Kayunga district.
2. There is no significant relationship between the sources of ethnic conflicts and economic development in Kayunga district.

1.6 Scope

1.6.1 Geographical Scope

The research was conducted in Kayunga district. Kayunga district lies in central region of Uganda. It is 74 Km East of Kampala city, bordered by Mukono district to the South, Jinja to the East, Kamuli to the Northeast, Amolator and Apac in the North, Luwero in the West and Nakasongola to the North West. The district has a total land area of 1810 sq km. It lies between 1000-1200m above sea level. It is generally flat with no remarkable hills and part of it is a wetland (Ssezibwa), there is Lake Kyoga in the northern part. According to the results of 2014 Population Census, Kayunga has a total population of 294,613 people which is 151,514 are female and 143,099 are male.

1.6.2 Content scope

The study examined the correlation between ethnic conflicts and economic development in Kayunga district.

1.6.3 Theoretical scope

John Burtons' theory of Human Needs Theory' (1915) was proven or disproved in this study.

1.7 Significance of the study

The following disciplines may benefit from the findings of the study.

The research will be useful to governments, as it will highlight on the extent of tribal conflicts in the third world countries, especially in Africa.

The study will further be significant to governments of third world countries as it will help avail information on cause of tribal conflict and their subsequent consequences on economic development. The extent of the tribal conflict will be

documented and the research will reveal the gaps that need to be filled by the individual states in peace-building.

Furthermore, the study will be used by the governments since it will reveal the work of the government in peace-building process in the third world countries. Governments being the key stake holder in peace-building, its strengths and weaknesses will be highlighted and this will bridge the existing gap left by the governments in peace-building process.

The study will be of importance to UN Security Council, local and International organizations, and the government in assessing their contributions in restoring peace in the conflict areas of third world countries.

1.8 Operational Definitions of Key terms

Tribal conflicts: The conflict between different groups of people separated by difference in type of language that they speak

Ethnic conflict: the desire of groups for an independent state. Ethnic conflict encompasses all forms of small- and large-scale acts of violence between and among different ethnic groups.

Ethnic group: Is a group of people that belong to a certain ascriptive category, such as race, ethnicity, language, tribe, religion, and so forth.

Conflict: A situation in which two or more human beings desire goals which they perceive as being obtainable by one or the other, but not by both.

Secession: The desire of groups for an independent state and it is associated with violence and often accompanied by ethnic conflict, but it is not necessarily associated with either violence or ethnic conflict.

Economic development: The sustained, concerted actions of policymakers and communities that promote the standard of living and economic health of a specific area.

Peacekeeping: Peacekeeping is both a political and a military activity involving a presence in the field, with the consent of the parties, to implement or monitor arrangements relating to the control of conflicts (cease-fires, separation of forces), and their resolution (partial or comprehensive settlements), as well as to protect the delivery of humanitarian aid.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

This chapter looks through the earlier research documents of different researchers; literature with an aim of identifying a problem of concern eventual number of duplication of early research work is done. Apart from going through other related work. It also involved critically going through other materials that are related to the ethnic conflicts and economic development. This chapter looks at the concepts, opinions, ideas from authors/experts in relation to the research topic.

2.1 Concept of Ethnic conflicts

Hegre et. al. (1999) states that ethnic conflict is as the result of political grievance and opportunity for violence. The structures and processes that appear to turn ethnic intolerance into unbridled violence are highly complex. A list of causal factors might include 'historical forces', economic tensions, 'bad' governance, perceived threats to cultural identity and (in ways that are not adequately understood) formal, non-formal and informal educational processes. Ethnicity itself is often asserted to be a key contributor to 'ethnic conflict'. However, it is increasingly evident that "ethnicity neither causes conflict, nor in many cases does it accurately describe it. Rather ethnicity/identity is increasingly mobilized and politicized in con-temporary violent conflicts" (Bush, 1997).

The 1994 Rwandan genocide sent psychological shockwaves throughout the Great Lakes region. The murder of 800,000 people on the basis of ethnicity served to make people even more aware of their tribal and linguistic affiliation (Gough, 2000).

There have been over 9 million refugees and internally displaced people from conflicts in Africa. Hundreds and thousands of people have been slaughtered from a number of conflicts and civil wars. If this scale of destruction and fighting was in Europe, then people would be calling it World War III with the entire world rushing to report, provide aid, mediate and otherwise try to diffuse the situation. When post-election violence erupted in Kenya at the end of December, U.S. media quickly settled into a familiar story: African tribes were savagely tearing each other apart. Journalists described the events as "savage tribal killings" (L.A. Times, 1/2/08), "gruesome ethnic killings" (Washington Post, 1/6/08) and "tribal riots" (Fort Wayne Journal Gazette, 1/3/08). "This is a tribal situation," explained CBS (Early Show, 1/2/08). "And what is terrifying is that the veneer of this country is so thin, that there's so much tension and hatred that's been here all along."

Much of the violence took place along ethnic lines; political leaders on both sides hurled charges of ethnic cleansing; and many U.S. journalists looked no further for their analysis. "The election crisis has taken the lid off tribal hatred," reported NBC Nightly News (1/3/08), a conclusion repeated on CNN (1/10/08): "Charges of vote fraud ignited old tribal hatred."

Political and economic grievances tend to hide behind that "ethnic" label. In Kenya, leaders tapped into inequalities and injustices that date back to colonial times. The colonial British administration displaced Kikuyu, Kalenjin, Masai and other groups from the area's best land; when Kenyans finally drove the British out, Jomo Kenyatta, the first post-colonial leader, procured formerly Kikuyu land for his fellow Kikuyu elite. He then steered previously Kalenjin and Masai land in the fertile Rift Valley into the hands of poorer Kikuyu, setting the stage for ongoing

animosity and conflict among the poor while keeping huge tracts of land safely in the hands of his wealthy allies (London Guardian, 2008).

2.2 Concept of Economic Development

Economic development increases a regional economy's capacity to create wealth for local residents. It depends upon deployment of a region's building blocks – labor, financial capital, facilities and equipment, know-how, land, other physical resources, and public and private infrastructure (Kane and Sand, 1988.) Economic development is essential to the ongoing growth and vitality of a region, but development itself differs from economic growth. Economic development implies a qualitative change in what or how goods and services are produced through shifts in resource use, production methods, workforce skills, technology, information, or financial arrangements. A regional economy can grow without changing if it simply produces more of the same – same goods and services – in the same manner. For example, an increase in the population of an area will mean more income and more demand-driven growth even absent qualitative changes in the economic development environment. Development implies something more. Development and growth complement each other in the long run, although in the short run development will tie up resources that could otherwise feed more immediate economic growth (Flammang, 1979.)

Economic growth depends upon how a region puts its productive capacity to use. If public infrastructure or private resources are left idle, an area misses out on the economic potential of those sunken investments (Bartik, 1995). The development experiences of Third World countries since the fifties have been staggeringly diverse—and hence very informative. Forty years ago the developing countries looked a lot more like each other than they do today. Overall, shifting wealth is good news for development and good news for the global economy. "Growth in the developing world is an opportunity for the global economy to shift up a gear,

which is confirmed by the role some emerging economies are playing in the current economic recovery (Gurría, 2010). Properly structured, economic development efforts by state and local governments can have a positive – albeit incremental – impact on growth. Real impacts may be hard to separate from the perception of impact. And while the perception of impact may be an adequate measure of success from a political standpoint, the economic framework demands more.

2.3 Theoretical Perspectives

The idea of relatedness became explicit with early object relations theorists such as Klein (1964) who transcended Freud's notions of drives and instincts and began to consider more centrally, individuals' relationships with the external world and specifically, other people. Others such as Winnicott (1965) placed further emphasis on the relational field, especially that of the mother and infant, and the subsequent development of relationships with others. Attachment theory provided an additional basis for examining early parent-child processes that lead to the development and conduct of human relationships (Bowlby, 1969; Ainsworth, 1989). Relatedness is used most often to describe interpersonal attachment. Rouslin (1973) viewed relatedness as the emotional, perceptual and cognitive capacity of a person to become involved with another person. Wynne (1984) described instrumental relatedness as an emphasis on tasks and goals rather than on the relationship and expressive relatedness as the sharing of meaningful feelings including warmth and affection in human contact. Attachment to various transitional objects or phenomena is the view of relatedness presented by Arkema (1980). A pervasive theme throughout discussions of relatedness is the assumption that its experiential essence is solace, comfort and meaningfulness (Wynne, 1984; Arkema, 1981).

