



STATE OF UGANDA POPULATION REPORT 2006



*Linking Population,
Energy and
Environment: A
critical path way to
poverty eradication
and sustainable
development*

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STATE OF UGANDA POPULATION REPORT 2006

Linking Population, Energy and Environment: a critical path way to poverty eradication and sustainable development

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Foreword

Uganda has made remarkable socio-economic progress over the last 20 years. This progress is reflected in a number of sectors but especially in macro-economic stability, liberalized economy, economic growth and rehabilitation of social services as well as infrastructure. A comprehensive and elaborate action plan for poverty reduction has been put in place - the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP).

Every year, the Population Secretariat, in its State of Uganda's Population Report, publishes key population concerns that need to be attended to in Uganda's quest to improve the quality of life of its people. The Report elaborates key challenges as well as opportunities, at various levels. The Report further highlights the required actions that need to be taken in order to catalyse and maximize on the already achieved gains.

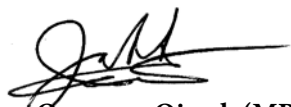
In 1986, Uganda's population stood at 14 million people. This has since doubled, in the last 20 years, to become 28.2 million, in mid-2006. At the current population growth rate of 3.2% per annum, Uganda is slated to double yet again in 2025 to a population of 55 million people. Such a rapidly growing population poses both opportunities and challenges. The opportunity of a surge in a cohort of young people, aged 15-64 years, which is the real labourforce for any nation, can be an engine for economic growth if they are healthy, educated, skilled and have employment opportunities. This group would then save, invest and indeed make a very substantial contribution to a country's socio-economic development.

However, the challenge we currently have in Uganda is to put in place, concrete and comprehensive plans with corresponding solid, well focused and targeted investments in our people to ensure their health, education, skills and jobs. If we do not achieve this, the current population growth rate and dependency ratio will turn into a demographic "burden", instead of a demographic "bonus".

During the current decade (2000-2010), Uganda is witnessing an event of historical magnitude. Uganda will, around the years 2008-2009, reach its highest population growth rate, which will, thereafter, decline. It is, therefore, important and fitting that in the years to come, we seriously reflect on what this means for Uganda in terms of infrastructure needs for social services, housing, energy, water and environmental protection, among others, if we are to safeguard posterity. I am glad that this Report tackles these crucial development concerns.

On behalf of Government, I wish to congratulate the Population Secretariat, Development Partners and all the stakeholders that contributed to the development of this important Report. I am hopeful that this Report is another reminder and will go a long way in informing all our people on the current population trends as well as the pertinent issues that require their attention.

I appeal to everyone of us to rise up to the challenge and make our rapid population growth into a genuine "bonus" for social and economic transformation in the years and decades to come.



Hon. Omwony Ojwok (MP)

Minister of State for Finance, Planning & Economic Development (Planning)

Acknowledgements

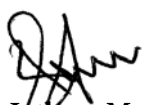
The Population Secretariat (POPSEC), together with the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), have the pleasure of presenting the State of Uganda Population Report (SUPRE), 2006. This Report shows the current population trends and concerns arising as a result of the high population growth rate, the challenges and opportunities among there from. We recognize the valuable inputs by various stakeholders in the Country Population Programme who participated in the development of the Report. Population Secretariat wishes to recognize the efforts of the various authors of the chapters in this Report. The authors included; Dr. Angela Akol, Ms. Agnes Kisembo, Mr. Tiondi Andrew, and Dr. Betty Kyaddondo, all from Population Secretariat; Mr. Ronald Kaggwa of National Environment Management Authority; Mr. Vincent Senono of Uganda Bureau of Statistics; Reverend Duncan Mugume of Kampala Diocese; Mr. Bharam Namanya of UNDP; and Ms. Catherine Kanabahita of Netherlands Embassy. Special thanks go to Mr. Gilbert Sendugwa for providing editorial advice for this report.

In a special way we acknowledge the inputs of various line ministries, stakeholders and organizations that participated in preparatory meetings for the development and production of this Report. These include: Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development; Uganda Bureau of Statistics; Makerere Institute of Statistics and Applied Economics; Family Planning Association of Uganda; Muslim Supreme Council; Uganda Catholic Secretariat; Church of Uganda; Uganda Orthodox Church; PEARL project; FLEP/RH; CFAIR, Uganda Private Midwives Association; HAG; The AIDS Support Organization (TASO); UNFPA; UNDP; International Labour Organisation and all the other organizations that contributed in one way or another to the development of this Report.

We are particularly grateful to UNFPA for their continued support to the Country Population programme, and for having financed all the processes in the production of this Report. UNFPA has remained a key, steadfast development partner in an endeavor to improve the quality of Uganda's population.

On behalf of the population Secretariat, I wish to express our sincere appreciation for the valuable quality and time and effort that has been invested in writing this Report. We hope this Report will galvanize greater attention to problems affecting the population of Uganda and contribute to the debate on the way forward. The work of monitoring and Evaluation Department comprised of Mr. Paddy Nahabwe (Head), Ms. Agnes Kisembo, Ms. Hope Mwesigye Nzeire, Ms. Nambatya Diana, Ms. Christine Nakibuuka and Mr. Moses Kalyango in developing this Report deserve special mention, for the job well done.