This study will be based on 'Relatedness Theory.' This theory evolved initially from the researchers' clinical observations that psychiatric clients seemed to demonstrate various states of connectedness and disconnectedness. It appeared that these states could be operational at any time in different contexts.

A pervasive human concern is establishing and maintaining relatedness to others, objects, environments, society and self, since relatedness is the context in which persons survive, develop and grow (Kohut, 1977; Gilligan, 1982; Berlin & Johnson, 1989). We all have a need for meaningful relationships that transcend our separateness. Although previous research has examined such components of relatedness as attachment (Bowlby, 1969) and loneliness (Weiss, 1974), no broad theoretical framework for relatedness in adulthood has been proposed. The literature which addresses the nature of human relationships is often vague and disorganized with varying definitions and premises about individual concepts (Antonucci, 1990). An organizing framework for the study of relatedness is sorely lacking.

2.4 Sources of ethnic conflicts

Statistics sketch a general picture of the changing situation. In the late 1970s, 18 states had significant internal linguistic conflicts and 19 had significant internal religious conflicts. In 1983, 76 States had active opposition groups organized around minority grievances, while a further 38 had evidence of minority grievances, but no organized opposition groups. In as many as 41 States, minority opposition groups used violent methods to press their claims (Kidron and Segal, 1984). The annual yearbooks of the Stockholm Peace Research Institute (SIPRI) suggest that, throughout the 1990s, there were about 30 active major armed conflicts, only one of which was interstate. The rest took place within States, between factions split along ethnic, religious or cultural lines. While some internal conflicts have been Contemporary violent conflicts – especially

ethnic conflicts – are increasingly dirty. From Algeria to Omagh to Sri Lanka, the principal weapon of war is terror. Not only do warriors target civilians, and especially children, systematically, but they employ control through the creation and manipulation of fear. Their strategies include scorched earth tactics to starve populations and destroy infrastructures, sexual torture and mass rape, ethnic and social cleansing, and even genocide.

Political discrimination aims at depriving certain groups within a nation of fundamental political rights. Cederman et al. (2010: 99, 101) argue, for instance, that political discrimination is “directly targeted at an ethnic community – thus disregarding indirect discrimination based, for example, on educational disadvantage or discrimination in the labor or credit markets.” They add that “group members are subjected to active, intentional, and targeted discrimination, with the intent of excluding them from both regional and national power. Such active discrimination can be either formal or informal.”

In the less extreme version of political deprivation, ethnic groups are powerless and “elite representatives hold no political power at either the national or the regional level without being explicitly discriminated against” (Cederman et al. 2010: 100). In both instances, outright discrimination and the more subtle denial of representation can cause frustration among ethnic groups, which can result in protest and even violent uprising. Recent studies have found strong evidence that politically disadvantaged ethnic groups are more likely to rebel (Cederman et al. 2010; Buhaug et al. 2013; Cederman et al. 2011). Engaging in rebellion is implicitly understood as a group’s attempt to forcefully end a continuous state of deprivation. This is a straightforward and unsurprising understanding of the function of rebellion.

Presumably, some deprived groups have initially pursued nonviolent means, which have been met by brute force by the state, thus setting a violent dynamic in motion. Although this runs against the "nonviolence works" argument, it is not uncommon for nondemocratic governments to crack down on nonviolent movements, with the aim of wiping out the rebellious momentum (Davenport 1995) and setting an example for other potential protesting groups (Walter 2006). This shows that not all governments care about moral superiority as suggested by the "nonviolence works" argument.

Violent uprising might therefore become a viable option in order to achieve rights if nonviolent strategies have failed to yield the expected results or have been a poor tactic per se. Gurr (2000: 157) asks the following: "If rebellion is the last resort of those seeking minority rights and self-determination, does that imply that conventional politics is their first resort?" He answers, "Sometimes yes, but minorities often are closed out of conventional politics." Gurr further states that "if the political rules of the game exclude or marginalize ethnic and national minorities, then engaging in conventional politics constitutes a poor strategic choice for their leaders."

A rebel group fighting for its ethnic community's cause often enjoys strong local backing. As a result, the local population will provide the rebel group with support in terms of information (while misinforming government actors), food, labor, recruits and often even money. These uninterrupted support services by the local community are crucial to a rebel group's success (Weinstein 2005). Government forces, on the other hand, will encounter problems in distinguishing combatants from civilians and consequently face a disadvantage. In short, taking their relative weakness into account, ethnic rebel groups' most effective option in terms of obtaining political rights or autonomy is to wear down the government and those

in power by attrition. Once the government realizes that the costs of warfare exceed the benefits of suppressing a group, they will consider ceasing discriminatory practices.

As Adedeji (1999, 10) points out:

Understanding the origin of conflict means, therefore, developing a framework for comprehending (a) how the various causes of conflicts fit together and interact; (b) which among them are the dominant forces at a particular moment in time; and (c) what policies and strategies should be crafted to address these causes in the short, medium and long term.

Adebayo Adedeji, on the other hand, admits that competition for economic resources is an important factor in conflict, but is not the only one. Firstly, he argues that "competition for resources typically lies at the heart of conflict. This accounts for the intensity of the struggle for political power in many an African country" (Adedeji 1999, 10). This may explain the competition amongst the elite in a stable political environment. It does not follow, however, that competition for economic resources is the cause of all rebel movements. As we have pointed out earlier and will do so later, these rebel movements have much more complex causes than a mere need for economic resources.

Political conflicts in newly independent Africa were labeled as tribal, a term rarely, if ever, used to describe national conflicts in Europe, the Americas or Asia. Conflicts in those regions were described as perhaps ethnic or more often as clashes of nationalisms – the Basques in Spain, the "troubles" in Northern Ireland, the wars that followed the break-up of Yugoslavia and now the conflicts in the Caucasus. The tribal label frequently meant that no other explanation or research into the causes of conflicts in third world countries, especially Africa was necessary. "Tribal" covered it all, with occasional injections of corruption and

dictatorship (though, of course, these usually could be traced back to tribe) (Somerville, 2008).

Attempts have been made to relate political inequalities to conflict. Lars-Erik Cederman and colleagues analyzed 124 ethnic conflicts occurring between 1946 and 2005. They test hypotheses connecting ethnic groups' access to power and conflict. Their results show that "the frequency of conflict increases roughly with the degree of exclusion. Excluded groups are much more likely to experience a rebellion in their name (0.66 percent) compared with groups in power (0.23 percent)" (Cederman et.al., 2010). They consider "excluded groups" and income levels and find that "excluded groups across all income levels are three times more likely to initiate conflict against the state as compared with included groups that enjoy representation at the center" (Cederman et.al, 2010). Andreas Wimmer, Cederman and Brian Min have demonstrated that countries in which political exclusion between groups is high, the risk of conflict increases (Wimmer, Cederman & Min, 2009).

There are numerous qualitative examples of how justice-related inequalities can fuel conflict and violence. Control over the justice system by a particular political, social or ethnic elite has been linked to instability and violence in contexts as diverse as Guinea, Rwanda, Sri Lanka, Uzbekistan, and Zimbabwe (Freedom House, 2012; Amnesty International, 2012; International Crisis Group, 2006; Human Rights Watch, 2009; Forum 18, 2005). According to Conciliation Resources, impunity for abuses suffered by the Acholi minority in Northern Uganda risks sustaining the grievances that fuelled the creation of the Lord's Resistance Army (Conciliation Resources, 2011). In Nigeria, perceptions of injustice by Ogoni and Ijaw Delta minorities has fuelled deep grievances and cycles of violence (UNEP, 2011). Research by Saferworld in South Sudan also

illustrates how unequal access to justice among certain groups imposed by socio-economic inequality or severe underdevelopment can impact on conflict and violence. Individuals in remote and/or particularly impoverished areas of the country may need to travel miles to get to the nearest court.

This is compounded by a general lack of judges, court houses and other infrastructure and the public's lack of knowledge of the law and their rights under it. This absence of formal justice effectively forces communities to provide for their own security and justice. When crimes occur or disputes arise, this often results in significant interpersonal and inter-communal conflict (Saferworld, 2011a).

2.5 Sources of economic development

The incidence of uneven development is, in general, a special characteristic found among the developing nations due to tribal, and civil wars. Tribal wars impose substantial costs on the domestic economy. These wars are destructive of human lives and economic infrastructure. They also undermine the legitimacy of the state, threatening its institutions, the security of property rights, and the rule of law. Moreover, internal wars introduce tremendous uncertainty into the economic environment, making both public and private investment riskier.

First, tribal war impacts the domestic economy by reducing the level and growth of the capital stock. The occurrence of tribal war initiates capital flight and thus dramatically reduces private investment. Second, political economy models suggest that internal conflicts affect the aggregate domestic economy by worsening the government's fiscal balance. Economically, governments shift expenditure from output enhancing activities into the conduct of war. Politically, they face weaker incentives to maintain fiscal balance owing to a shorter time horizon and weaker accountability to an electoral constituency.

Since tribal war increases the rate of depreciation and reduces investment, growth in the capital stock is stunted. Civil war, therefore, reduces both the level of the capital stock and its rate of growth (Bush, 1998). This suggests that a major way in which civil war affects the economy is through dramatic reductions in domestic investment. According to this perspective, the flight of capital is the driving force behind the economic costs of conflict. For example, Collier (1999) develops a model of economic output that distinguishes between liquid and fixed capital. The distinction is that the former is likely to be responsive to changes in the economic environment, while fixed capital such as supplies of land, buildings, and unskilled labor is unlikely to move easily even as the economic environment deteriorates.

Previous research on the costs of conflict has assumed away variation within the scope of tribal war (Knight, Loayza, and Villanueva 1996; Easterly and Levine 1997). With the exception of war duration (Collier 1999), the assumption has been that all wars are alike. Casual observation suggests the implausibility of this claim. Some civil wars are concentrated in a particular geographic area like the rebellion of the Sendero Luminoso in Peru, while the rest of the economy functions uninterrupted in bustling urban centers. Other wars are spread throughout the country, involving massive armies on both sides, and resulting in significant fatalities among the civilian population as in Mozambique's deadly 14-year civil war.

In the 1997 *Human Development Report*, devoted to analyze poverty, again failed to give any in-depth consideration to countries with tribal conflicts. Yet among the ten countries listed with the lowest Human Development Index, eight have suffered serious tribal and civil wars in recent years-Mozambique, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Rwanda, Sierra Leon, Niger, Mali, and Guinea. In fact, of the fifty countries

classified by the UN as 'least developed' have experienced major armed conflict in the last twenty years (UN 1998; FitzGerald 2000).

Similarly, most studies on the subject find that defense spending tends to have an adverse impact on economic growth, either directly or indirectly. Examples include studies by Lim (1983), Deger and Sen (1983), Faini, Annez, and Taylor (1984), Maizels and Nissanke (1985), Deger (1986), Chan (1986), Grobas and Gnanaselvam (1993), Roux (1996), Pradhan (2001), Arunatilake et al. (2001), and Ra and Singh (2005). These domestic conflicts pose a serious threat to economic development, especially for these poor African countries.

A report by the Geneva Declaration also asserts that countries that register severe social and economic inequalities face a greater probability of tipping into, or facing a current conflict (Geneva Declaration, 2010, p.20) and that these risks are amplified in contexts affected by low levels of economic development and religious polarization (ibid, p.20). The Institute for Economics and Peace finds that levels of peace are correlated with the inequality-adjusted Human Development Index (Institute for Economics and Peace, 2011, pp. 18, 20, 22).

According to Kaplan (2009), "unstable environments encourage polities to split along the most profound cleavages" (pp.467-468). He thus notes studies showing that racial and ethnic divisions reduce incentives for people to be generous to others through social welfare, and undermine support for government spending on all types of public goods. For example, he observes that in sub-Saharan Africa, the least ethnically divided societies spend five times more per capita than the most divided societies on HIV prevention and treatment (ibid, pp.466-472).

In addition, there is evidence that economic shocks can increase a country's likelihood of violence. Shocks may abruptly impact the distribution of economic wealth and resources and upset entrenched patterns of such distribution, thereby increasing inequalities and rendering a country more vulnerable (Blattman & Miguel, 2010, p.25). Indeed, there is some evidence on the role of inequality in underpinning some of the causal relationships at play. Citing work by Richard Auty, Indra de Soysa, Terry Lynn Karl, James Fearon, Michael Ross, and Jakob Svensson, the Center on International Cooperation (CIC) at New York University concludes that "motives [for participating in violence] can also be economic: if marginal groups are blocked ... incentives exist to challenge the existing order – amplified when the state has significant natural resources" (Jones & Elgin-Cossart, 2011, p.6).

2.6 Effects of ethnic conflicts on economic development

Violence, in all its forms, threatens people's security and endangers countries' development. The term "organized violence," defined by the 2011 World Development Report as "the use or threat of physical force by groups", which "includes state actions against other states or against civilians, civil wars, electoral violence between opposing sides, communal conflicts based on regional, ethnic, religious or other group identities or competing economic interests, gang-based violence and organized crime and international non-state armed movements with ideological aims" (World Bank, 2011, p.xv). Though we may use the term "conflict" or describe different types of violent conflicts and wars, we mean these as part of the greater concept of "violence."

Stewart claims that disparities across culturally-defined groups within society—horizontal inequalities—can fuel resentment and violent conflict. She takes inspiration from Ted Gurr, who writes that when major political or economic grievances in society overlap with social identities, violence is more likely (Gurr,

1993). Her argument is supported by empirical evidence. She analyzes nine country cases and has found that when "ethnic identities coincide with economic/social ones, social instability of one sort of [sic] another is likely" (Stewart, 2002, p.32).

Ethnic conflicts have persistent devastating effects on economic development (DeRouen and Bercovitch 2008, Collier and Hoeffler 2004, Collier, Hoeffler and Rohner 2009, Quinn, Mason and Gurses 2007, and Walter 2004). Their legacy involves more than physical and human capital destruction. The aftermaths of civil conflicts are often plagued by the breakdown of civic and economic cooperation within society.

Another potential concern relates to conflict-induced migration: some people may live in 2008 in different counties from those where they used to live at the time of conflict. However, this concern appears to be of limited importance in Uganda. First, although there has been massive forced displacement of population during the conflict, most of it took place within counties: people were forced to move from rural areas to so-called protected villages established mostly in local trading centers (UNOCHA 2002, Medecins sans frontieres 2004). As a result, cross-county internal migration is altogether modest over the period. Given that our main explanatory variable is also defined at the county-level, the results are unlikely be contaminated by cross-county conflict-induced migration.

Second, by 2008 the majority of displaced people had returned to their home villages (UN 2009; UNHCR. (2010). The concern is more severe in 2005, when the number of people living in refugee camps peaked at 1.8 million; for this reason we do not use the information in Afrobarometer (2005).

Ethnic conflicts contribute to growing violence and civil strife in society, and thus threaten peace and security in many countries. Violent conflicts in Africa impair development programmes and are largely responsible for the "underdevelopment of large sections of the population in West Africa" (Tonah 2005: 102). It is argued that "chieftaincy disputes and ethnic conflicts in the Northern part of the country [Ghana] are partly to blame for the widespread poverty and the poor state of infrastructure in the area" (Tonah 2005: 102). Symptomatic of violent conflicts, these conflicts disrupted economic activities, caused internal displacement problem, stalled infrastructural developments, disrupted educational calendar and local government activities, thus contributing to the national development - quagmire. This study provides useful insights into the devastating effects and impact of violent inter-ethnic conflicts in society. Through the grim and destructive picture of the effects of the conflict, this paper raises tangible questions about security arrangements in the communal violence, and argues that, like all inter-ethnic conflicts, for example, conflict posed a challenge to national development, national integration and social cohesion.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

This study employed the *descriptive survey* design specifically the *descriptive comparative* and *descriptive correlation* strategies. Descriptive studies are *non-experimental* researches that describe the characteristics of a particular individual, or of a group. It dealt with the relationship between variables, testing of hypothesis and development of generalizations and use of theories that have universal validity. It also involved events that have already taken place and may be related to present conditions (Kothari, 2004). Further, descriptive surveys are used to discover causal relationships (descriptive correlation), differences (descriptive comparative), to provide precise *quantitative* description and to observe behavior (Treece and Treece, 1973).