Thank you all for your tremendous contribution



Dr. Jotham Musinguzi

Director, Population Secretariat

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

ABC:	Abstinence, Be faithful and Condom use
ACP	AIDS Control Project
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
BAT:	British American Tobacco
DHS:	Demographic Health Survey
DNEP:	Draft National Employment Policy
EFA:	Education for All
ERA:	Electricity Regulatory Authority
FHH:	Female Headed Households
GHGs:	Green House Gases
HEP:	Hydro Electric Power
HIV:	Human Immuno-deficiency virus
ICPD:	International Conference on Population and Development
IDPs:	Internally Displaced Persons
IEC:	Information Education and Communication
ISCO:	International Standard Classification of Occupation
ISIC:	International Standard Industrial Classification
MDG:	Millennium Development Goal
MDGs:	Millennium Development Goals
MEMD:	Ministry of Energy and Mineral Development
MGLSD:	Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development
MMR:	Maternal Mortality Ratio
MOEDS:	Ministry of Education and Sports
MoFPED:	Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development
MOH:	Ministry of Health
MSE:	Medium and Small Enterprise
MW:	Mega watts
NEMA:	National Environment Management Authority
NFA:	National Forestry Authority
NGO:	Non Government Organisation
NOTU:	National Organisation of Trade Unions
PEAP:	Poverty Eradication Action Plan

PID:	Pelvic Inflammatory Disease
PMTCT:	Prevention of mother- to- child transmission
PoA:	Plan of Action
POPSEC:	Population Secretariat
STI:	Sexually transmitted infections
TFR:	Total Fertility Rate
TOE:	Tonnes of Oil Equivalent
UAC:	Uganda AIDS Commission
UBOS:	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UBVT:	Universal Business and Vocational Training
UDHS:	Uganda Demographic and Health Survey
UEDCL:	Uganda Electricity Distribution Company Limited
UETCL:	Uganda Electricity Transmission Company Limited
UHSBS	Uganda HIV sero- behavioural survey
UJAS:	Uganda Joint Assistance Strategy
UMA:	Uganda Manufactures Association
UNAIDS:	United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNDP:	United Nations Development Programme
UNGASS:	United Nations General Assembly Special Session
UNHS:	Uganda National Household Survey
UPE:	Universal Primary Education
UPPAP:	Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process
UPPET:	Universal Post Primary Education and Training
USE:	Universal Secondary Education
VAT:	Value Added Tax
VCT:	Voluntary Counselling and Testing
WFP:	World Food Programme
WHO:	World Health Organisation



CHAPTER 1

POPULATION GROWTH IN UGANDA: AN OPPORTUNITY OR BURDEN

1.0 Introduction

Public policy in Uganda has long been concerned with how population growth can be managed to achieve sustained growth of national income and ensure a fair sharing of the fruits of prosperity. In developing societies where technology advances very slowly, rapid population growth usually means slower income growth. In this setting any gain in income is easily eroded by population growth, resulting in small saving, big families and massive poverty. To overcome these undesirable outcomes, the society's human capital in terms of knowledge and skills and its material capital must increase and technology must advance. Over time, as technology progress quickens and economies modernize, productivity improves sufficiently to over take population growth, ushering in steady growth in real per capita income. In a transition from the stage of unstable growth of per capita income to one marked by sustained per capita income growth, demographic factors continue to play important roles. Households must save and enable children to acquire knowledge and skills to meet the requirements of technological advancement. The Government on the other hand must see to it that society's overhead capital is adequate and properly maintained. Both private and public investments are at risk if the population grows rapidly during the transition. Uganda is trying to transform itself from a largely agricultural economy into a newly industrialized one and hence, must pay close attention to population management.

This chapter draws attention to some demographic and socio-economic trends over the past two decades. It identifies the risk and opportunities that population growth trends pose to the development goal of growth

with equity. It also discusses the demographic dividend as a window of opportunity for development and it outlines some of the policy framework that Uganda should put in place for population management consistent with sustained and broad-based growth.