3.2 Research Population

The target populations are the; Nongovernmental Organizations, tribal leaders, religious leaders, politicians, government officials, and community members in conflict areas.

The Sloven's formula and simple random method was used to determine the number of respondents who were sampled. Simple random method gives equal chances of all respondents to be selected.

3.3 Sample size

In view of the nature of the target population where the number for all departments included in the study, a sample was taken from each category. This is as follows;

Table 1: showing the Respondents of the Study

Category of employees	Total Population	Sample Size	Percentage	Sampling Method
Government officials	6	4	2	Stratified
Tribal leaders/ Religious leaders	12	8	5	Stratified
NGO officials	27	18	10	Stratified
Community members	180	120	8	Stratified
Politicians	36	27	15	Purposive
Total	261	177	100	

Source: Primary data

The Sloven's formula is used to determine the minimum sample size.

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N \alpha^2}$$

3.4 Sampling Procedures

Samples were selected and data collected from then and make generalization on the whole population from which the sample shall have been chosen. To get respondents sample size to participate in the study, the researcher set a selection criterion where respondents were selected basing on the category of the respondents. Simple random technique was used to collect data from different categories of the respondents already determined. Then a sample was obtained.

3.5 Research Instruments questionnaires

Structured questionnaires was used and distributed to the determined respondents. The questionnaire is more convenient since it can be freely due to its anonymous nature. Questionnaires are also efficient and convenience in collection of quantitative data that makes it feasible (Sekaran.2003; Amin 2005). It's also less expensive than interviews and many people can be reached in a short space of time.

Questionnaire is formatted and structured for purposes of precision and accuracy in the data collection, to ensure that the items have the same measure and reliability. Questionnaire was both open-ended and closed-ended questions where respondents were given asset of alternative questions to pick from. This helped in easy coding of the data and also help the respondents to respond fast.

The questionnaires were based on questionnaires previously developed. Cronbach's coefficient alphas (α) was used and the formula was based on Amin, 2005.

3.6 Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

i. Testing the validity of the research instrument

The validity is the extent to which a measurement instrument actually measures what is designed to measure (Amin, 1999). The validity of the instruments of this study referred to the content of the Questionnaire. To make sure that the questionnaire measured what was intended to measure, to ensure the clarity of questions, their effectiveness and the time required to complete the questionnaire, the researcher assessed its content validity and reliability. To test the content validity, the researcher used a panel of ten experienced researchers in the domain in Uganda to assess their suitability and relevancy of the research objectives of the study and research questions. They were asked to assess the validity of the questions in the questionnaire by ranking them from 1 to 4 against objectives of

the study and the research questions. 1-stood for strongly disagree, 2-Disagree, 3-Agree, and 4 for strongly agree. From there, a Content Validity Ratio (CVR) and Content Validity Index (CVI) was calculated.

CVR was calculated by subtracting the total number of items judged to strongly disagree (1), and disagree (2) from the total number of items judged to strongly agree (4) and agree (3), thereby dividing them to a half of people asked to judge the questionnaire. This CVI was accepted because normally it should be greater than 0.5, which means that the questionnaire can be administered. For the purpose of this study, using this formula, the CVI once calculated it was 1.25.

ii Testing the reliability of the research instruments

Reliability refers to the consistency of a measure. A test is considered reliable if we get the same result repeatedly. In order to test the reliability of the questionnaire, the researcher conducted a preliminary testing of the questionnaire before constructing the final copies to be distributed later in the field for actual data collection. The questionnaire was tested to a selected sample, which the researcher plans to use in the study.

Eight people were selected, 2 from each category of respondents and were given questions for testing. This enabled the researcher to improve the questions.

3.7 Data Gathering Procedures

After attaining a letter from the school of Postgraduate studies, Research and Evaluation to go and collect data, a formal request to collect data was obtained from the different categories of the respondents.

Upon acceptance, the researcher made appointment to meet with the respondents to individually get their consent and inform them that a research is being conducted for academic purposes and that their time is needed to fill in the

questionnaires. Then the questionnaires were distributed and later on picked from the respondents for analysis.

3.7.1 Before the administration of the questionnaires

1. An introduction letter was obtained from the College of Higher Degrees and Research for the researcher to solicit approval to conduct the study from respective respondents.
2. When approved, the researcher secured a list of the qualified respondents from the organization's authorities in charge and select through systematic random sampling from this list to arrive at the minimum sample size.
3. The respondents were explained to about the study and were requested to sign the Informed Consent Form.
4. Reproduce more than enough questionnaires for distribution.
5. Select research assistants who assisted in the data collection; brief and orient them in order to be consistent in administering the questionnaires.

3.7.2 During the administration of the questionnaires

- The respondents were requested to answer completely and not to leave any part of the questionnaires unanswered.
- The researcher and assistants emphasized retrieval of the questionnaires within five days from the date of distribution.
- On retrieval, all returned questionnaires were checked if all were answered.

3.7.3 After the administration of the questionnaires

The data gathered was collated, encoded into the computer and statistically treated using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

3.8 Data Analysis

The data was collected through a structured questionnaire and was coded and entered into the computer and statistically treated using the special package for social scientists (SPSS). Descriptive statistics was used to determine the distribution of respondents on personal information and the questions under each of the variable.

Pearson linear correlation coefficient was used to test the hypotheses between the variables. Frequencies and percentage distributions was used to analyze data on the respondent's profile; means were used on ethic conflicts and economic development in Kayunga district.

3.9 Ethical considerations

To ensure confidentiality of the information provided by the respondents and to ascertain the practice of ethics in this study, the following activities were implemented by the researcher:

The researcher got a transmittal letter from College of Higher Degrees and Research and Research which help me to introduced to the place where am going to carryout research. The questionnaire was anonymous and the responses in the questionnaire was confidential. Informal consent was got from the respondents to participate in the research.

3.10 Limitations of the study

The anticipated threats to validity in this study were as follows:

Some key informants did not reveal in detail the gaps and deficiencies that are affecting its success; this affected the content validity of the first research question.

The research environments are classified as uncontrolled settings where extraneous variables influenced on data gathered such as comments from other respondents,

anxiety, stress, motivation on the part of the respondents while on the process of answering the questionnaires.

Testing: the use of research assistants rendered inconsistencies such as differences in conditions and time when data was obtained from respondents. This was minimized by orienting and briefing the research assistants on the data gathering procedures.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the research as well as their analysis and interpretation. Where necessary, aids such as tables and figures are used to illuminate the meaning of the data presented. The findings presented in the tables and figures are further explained to equip the reader with clear picture and understanding of the phenomenon under analysis.

NOTE: The researcher targeted a total of 177 respondents, selecting four government officials, eight tribal and religious leaders, 18 NGO officials, 27 politicians and 120 community members. Nonetheless, not all the targeted sample responded; the actual sample responses were 130 out of the targeted 177, hence, a response rate of 73%.

II Characteristics of the sample population

Demographics can be defined as the physical characteristics of a population such as age, sex, marital status, education, geographical location and occupation. The socio-demographic characteristics measured in this research are sex, age, level of education, and experience.

Table 2: Showing the Demographic information of the respondents

Background information	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	75	57.7
	Female	55	42.3
	Total	130	100
Age	Below 20	5	4
	20-30	35	27
	30-40	43	33
	40-50	29	14
	50-60	16	12
	Above 60	2	1.5
	Total	130	100
Education level	Certificate	12	9
	Diploma	43	33
	Bachelor	49	38
	Masters	19	15
	PhD	7	5
	Total	130	100
Year is service	Less than a year	6	5
	1-2	36	32
	3-4	41	30
	5-6	42	32
	7 years and above	3	2
	Total	130	100

Source: Field data, 2016

The field data in Table 2 shows that out of 130 respondents chosen for the study, 75 of them were male (representing 57.7%) and 55 were female (representing 42.3%). The table shows a fair gender representation in the study, although females had a better representation as compared to the males.

Table 2 also indicates that the ages of the respondents were divided into six categories; (below 20, 20-30, 30-40, 40-50, 50-60 and above 60 years of age. Minority (5) of the respondents were below 20 years (representing 4%), 35 of the respondents were aged between 20-30 years (representing 27%). The majority of the respondents were aged between 30-40 years (representing 33%), 29 were aged between 40-50 years (representing 14%), 16 respondents were between 50-60 years (representing 12%) and the remaining 2 of the respondents were above 60 years of (representing 1.5%).

The respondents were asked of their academic qualifications. The results from the table 3 show that; 12 were certificate holders (representing 9%), 43 were diploma holders (representing 33%). The results further show that majority (49) of the respondents were bachelor's degree holders (representing 38%), 19 were Master's degree holders (representing 15%), 7 of the respondents were Ph.D. holders (representing 5%).

The information in Table 3 also considered working experience obtained by the respondents; that is to say the numbers of years worked in the present positions of the respondents. The results showed that 6 of the respondents had worked for less than a year (representing 5%), 36 of the respondents (representing 32%) have at least 1-2 years working experience, 41 (representing 30%) have worked for 3-4 years, 42 have worked for 5-6 and more years (representing 32%), and rest of the three respondents have worked for more than 7 years (representing 2%). These results show that a majority of the respondents have worked between 3-4 years and more years in the different fields in the district.

Table 3: The sources of ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district

This sub section targets objective 1 of the study. The independent variable in this study was the sources of ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district. The respondents were asked the. Responses were scaled ranging from 1-4; where 4=Very High, 3=High, 2=Low and 1=Very Low. The key to the rating is: Very Low (1.00-1.75), Low (1.76-2.50), High (2.51-3.25), Very high (3.26-4.00). The responses were analysed using the mean computed through the SPSS program, and are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Showing the sources of ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district

Reasons	Mean	Interpretn.
The prevalence of tribal conflicts are mainly due to political turmoil in Kayunga district	3.43	V. High
The tribal conflicts in Kayunga district are as a result of negligence from their ruling government	3.00	High
There has been ethnic political discontent leading to tribal conflicts in Kayunga district	3.47	V. High
Tribal conflict in Kayunga district is as a result cultural differences	3.41	V. High
Ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district are mainly driven by economic factors	3.04	High
The problem of a high population growth has been responsible for the cause of ethnic conflicts -	3.46	V. High
The lack of geographical boundaries leads to tribal conflicts in many third world countries	3.33	V. High
Ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district are associated to cultural diversity	3.71	V. High
Uneven distribution of natural resources leads to ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district	2.85	High
The differences in political ideologies has plunged Kayunga district into ethnic conflicts	3.55	V. High
The prevalence of ethnic rivalry in the neighboring districts mainly lead to ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district	3.43	V. High
The interferences of politicians in many community affairs is responsible for tribal conflicts in Kayunga district	3.55	V. High
Lack of equal representation in the central government is responsible for increased ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district	3.35	V. High
Average Mean	3.367	

Source: Field data, 2016

Table 3 represents research objective one which sought to establish the sources of ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district, and the findings revealed that the respondents mainly strongly agreed and agreed with the statements provide. For example, the respondents strongly agreed that: The prevalence of tribal conflicts are mainly due to political turmoil in Kayunga district (mean 3.43). This means that the respondents mainly attribute the source of tribal conflicts political unrest in the district. Kayunga district has been a hotbed of political discontentment in the recent past and this state of affairs still lingers in the district. The respondents also agreed that: The tribal conflicts in Kayunga district are as a result of negligence from their ruling government (mean 3.43). Many respondents still blame the cause of tribal conflicts in the district to the central government's failure to bring order to the district. This further means that the government has not done much to help bring the district into order. One respondent said: the causes of conflicts

Here in Kayunga, we have many tribes but this district is for us the *Banyala* but the government does not recognize us at all. We have very few representatives in the government. We don't know how they are selected. The few who in top government positions are not the Banyala, although they represent Kayunga district.

Furthermore, the responses show that there has been ethnic political discontent leading to tribal conflicts in Kayunga district (mean 3.47). This means that the residents of Kayunga district are torn part along political lines. One respondent said: why there were conflicts, he said,

I am supporter of Forum for Democratic Change (FDC) but these NRM people have constantly stolen our votes. Righty from presidency to local council elections, the NRM people have cheated us. We have to be represented because we always win. I don't like NRM leaders here at all.

The residents fall in between particular political parties. The same respondents also strongly agreed that: Tribal conflict in Kayunga district is as a result cultural differences (mean 3.41). This means that the different cultures in the district has always caused a rift among the residents as they struggle to adopt a particular culture. All the different cultures are struggling to get attention of the masses. So, this has instead worsened the problem of conflicts in the district.

In addition to the above, the study also revealed that: Ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district are mainly driven by economic factors (mean 3.00). This means that the conflict in the district come from the struggles of the scarce resources in the district. The people are many and the resources are not adequate, creating a futile ground for ethnic rivalry among the residents. It was also found that: The problem of a high population growth has been responsible for the cause of ethnic conflicts (mean 3.46). This means that pressure exerted by population in the district is high and the available resources like land cannot meet the demands of all the people. As a result, conflicts emerge. One local political leader said:

Kayunga has become a district of everyone. We have all people here. All tribes are here. People are coming from areas we don't know. Land has become a problem now. This is why President Museveni appointed Nantaba as his Junior Minister for lands. The simple reason was that there were many land wrangles here. There are cases of people claiming for land that they never owned. Even now, these issues are still there. When you go to court, land cases are the major issues in Kayunga.

The study also reveals that: The lack of geographical boundaries leads to tribal conflicts in many third world countries (mean 3.33). This means that the conflicts in Kayunga district is predominantly as a result of unclear demarcation of the district borders, causing conflicts with the neighboring districts of Mukono, Wakiso, Buikwe, among others.

Furthermore, the respondents also revealed that: Ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district are associated to cultural diversity (mean 3.71). This meant that there are many cultures in the district and they are all struggling for attention from the masses. Every tribe seems to impose its own culture upon the people who already have their own cultures. This, in the long run creates tension as to which culture should dominate. The respondents also agreed that the conflicts in Kayunga district is as a result of uneven distribution of natural resources leads to ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district (mean 2.85). This means that the respondents acknowledged the uneven distribution of scarce resources in the district. The available resources do not meet the demands of the local people in the district, hence causing conflicts.

It was also found that many respondents strongly agreed that: The differences in political ideologies has plunged Kayunga district into ethnic conflicts (mean 3.55). This means that the people of Kayunga district are divided along political lines. There is a lot of political ideologies in the district, leading to the discontentment among the residents. One religious leader said:

The problem of Kayunga is politics. People here have forgotten that they are people of Kayunga district. All they know is NRM, FDC, DP etc. everything is political. Even small parties are attended on political lines. Jobs given in political lines. Go to the district headquarters, it is all about political parties. We need to be in one party at one point or the other. But all these are wastage of time. In fact, if we didn't have these parties, we would be fine. This is worse than the issue of *Banyala-Baganda*. *Politicking is the cause of conflicts at the peak of the district Headquarter.*

Also, the respondents strongly agreed with the statement that: The prevalence of ethnic rivalry in the neighboring districts mainly lead to ethnic conflicts in Kayunga

district (mean 3.43). This strong agreement means that conflicts in the other districts are also responsible for the conflicts in Kayunga district. The responses also revealed that the interferences of politicians in many community affairs is responsible for tribal conflicts in Kayunga district (mean 3.55). This means that the different politicians of different political parties have done a lot breeding discontentment among the local people. These politicians tend to influence public opinion and these in many cases breed conflicts among the nationals. One local council chairman in Galilaya village said:

I have been a chairman for long in this village. I have never treated people in political lines. But, we have those in big political positions like LC V, Member of Parliament, and even LC III. These people have messed the district. Everything to them is politics. When you attend a district council meeting, you will not like anything. Argument is all about politics and political parties. Nothing is done at all.