1.2.0 Demographic Trends

1.2.1 Population Growth Situation

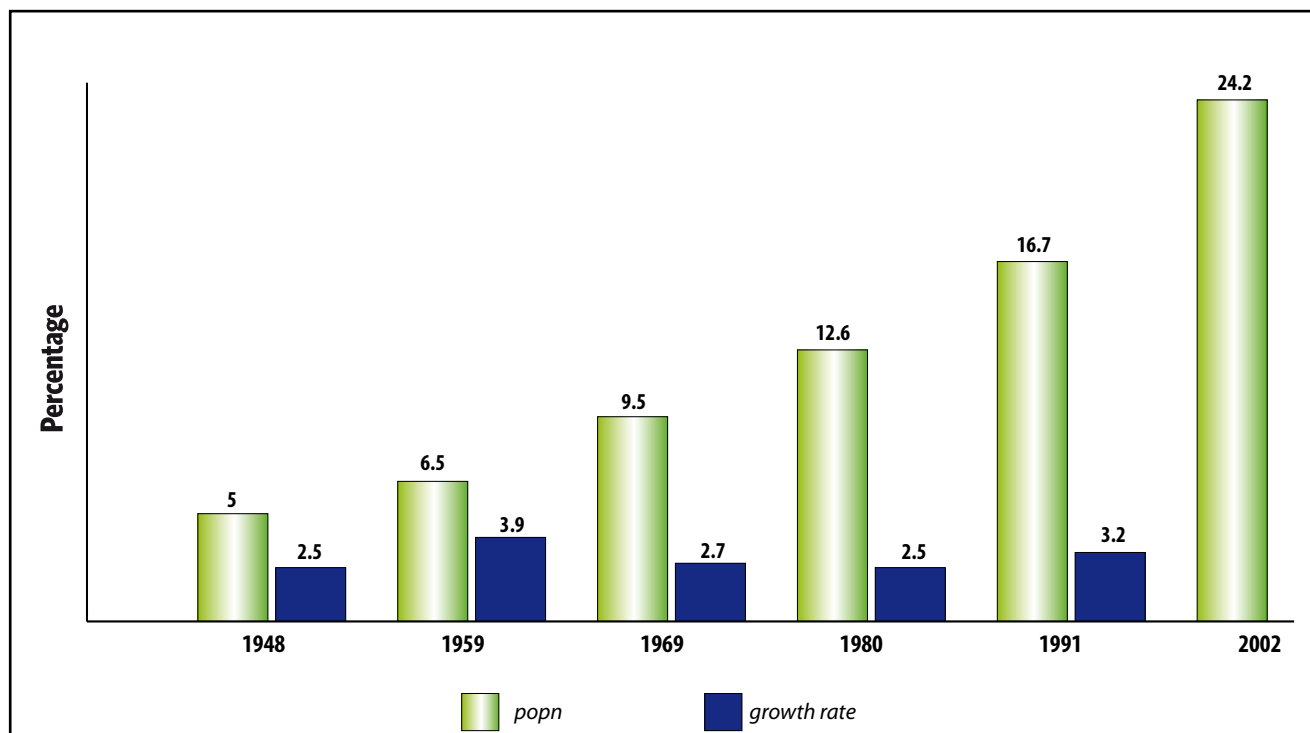
The findings of the 2002 Population and Housing Census indicated that Uganda’s population growth rate between two censuses was increasing by about 850,000 people per year (3.2%) over the period 1991-2002 (see Table 1.0 and Figure 1). This growth rate represents a fast increase since 1980. At this high growth rate, the population is expected to double in about 22 years from the 2006 projected population of 27.4 million (UBOS, 2002).

Table 1.1: Population Size & Intercensal Growth Rates - 1948 - 2002

Intercensal Period (Year)	Population Size (mill)	Intercensal Period	Population Growth Rate (%)
1948	4.8	1948 - 1959	2.5
1959	6.5	1959 - 1969	3.9
1969	9.5	1969 - 1980	2.7
1980	12.6	1980 - 1991	2.5
1991	16.7	1991 - 2002	3.2
2002	24.2	2002 -	-

Source: 2002 Population & Housing Census Report, UBOS

Figure 1.1: Uganda’s Population & Intercensal Growth Trends, 1948-2002



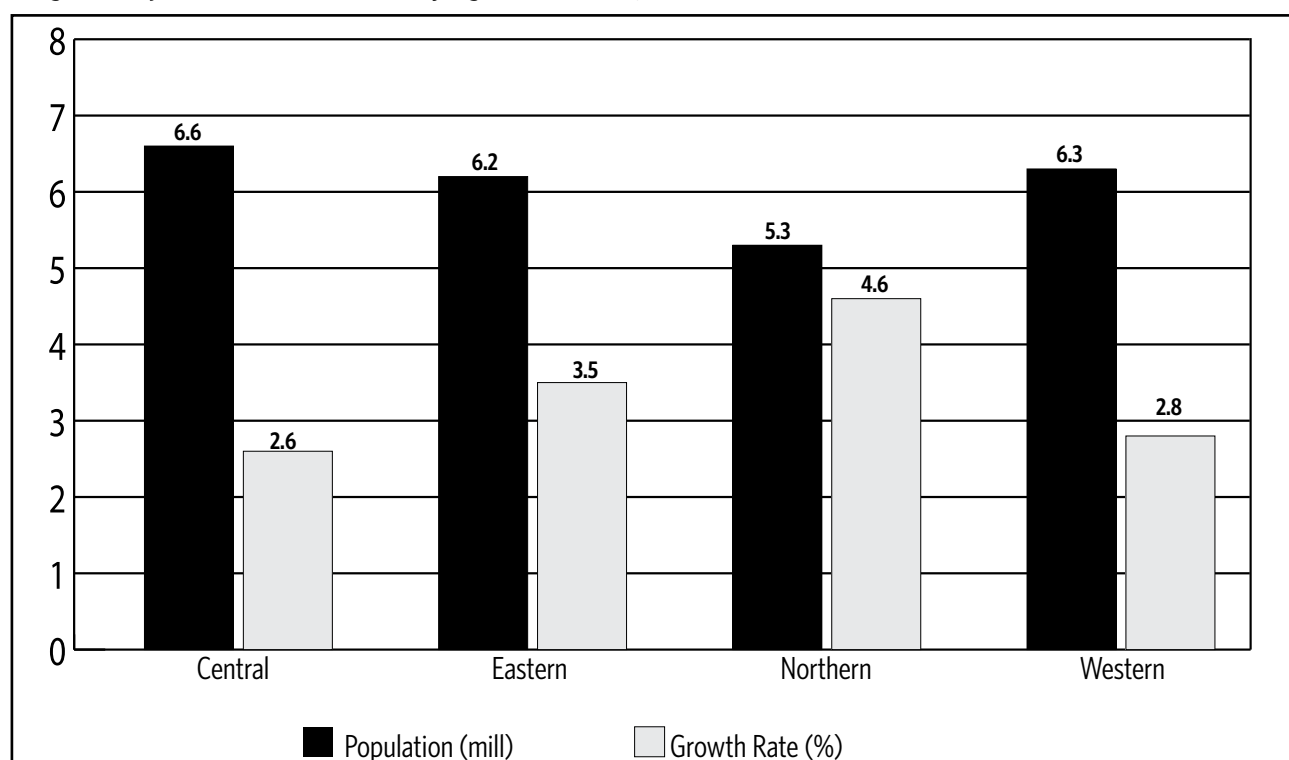
The course of economic development generally varies from region to region hence migration flows from one region to another are expected. Some regions become net gainers of migrants from other regions, while others become net losers. For instance, for the period 1991-2002, the Central region experienced positive net in-migration flows and those with negative in-migration were mainly from the Western region. The trend is likely to remain so given the growing rate of urbanisation in the central region. Table 1.2 and Figure 2 shows the regions that exhibited an annual population growth rate greater than the national average such as Northern and Eastern regions.

Table 1.2: Population Size and Growth Rates by Region, 2002

Region	Population (million)	Population Growth Rate (%)
1. Central	6.6	2.6
2. Eastern	6.2	3.5
3. Northern	5.3	4.6
4. Western	6.3	2.8
Uganda	24.2	3.2

Source: 2002 Population & Housing Census Report, UBOS

Figure 1.2: Population Size and Growth Rate by Regional Distribution, 2002



As migration between regions proceeds, and depending on the patterns of migration, some parts of the country become urbanized and emerge as potential growth centres. The 2002 Census indicated that the age group 15-24, provided the greatest share of internal migrants. Migration of young people has implications on the country's capacity to generate sufficient employment and consequences to areas of origin. There are already signs that unemployment is high in the urban areas while slums are increasing and expanding in urban areas.

1.2.2 Population Composition

Over the past two decades, the youth continued forming the broad base of the population. In 1969 over 46.2% of the population belonged to the age group of less than 15 years. In 1991 this age group's share of the total population increased to over 47.3% and further up to 49.3% in 2002. On the other hand the share of

the productive and reproductive age group, 15 – 64, decreased from 50% in 1969 to 47.7% in 2002, implying that the dependency ratio is on the increase. Table 1.3 and Figure 3 show the population distribution and composition by age group over the last three censuses.

Table 1.3: Percent Population Distribution by Age Group, 1969 - 2002

Age Group	1969	1991	2002
0 - 14 years	46.2	47.3	49.3
15 - 64 years	50.0	49.4	47.7
65+ years	3.8	3.3	3.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: 2002 Population & Housing Census Report, UBOS



Figure 1.3: Uganda's Population Composition, 2002

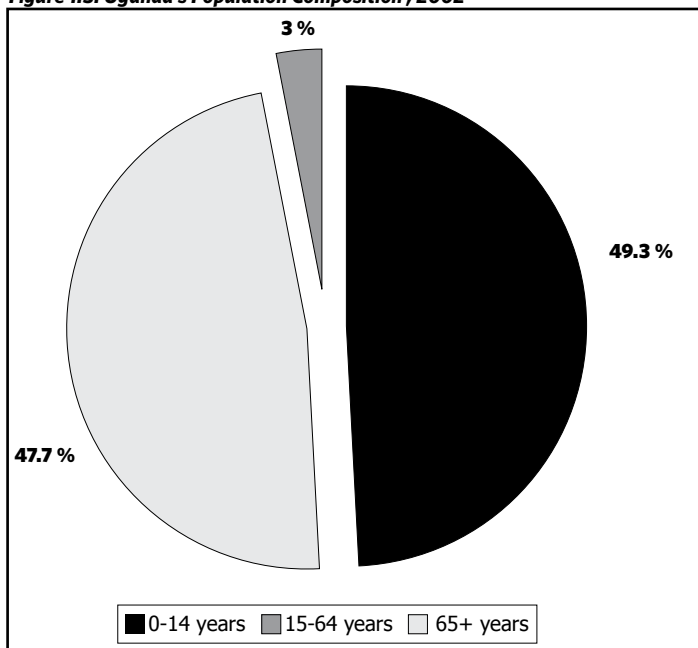


Table 1.4 shows the composition of the population by sex. In 1980, the number of females exceeded the males by a sex ratio of 3.7 and by about 1.7 in 1991. In 2002, the male-female ratio went up by about 1.2.