Finally, the respondents strongly agreed that: Lack of equal representation in the central government is responsible for increased ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district (mean 3.35). This means that the conflicts in the district is as a result of poor government representation of the tribes in district and national leadership. This causes a rift among the different tribes in the district.

The representation for the last 20 years since Kayunga got a status of a district has been lying within the hands of two people from the same sub-county of Kangulumira, Mulondo and Dagada. This has influenced and motivated the interests of other potential persons to compete for the positions and this is the reason why political conflicts have increased since then.

Table 4: Showing the sources of economic development in Kayunga district

Indicators	Mean	Interpretn.
There are many local investors in Kayunnga district	2.00	
Many investments in the district are owned by foreign investors	3.15	Low
There are many employment opportunities in Kayunga district	1.44	Low
The governments controls much of the economic sectors in the district	2.51	
There are lots of socio-economic activities in the district	2.88	
The investment climate in Kayunga district is usually desirable and safe	2.03	
Income is equally distributed in Kayunga district	2.06	
Kayunga district is naturally endowed with natural resources	2.74	
There is developed infrastructure in the district	1.91	
There is lucrative trade conducted by the residents of Kayunga district	2.60	
There is enough skilled manpower in Kayunga district	3.20	
Average Mean	2.387	

Source: Field data, 2016

Objective two sought to establish the sources of economic development in Kayunga district. The findings thus revealed that the respondents disagreed and strongly disagreed with the findings. For example, the findings revealed that: there are many local investors in Kayunnga district (mean 2.00). This means that there are not many local investors in Kayunga district, sign that development among the local people is low. However, the same respondents agreed with the statement that: Many investments in the district are owned by foreign investors (mean 3.15). This means that much of the investments in the district are controlled by the foreigners and not the local residents. But, the respondents strongly disagreed with the statement that: There are many employment opportunities in Kayunga district (mean 1.44). This meant that many of the

residents of the district are not employed. This, therefore, comprises their major source of economic development. One community member said:

Nowadays, our children study and they sit with us at home. If they don't go to Kampala, they cannot get a job anywhere here. There are only petty jobs here like fishing which many youth have instead joined. No good jobs for the young people here.

The respondents also agreed with the statement that: The governments controls much of the economic sectors in the district (mean 2.25). This meant that the government controls much of the income source sources in the district, which range from jobs to key investments in the district. The respondents also agreed that there are there are lots of socio-economic activities in the district (mean 2.88). This means that indeed Kayunga district has many sources of economic activities. One local businesswoman said:

There are many avenues for development here. I started my own business eight years ago. I have seen progress. I am not well educated by my business is doing well. The only problem with some people her is despising jobs. Everyone wants to work in office yet there are many jobs that people can start for themselves and they succeed.

The respondents also found that the investment climate in Kayunga district is usually desirable and safe (mean 2.03). This means that the conditions for investment in Kayunga district is not good due to threats of conflicts in the district. The respondents, further, disagreed with the statement that: Income is equally distributed in Kayunga district (mean 2.06). This implies that income is not equally distributed among the residents of Kayunga district. However, the same respondents also revealed that: Kayunga district is naturally endowed with natural resources (mean 2.74). This means that although the district is naturally endowed

with natural resources, this does not change anything in the development of many residents. This is because of lack of direct control of such resources by the locals.

Furthermore, the respondents also disagreed with the statement that: There is developed infrastructure in the district (mean 1.91). This means that the infrastructure in Kayunga district is not fully developed and this undermines development in the district. The respondents later agreed with the statement that: There is lucrative trade conducted by the residents of Kayunga district (mean 2.60), implying that there is lucrative trade in the district. People conduct trade in different goods and services. Finally, the respondents agreed that there is enough skilled manpower in Kayunga district (mean 3.20). This means that the district has skilled human resource which when used properly can translate into a huge economic reward.

4.1 Relationship between the sources of ethnic conflicts and sources of economic development in Kayunga district

Research objective three sought to establish if there is a significant relationship between relationship between the sources of ethnic conflicts and sources of economic development in Kayunga district. It was hypothesized that the two variables are not significantly correlated. To test the hypothesis, Pearson's Linear Coefficient was used. Summary of r-value of those variables are presented in table 5.

Table 5: Showing the Pearson's Linear Correlation between the sources of ethnic conflicts and sources of economic development in Kayunga district

Variables correlated	r-value	Sig	Interpretation	Decision on Ho
SOURCES OF ETHNIC CONFLICTS Vs SOURCES OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT	.0150	.631	Not significant	Accepted

Source: Primary data 2016

Table 5 above shows the Pearson's Linear Correlation Coefficient for the sources of ethnic conflicts and sources of economic development in Kayunga district and it was revealed that; there is a no significant relationship between the sources of ethnic conflicts and sources of economic development in Kayunga district. For example, sources of ethnic conflicts is not significantly correlated with the sources of economic development ($r=0.0150$, $\text{sig}=0.631$). Basing on these results, since the sig. value (0.631) was more than 0.05 which is the minimum required level of significance in social sciences, the hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between the sources of ethnic conflicts and sources of economic development in Kayunga district is **accepted**.

Table 6: Showing the effects of ethnic conflicts on economic development in Kayunga district

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Low investments	26	20.0	20.0
	Loss of lives	20	15.4	35.4
	Destruction of businesses	34	26.2	61.5
	Increased tension	20	15.4	76.9
	Destruction of infrastructure	30	23.1	100.0
	Total	130	100.0	100.0

Source: Field data, 2016

Table 6 shows the effects of ethnic conflicts on economic development in Kayunga district and the findings revealed that destruction of businesses, loss of lives, low investments, increased tension, and destruction of infrastructure were the major effects of ethnic conflicts on economic development. For example, the study revealed that destruction of businesses was the most notable effect of ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district with 26.2%. Destruction of infrastructure is also associated with ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district with 23.1%, low investments with 20.0%, and loss of lives with another 20.0%.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter dealt with the findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

5.1 Findings

The study included 57.7% men and 42.3 women, which showed a fair gender representation in the study, although females had a better representation as compared to the males. The education level of the respondents were also analysed. The study revealed that four precedent of the respondents were below 20 years, 27% of the respondents were aged between 20-30 years. The majority (33%) of the respondents were aged between 30-40 years, 14% were aged between 40-50 years, 12% of the respondents were between 50-60 years, and 1.5% of the respondents were above 60 years of age.

The results of the findings also show that nine percent of the respondents were certificate holders, 33% were diploma holders, 38% of the respondents were bachelor's degree holders, 15% were Master's degree holders, and five percent were Ph.D. holders.

Considering the working experience of the respondents, the findings show that five percent of the respondents had worked for less than a year, 32% of the respondents have at least 1-2 years working experience, 30% have worked for 3-4 years, 32% have worked for 5-6 and more years, and two percent have worked for more than 7 years (representing 2%). These results show that a majority of the respondents have worked between 3-4 years and more years in the different fields in the district.

The sources of ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district

The findings revealed that the respondents mainly strongly agreed and agreed with the statements provide. For example, the respondents strongly agreed that: The prevalence of tribal conflicts are mainly due to political turmoil in Kayunga district, meaning that respondents mainly attributed the source of tribal conflicts political unrest in the district. Kayunga district has been a hotbed of political discontentment in the recent past and this state of affairs still lingers in the district. The respondents also strongly agreed that the tribal conflicts in Kayunga district are as a result of negligence from their ruling government, meaning that many respondents still blame the cause of tribal conflicts in the district to the central government's failure to bring order to the district.

The findings also showed that there has been ethnic political discontent leading to tribal conflicts in Kayunga district, meaning that the residents of Kayunga district are torn part along political lines. The findings herein is in relation to Hegre et. al. (1999) study that found that that ethnic conflict is as the result of political grievance and opportunity for violence. Hegre et. al. (1999) further stated that the structures and processes that appear to turn ethnic intolerance into unbridled violence are highly complex. A list of causal factors might include 'historical forces', economic tensions, 'bad' governance, perceived threats to cultural identity and (in ways that are not adequately understood) formal, non-formal and informal educational processes.

The also strongly agreed that tribal conflict in Kayunga district is as a result cultural differences, meaning that the different cultures in the district has always caused a rift among the residents as they struggle to adopt a particular culture. All the different cultures are struggling to get attention of the masses. So, this has instead worsened the problem of conflicts in the district.