Table 1.4: Population Distribution by Sex Group, 1969 - 2002

Census Year	Total Population (million)	Male Population (million)	Female Population (million)	Male/Female Ratio	Percent Point Change of Sex ratio
1969	9.5	4.8	4.7	101.7	-
1980	12.6	6.2	6.4	98.2	-3.69
1991	16.7	8.2	8.5	96.5	-1.71
2002	24.2	11.8	12.4	95.3	-1.20

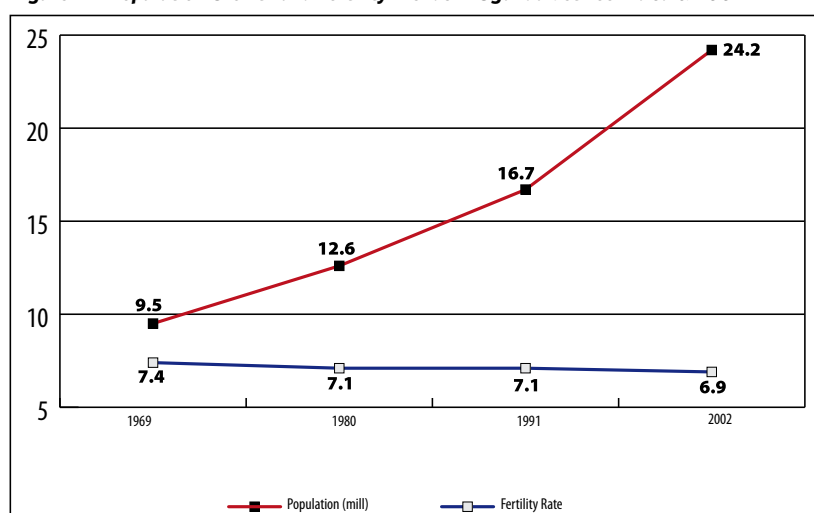
Source: 2002 Population & Housing Census Report, UBOS

1.2.3 Total Fertility Rate Situation

According to the 1988/89 Uganda Demographic Health Survey (UDHS) the total fertility rate that year was 7.1 births per woman. In 1995, based on the findings from the 1995 UDHS, the fertility rate went down to 6.9 and it remained at the same during 2000/2001 UDHS. Figure 4 below shows the population growth and fertility trends between 1969 and 2002. The high population growth rate experienced in the country partly depends on this high fertility rate and low contraceptive rate, which is only 23 percent. There has been reduction in mortality, judging by the trend in crude birth rates and child mortality reported by Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS). Both crude death rates and child mortality rates have been declining while life expectancy at birth has been rising slowly.



Figure 1.4: Population Growth and Fertility Trends in Uganda between 1969 & 2002



The average age at first marriage of single women according to 2000/01 UDHS data, was 17.5 years. This has not differed significantly from 1988/89 and 1995 UDHS results. Marriage patterns exert a major influence on household formation, size and structure. The 2002 Population and Housing Census figures indicated there were 24.2 million people, now projected at 27.4 million (2006). The average household size declined from 4.8 persons in 1991 to 4.7 in 2002.

1.3.0 Socio-Economic Trends

1.3.1 Population Growth and Gross Domestic Product Growth

A comparison of some indicators of economic performance of the year 2000, with those of, for example, other countries in Africa and South East Asia in the same period reveals some of the constraints that population growth imposes on economic growth. If the constraints are not addressed, sustained and broad based economic growth may be difficult to attain.

Table 1.5: Per Capita Gross Domestic Product and Population of Selected Countries, 1998 - 2004

Country	Per Capita GDP (US \$)				Population (million)			
	1998	2000	2002	2004	1998	2000	2002	2004
Botswana	3,020	3,066	3,080	3,998	1.5	1.7	1.8	1.9
Mauritius	3,870	3,750	3,740	4,120	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2
Malaysia	3,389	3,600	3,905	4,283	22.2	23.2	24.2	25.2
Thailand	1,819	1,780	2,060	2,232	61.2	62.4	63.6	64.8
Uganda	310	260	236	250	21.5	22.9	24.2	26.3

Source: World Bank Report 2005, Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), 2005 & PEAP 2004/05 – 2007/08

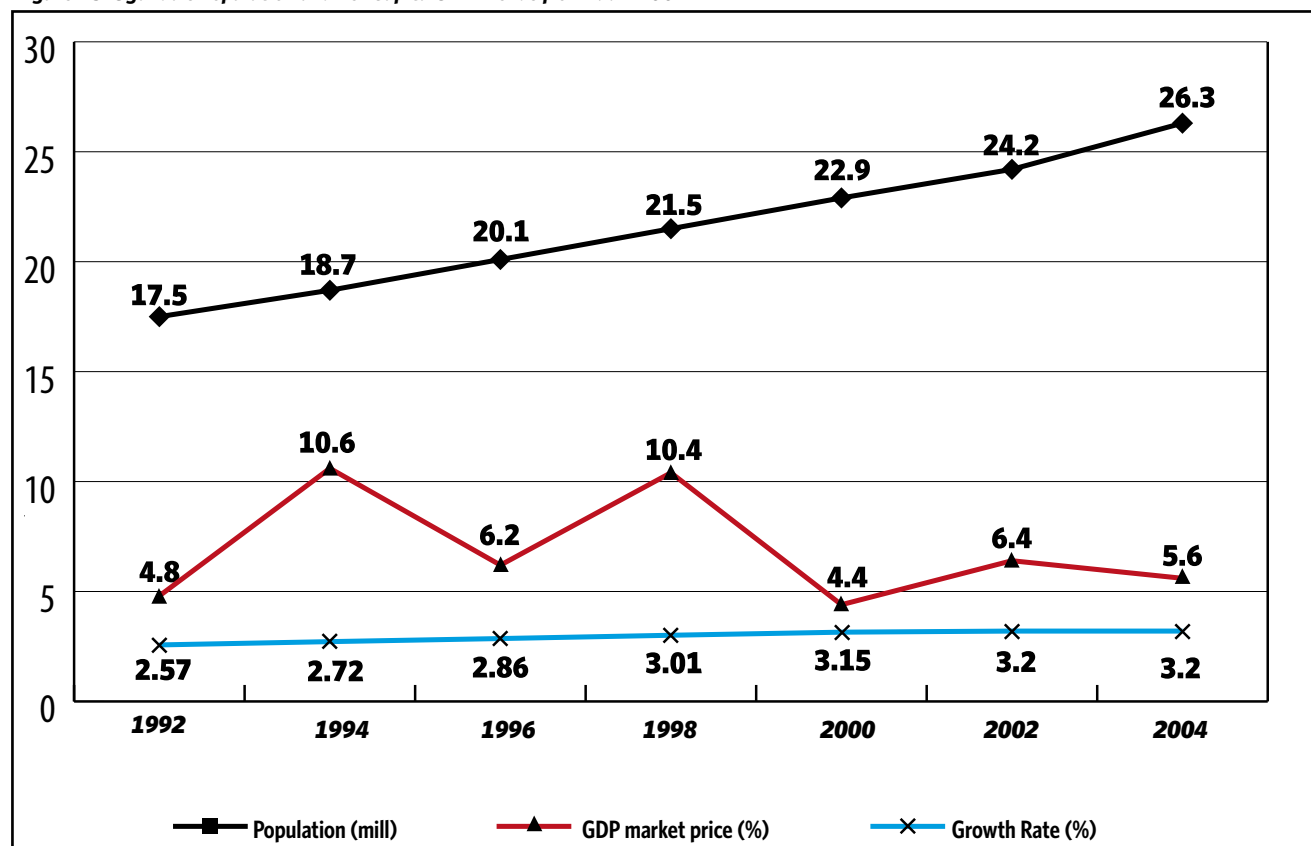
Table 1.5 above shows the per Capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of Uganda and some countries in Southern Africa and South East Asia along with their respective population. For the period 1998 – 2004, Uganda was outpaced by countries like Botswana, Mauritius, Malaysia and Thailand. Uganda's per capita GDP was about one-eleventh of Botswana and Malaysia, and a mere one-fifth that of Thailand. Aside from varying levels of aggregate productivity, demographic constraints also contribute in a small amount to lower per capita income for Uganda, now estimated at US\$ 285 (World Bank Report, April 2006). The country's population is almost the same size with Malaysia and more than 16 times that of Botswana respectively.

Table 1.6: Population and Per Capita Gross Domestic Product of Uganda, 1992 - 2004

Particulars	Period (Year)						
	1992	1994	1996	1998	2000	2002	2004
Population (mill)	17.5	18.7	20.1	21.5	22.9	24.2	26.3
Pop. Growth rate	2.57	2.72	2.86	3.01	3.15	3.20	3.20
GDP-(Mkt Price)	4.8%	10.6%	6.2%	10.4%	4.4%	6.4%	5.6%

Source: Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), 2005 & PEAP, 2004

Figure 1.5: Uganda's Population and Per Capita GDP Trends from 1992-2004



In terms of per Capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP) at market price, Uganda registered an average growth of 4.7% between 1992 and 2004 (UBOS, 2005) as shown in table 1.6 and Figure 5 above. If this growth rate continues, per capita GDP (at market price) will double after 15 years. This implies a very slow improvement in standards of living of the people for at least more than a decade. However, if the population growth rate goes down by 0.8% and the GDP growth stays the same, there will be a corresponding increase in the growth rate of per Capita GDP to 2.5% (annual population growth rate experienced by the country during the period 1980-1991), enabling the per Capita GDP to increase. If the population growth rate eases down further, then the per capita GDP will double. The number of years needed to double per Capita GDP will go down some more if efficiency-enhancing measures raise the GDP growth rate.

1.3.2 Population Growth and Domestic Savings

Despite the increase of Uganda's ratio of saving to GDP from 4.7% in 2000 to 14.5% in 2005, this is still relatively low compared to the countries mentioned in Table 1.5, like Malaysia and Thailand, which has 24% and 32% respectively (World Bank).

Although this is due to several factors including those associated with the state of the Capital market, the role of demographic factors can not be ignored. Uganda households have a high age dependency ratio, which is the proportion of persons under 15 and over 65 years who are economically dependent on the working members aged 15 – 64 years. In 2002, this ratio was about 110%. Given this high age-dependency ratio, personal spending on basic goods and services absorbs much of household income, leaving hardly any amount as savings. As a result, the savings-GDP ratio remains very low.

Another result is that long-term economic growth trends tend to be low and unstable. Savings are necessary to finance investments, in addition to capital stock. If domestic savings are low, the economy's productive

capacity cannot expand substantially. The savings and investment gap must not be allowed to persist. All sectors of the economy have to be concerned about savings.

Low savings mean low investments and modest productivity growth. Personal and business incomes thus grow slowly pushing down the Government's tax revenue. As a result public spending for social overhead capital declines.