Furthermore, the findings revealed ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district are mainly driven by economic factors, meaning that the conflict in the district come from the struggles of the scarce resources in the district. This finding is thus supported by the prior work of Adedeji (1999) who found that competition for economic resources is an important factor in conflict, but is not the only one. Firstly, he argues that "competition for resources typically lies at the heart of conflict. This accounts for the intensity of the struggle for political power in many an African country" (Adedeji 1999, 10).

It was also found that the problem of a high population growth has been responsible for the cause of ethnic conflicts, implying that pressure exerted by population in the district is high and the available resources like land cannot meet the demands of all the people. The study also reveals that the lack of geographical boundaries leads to tribal conflicts in many third world countries, meaning that conflicts in Kayunga district are predominantly a result unclear demarcation of the district borders, causing conflicts with the neighboring districts of Mukono, Wakiso, Buikwe, among others.

The study also found that ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district are associated to cultural diversity, meaning that there are many cultures in the district and they are all struggling for attention from the masses. The respondents also agreed that the conflicts in Kayunga district is as a result of uneven distribution of natural resources leads to ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district, implying that the respondents acknowledged the uneven distribution of scarce resources in the district. This finding is related to earlier research work. For example, earlier researchers found that indeed, there is some evidence on the role of inequality in underpinning some of the causal relationships at play. Citing work by Richard

Auty, Indra de Soysa, Terry Lynn Karl, James Fearon, Michael Ross, and Jakob Svensson, the Center on International Cooperation (CIC) at New York University concludes that "motives [for participating in violence] can also be economic: if marginal groups are blocked ... incentives exist to challenge the existing order – amplified when the state has significant natural resources" (Jones & Elgin-Cossart, 2011, p.6).

The differences in political ideologies was found to have plunged Kayunga district into ethnic conflicts, meaning that the people of Kayunga district are divided along political lines. The respondents also strongly agreed with the statement that the prevalence of ethnic rivalry in the neighboring districts mainly lead to ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district, meaning that conflicts in the other districts are also responsible for the conflicts in Kayunga district.

The responses also revealed that the interferences of politicians in many community affairs is responsible for tribal conflicts in the third world countries, implying that the different politicians of different political parties have done a lot breeding discontentment among the local people. Lack of equal representation in the central government was also found to be responsible for increased ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district, meaning that the conflicts in the district is as a result of poor government representation of the tribes in district and national leadership.

The above finding is in agreement with the recent studies that have found strong evidence that politically disadvantaged ethnic groups are more likely to rebel (Cederman et al. 2010; Buhaug et al. 2013; Cederman et al. 2011). Engaging in rebellion is implicitly understood as a group's attempt to forcefully end a continuous state of deprivation. This is further supported by the earlier works of Cederman et al. (2010: 100) who found that in the less extreme version of

political deprivation, ethnic groups are powerless and “elite representatives hold no political power at either the national or the regional level without being explicitly discriminated against” (Cederman et al. 2010: 100). In both instances, outright discrimination and the more subtle denial of representation can cause frustration among ethnic groups, which can result in protest and even violent uprising.

Other studies also support the findings. For example, the study of Lars-Erik Cederman and colleagues analyzed 124 ethnic conflicts occurring between 1946 and 2005. They test hypotheses connecting ethnic groups’ access to power and conflict. Their results show that “the frequency of conflict increases roughly with the degree of exclusion. Excluded groups are much more likely to experience a rebellion in their name (0.66 percent) compared with groups in power (0.23 percent)” (Cederman et.al, 2010). They consider “excluded groups” and income levels and find that “excluded groups across all income levels are three times more likely to initiate conflict against the state as compared with included groups that enjoy representation at the center” (Cederman et.al, 2010). Andreas Wimmer, Cederman and Brian Min have demonstrated that countries in which political exclusion between groups is high, the risk of conflict increases (Wimmer, Cederman & Min, 2009).

The sources of economic development in Kayunga district

The findings revealed that there are not many local investors in Kayunga district, meaning that there are not many local investors in Kayunga district, a sign that development among the local people is low. But, was later found that many investments in the district are owned by foreign investors, meaning that much of the investments in the district are controlled by the foreigners and not the local residents. The study also found that there are many employment opportunities in

Kayunga district, meaning that many of the residents of the district are not employed.

The study also found that the governments controls much of the economic sectors in the district. The findings further revealed that there are many socio-economic activities in the district meaning that indeed Kayunga district has many sources of economic activities. The study also found that the investment climate in Kayunga district is usually not desirable and unsafe for investment. This means that the conditions for investment in Kayunga district is not good due to threats of conflicts in the district. The study also revealed that income is not equally distributed in Kayunga district. However, the study revealed that Kayunga district is naturally endowed with natural resources, meaning that although the district is naturally endowed with natural resources, this does not change anything in the development of many residents.

Furthermore, the study also revealed that there is developed infrastructure in the district, meaning that the infrastructure in Kayunga district is not fully developed and this undermines development in the district. This finding is supported by the prior work of Bartik (1995) who found that economic growth depends upon how a region puts its productive capacity to use. If public infrastructure or private resources are left idle, an area misses out on the economic potential of those sunken investments (Bartik, 1995).

The study later found that there is lucrative trade conducted by the residents of Kayunga district, implying that there is lucrative trade in the district. People conduct trade in different goods and services. The study finally also found that there is enough skilled manpower in Kayunga district, meaning that the district has skilled

human resource which when used properly can translate into a huge economic reward.

Relationship between the sources of ethnic conflicts and sources of economic development in Kayunga district

The study revealed that there is no significant relationship between the sources of ethnic conflicts and sources of economic development in Kayunga district. For example, sources of ethnic conflicts is not significantly correlated with the sources of economic development ($r=0.0150$, $\text{sig}=0.631$). Basing on these results, since the sig. value (0.631) was more than 0.05 which is the minimum required level of significance in social sciences, the hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between the sources of ethnic conflicts and sources of economic development in Kayunga district is accepted.

The effects of ethnic conflicts on economic development in Kayunga district

On the effects of ethnic conflicts on economic development in Kayunga district, the findings revealed that destruction of businesses, loss of lives, low investments, increased tension, and destruction of infrastructure were the major effects of ethnic conflicts on economic development. For example, the study revealed that destruction of businesses was the most notable effect of ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district with 26.2%. Destruction of infrastructure is also associated with ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district with 23.1%, low investments with 20.0%, and loss of lives with another 20.0%. These findings are supported by earlier research of Bush (1998) who found that since tribal war increases the rate of depreciation and reduces investment, growth in the capital stock is stunted. Civil war, therefore, reduces both the level of the capital stock and its rate of growth (Bush, 1998). This suggests that a major way in which civil war affects the economy is

through dramatic reductions in domestic investment. Ethnic conflicts have persistent devastating effects on economic development (DeRouen and Bercovitch 2008, Collier and Hoeffler 2004, Collier, Hoeffler and Rohner 2009, Quinn, Mason and Gurses 2007, and Walter 2004). Their legacy involves more than physical and human capital destruction. The aftermaths of civil conflicts are often plagued by the breakdown of civic and economic cooperation within society.

5.2 Conclusions

Based on the study findings presented, the following conclusions were drawn.

The sources of ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district

The study concluded that: The prevalence of tribal conflicts are mainly due to political turmoil in Kayunga district, Kayunga district has been a hotbed of political discontentment in the recent past and this state of affairs still lingers in the district. Furthermore, the study concluded that that there has been ethnic political discontent leading to tribal conflicts in Kayunga district, meaning that the residents of Kayunga district are torn part along political lines. Tribal conflict in Kayunga district was also found to be a result of cultural differences. More conclusion is also made on grounds that a high population growth has been responsible for the cause of ethnic conflicts, implying that pressure exerted by population in the district is high and the available resources like land cannot meet the demands of all the people. Finally, study concluded that differences in political ideologies was found to have plunged Kayunga district into ethnic conflicts.

The sources of economic development in Kayunga district

The study concluded that there are not many local investors in Kayunnga district, meaning that there are not many local investors in Kayunga district, the study also found that the investment climate in Kayunga district is usually not desirable and unsafe for investment, that there is no developed infrastructure in the district, meaning that the infrastructure in Kayunga district is not fully developed and this

undermines development in the district, and that district has skilled human resource but very idle and untapped.