1.3.3 Population Growth and Social Services

Physical infrastructure like roads and bridges as well as social services like schools, health services, water etc. are necessary to support production and improve the quality of life. However, a rapidly growing population severely hampers the Government's ability to provide sufficient and quality services due to inadequate funding. This was evident with UPE where pupil-classroom ratio was 94:1, pupil-textbook ratio at 3:1 and pupil-teacher ratio at 58:1 (PEAP, 2004).



1.3.4 Population Growth and Natural Resources Capability

Natural resources like forests, water, land etc. if kept in good condition and used sustainably, can enable people to carry out a variety of productive human activities and attain a wide range of economic, social, political and cultural aspirations. A fast growing population makes it difficult to maintain the capability of the natural resources. This is evident in the reclamation of marginal lands for instance wetlands and destruction of forests. Unsustainable utilization of these natural resources seriously disturbs the ecological balance and inhibits its capacity to support the population.

1.3.5 Population Growth and Labour Productivity

Another worrisome economic trends associated with some demographic factors is the uneven growth rate of labour productivity. Low labour productivity may be attributed to lack of skills, which may be largely due to low education attainment and inadequate training. Table 1.7 below shows the educational attainment of the labour force in Uganda, and from the same table over half of the labour force had an educational attainment of above secondary or below.

Table1.7: Employment Status by Education Attainment, 2002

Education	Paid Employee %	Self Employed %	Unpaid Family Worker (%)	Total
No Formal Education	5.4	39.2	55.3	100
Primary	10.3	46.2	43.5	100
Secondary	30.7	45.1	24.2	100
Above Secondary	70.7	23.4	5.9	100

Source: 2002 Population & Housing Census Report, UBOS

Spending for education is largely the responsibility of the households, except for basic education (Universal Primary Education). With rapid increase in population, the enrolment in basic education (UPE) continues to grow fast. The budget for education is increasing but not commensurate to financial demand of a growing school going age population and the requisite for quality basic education.

As the economy modernizes its production technologies and capital accumulation improves considerably, the proportion of those working for wages and salaries increases, outweighing the share of self employed as well as unpaid workers. Many self employed workers may discover that as production becomes more sophisticated and the market expands, it is more efficient to organize production through a firm rather than through self employment. This shift may be slowed down due to rapid population growth, resulting to smaller saving and investment.

Table 1.8: Employment Status and Labour force by Sex, 2002

Class of Workers	Male (%)	Female (%)	Average Total
Paid Employee	21.4	9.7	15.5
Self Employed	59.8	23.9	41.8
Unpaid Family Worker	18.8	66.4	42.6
Looking for Employment	5.20	3.90	-
Total	100.0	100.0	

Source: 2002 Population & Housing Census Report, UBOS

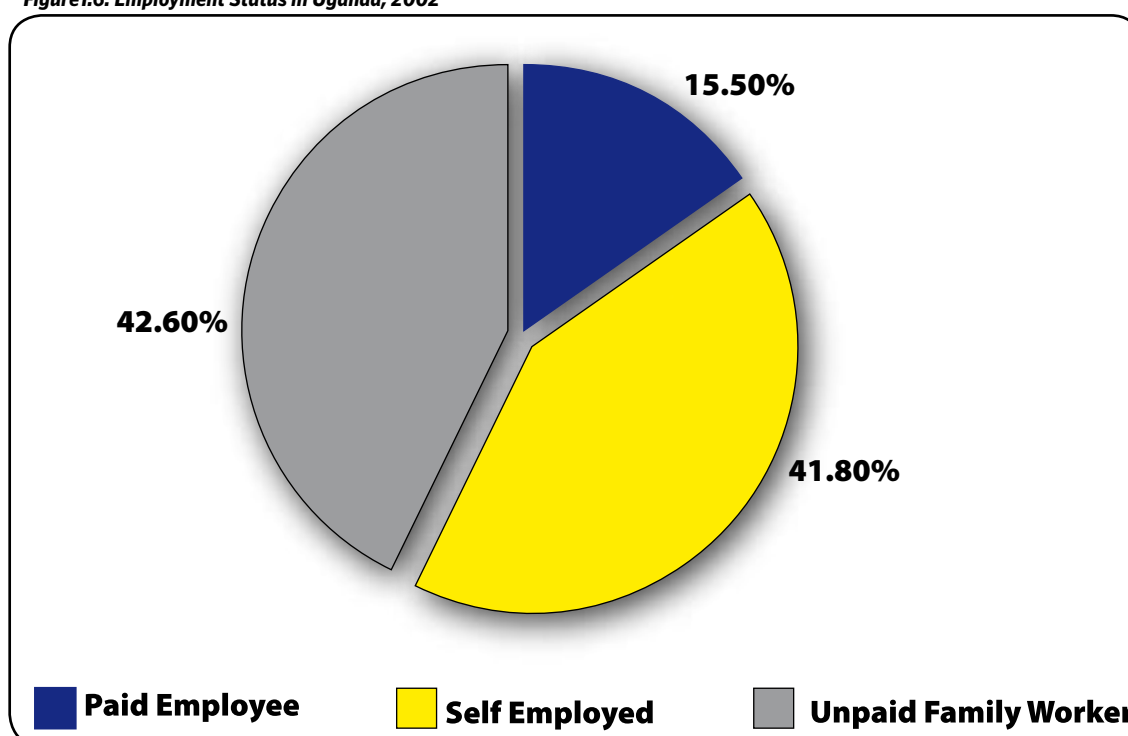
Figure1.6: Employment Status in Uganda, 2002

Table 1.8 and Figure 1.6 above suggest a slow process of the shift to wage and salary employment. Census 2002 result reveals that self employed and unpaid family worker accounted for 42.3% of the labour force in Uganda.