Relationship between the sources of ethnic conflicts and sources of economic development in Kayunga district

The study revealed that there is no significant relationship between the sources of ethnic conflicts and sources of economic development in Kayunga district. Basing on these results, the study concluded that there is no significant relationship between the sources of ethnic conflicts and sources of economic development in Kayunga district.

The effects of ethnic conflicts on economic development in Kayunga district

On the effects of ethnic conflicts on economic development in Kayunga district, the study concluded that destruction of businesses, loss of lives, low investments, increased tension, and destruction of infrastructure were the major effects of ethnic conflicts on economic development are the major effects of ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district.

5.3 Recommendations

The study recommends the following:

The government and other concerned authorities should look for quick and possible ways of bringing the district into order. This should be done in sensitizing the population against hostilities that arise from political tensions and mainly land wrangles.

Furthermore, the study recommends that the different sources of economic development in Kayunga district be developed and protected. Infrastructure should be developed and the political climate be normalized so as to attract more

investors in the district. The government should equally do more in easing the tensions in the district and also ensuring that the local residents access employment based on merit and not political lines.

The politicians in the district should be advised to look for possible ways of uniting people instead of inciting violence. This would help save the district from turmoil that would arise from cheap politics of division in the district.

The government and the district staff should ensure that more foreign investors are attracted in the district. This should be done through enabling environment for sustainable peace.

5.4 Areas for further research

Due to limited scope of the study, the research suggests that further research be done on:

- (i) Political differences and economic development in Kayunga district
- (ii) Population pressure and household development in Kayunga district
- (iii) Investment climate and the economic development in Kayunga district

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APPENDIX 1 A

TRANSMITTAL LETTER

COLLEGE OF HIGHER DEGREES AND RESEARCH



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COLLEGE OF HIGHER DEGREES AND RESEARCH

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES

30, July, 2015

INTRODUCTION LETTER FOR KAMARA BONIFACE OSAMAI REGISTRATION NUMBER MCR/36695/121/DU TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN YOUR ORGANIZATION

The above mentioned candidate is a student of Kampala international University pursuing a Masters' in Conflict Resolution and Peace Building.

He is currently conducting a field research for his dissertation titled "**Ethnic Conflict and Economic Development in Kayunga District, Uganda**".

Your organization has been identified as valuable source of information pertaining to his research Project. The purpose of this letter then is to request you to avail him with pertinent information he may need.

Any information shared with him will be used for academic purposes only and shall be kept with utmost confidentiality.

Any assistance rendered to him will be highly appreciated.

Yours truly

Dr. ES Kasenene
Deputy Principal, CHDR.

APPENDIX 1B

TRANSMITTAL LETTER FOR THE RESPONDENTS

Dear Sir/ Madam,
Greetings!

I am a master's degree student of Conflict Resolution and Peace building at Kampala International University. My study is entitled, "**Ethnic Conflict and Economic Development in Kayunga district**". Within this context, may I request you to participate in this study by answering the questionnaire. Kindly do not leave any option unanswered. Any data you will provide shall be for academic purposes only and no information of such kind shall be disclosed to others.

May I retrieve the questionnaire within five days (5)?
Thank you very much in advance.

Yours faithfully,

Mr. Kamara Boniface Osamai

APPENDIX II
INFORMED CONSENT

I am giving my consent to be part of the research study of Mr. Kamara Boniface Osamai that will focus on Ethnic Conflict and Economic Development of Kayunga district”.

I shall be assured of privacy, anonymity and confidentiality and that I will be given the option to refuse participation and right to withdraw my participation anytime.

I have been informed that the research is voluntary and that the results will be given to me if I ask for it.

Initials:_____

Date_____

APPENDIX B

RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Date Received by Respondent: _____

PART A: RESPONDENT'S PROFILE

(Please Tick): Age: _____ Sex: _____

Highest Educational Qualifications _____

Number of years in service _____

.....

PART B: QUESTIONNAIRE TO DETERMINE THE LEVEL TRIBAL CONFLICT

Direction: Please respond to each item by using the scoring guide below. Kindly tick and write your best choice on the space before or after each item. Be honest about your options as there are no right or wrong answers.

DIRECTION: Please respond to each item using the scoring guide below. Kindly write your best choice on the space before each item. Be honest about your option.

Rating	Response Mode	Description	Interpretation
(4)	Strongly agree	you agree with no doubt at all	V.Good
(3)	Agree	you agree with some doubt	Good
(2)	Disagree	you disagree with some doubt	Fair
(1)	Strongly disagree	you disagree with no doubt at all	Poor

The sources of ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district

No.	Indicator	SA (4)	A (3)	D (2)	SD (1)
	Sources of ethnic conflicts				
1	The prevalence of tribal conflicts are mainly due to political turmoil in Kayunga district				
	The tribal conflicts in Kayunga district are as a result of negligence from their ruling government				
	There has been ethnic political discontent leading to tribal conflicts in Kayunga district				
	Tribal conflict in Kayunga district is as a result cultural differences				
	Ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district are mainly driven by economic factors				
	Many ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district are associated with bloodshed and destruction of properties				
	The problem of a high population growth has been responsible for the cause of ethnic conflicts				
	The lack of geographical boundaries leads to tribal conflicts in many third world countries				
	Ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district are associated to cultural diversity				
	Uneven distribution of natural resources leads to ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district				
	The differences in political ideologies has plunged Kayunga district into ethnic conflicts				
	The prevalence of ethnic rivalry in the neighboring districts mainly lead to ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district				
	The interferences of politicians in many community affairs is responsible for tribal conflicts in the third world countries				
	Lack of equal representation in the central government is responsible for increased ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district				

PART B: QUESTIONNAIRE TO THE SOURCES OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Direction: Please respond to each item by using the scoring guide below. Kindly tick and write your best choice on the space before or after each item. Be honest about your options as there are no right or wrong answers.

Sources of economic development in Kayunga district	SA (4)	A (3)	D (2)	DA (1)
Indicators				
There are many local investors in Kayunga district				
Many investments in the district are owned by foreign investors				
There are many employment opportunities in Kayunga district				
The governments controls much of the economic sectors in the district				
There are lots of socio-economic activities in the district				
The investment climate in Kayunga district is usually desirable and safe				
Income is equally distributed in Kayunga district				
Kayunga district is naturally endowed with natural resources				
There is developed infrastructure in the district				
There is lucrative trade conducted by the residents of Kayunga district				
There is enough skilled manpower in Kayunga district				

Section C

1. What are the sources of ethnic conflicts in Kayunga District?

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APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. Why do you think there is ethnic conflict in Kayunga district?
2. What effect does ethnic conflict have on economic development?
3. Do you think the government has a hand in the ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district? Give reasons for your answer.
4. Do you think the conflicts in Kayunga district are ethnic?
5. What interventions are needed by the government to solve ethnic conflicts?
6. Why do you think the conflict in the district are prevailing?
7. Do you think the local politicians are fueling the conflicts in Kayunga district?
8. What threat does ethnic conflicts pose on economic development?
9. Do you think the level of economic development has a link to ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district?
10. What would be role of international community (organizations) on averting ethnic conflicts in Kayunga district?

APPENDIX D

TIME FRAME

Activity	Sep	Sep	Oct	Oct	Nov	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Feb	May	Jun
1. Conceptual Phase												
Chapter 1												
2. Design & Planning Phase												
Chapter 2-3												
3. Thesis Proposal												
4. Empirical Phase												
Data Collection												
5. Analytic Phase												
Chapter 4-5												
7. Dissemination Phase												
Viva Voce												
8. Revision												
9. Final Book Bound Copy												
10. Clearance												
11. Graduation												

APPENDIX E
PROPOSED BUDGET

Particular	Quantity	Amount
Stationary	Reams	90,000/=
	Cartridges and Ink	100,000/=
	Binding materials 10	200,000/=
Research Assistants	2 @ 250,000	500,000/=
Transport costs		800,000/=
Data Analysis		500,000/=
Up keep		400,000/=
Miscellaneous		400,000/=
	Total	3,500,000