Rapid population growth brings in a large supply of new entrants into the labour market, many of them young and unskilled. They usually get employed at low wages, contributing to high underemployment rate. The unemployment problem is also high and largely involves jobless youth, many of whom are inadequately educated and untrained.

Total fertility rates in Uganda have remained at about 7 and have not declined for the last four decades. This trend has not benefited women in the workplace. Low fertility rates are correlated to reduced incidence of illness, resulting in few absences or work disruptions. Married women with fewer children are less likely to leave the labour force.

1.3.6 Population Growth and Poverty

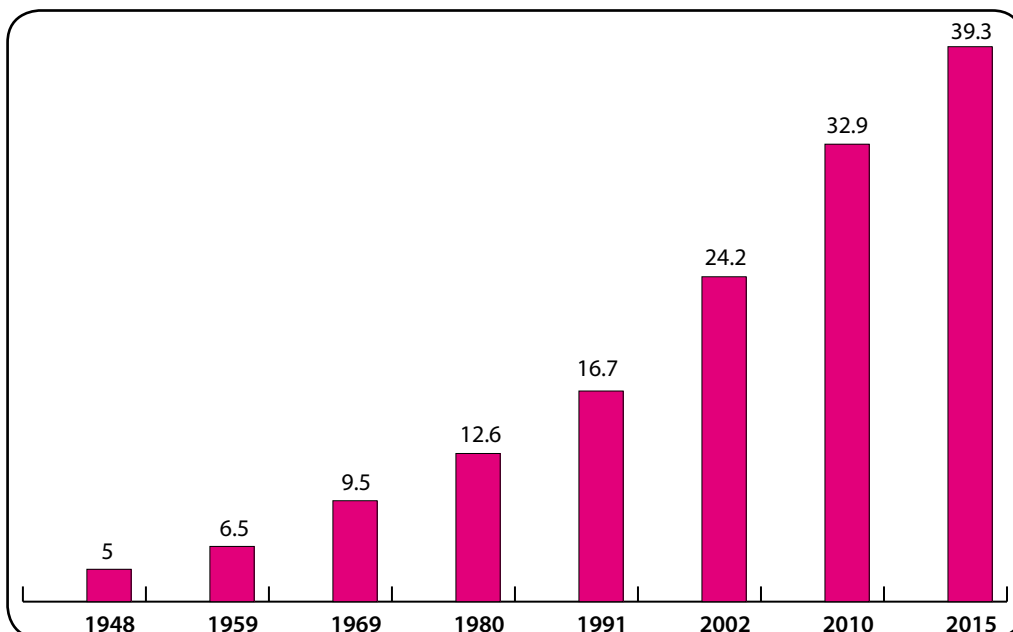
Many households in Uganda derive their income from agriculture (75%). In a rapidly growing population, a large proportion of the labour force tend to have limited education and training, hence low earning and high incidence of unemployment and underemployment, particularly among the youth. As a consequence efforts to reduce the number and proportion of population below the poverty line are hampered. The proportion of poor population has been declining over time, but in numbers, the poor are still increasing. Between 1990s and 2000 the proportion of poor population fell from 56% to 34%. However, since 2000, the income poverty has risen, with the proportion of people below the poverty line rising from 34% to 38% in 2003. However, the number of poor population rose from about 8 million in 2000 to 10.4 million in 2006. Society demands a faster reduction in the number and proportion of poor families. Proper population management is thus an essential element of public policy.



1.4 Population Projections

In support of population and development policy, it is important to know the expected population size and its growth rate in the future. With data from the 2002 Census as the basis for modern variant assumptions the population is projected to reach 33 million by the year 2010 and about 40 million by 2015, with an expected addition of about 9 million and 15 million respectively to the population of 2002. By the same medium variant assumption, the average annual population growth rate is projected to increase to 3.6% in 2010 and thereafter it will slow down to 2.3% over the period 2010-2040, with an estimated addition of about 15 million people. The identification of sources of population growth can be useful in formulation of a policy framework for population management and family planning.

Figure 1.7: Uganda Population Trends and Projections, 1948-2050 (millions)



1.5 Does Uganda have a way out of this situation?

There is a fresh reason for Uganda to attend to fertility dynamics in demographic transition. It requires Uganda to act wisely before and during the transition, where a special window opens up to economic growth and human development, depending on the policy framework that shall be put in place to address population and development.

The ‘Demographic Dividend or Gift’ occurs when a falling birth rate changes the age structure distribution, so that fewer investments are needed to meet the needs of the youngest age groups and resources are released for investments in economic development and family welfare. A falling birth rate makes for a smaller population of dependant age group and for relatively more people in the adult age group (15 – 64 years) who comprise the productive labour force. It improves the ratio of productive workers to child dependants in the population. This makes for faster economic growth and fewer burdens of families.

There is need to note that demographic dividend does not last forever. There is limited opportunity. With time, the age distribution changes again, as the large adult population moves into the older and less productive age group and is followed by smaller (0–14 years) age group during fertility decline. When this occurs, the dependency ratio rises this time involving the need to care for the elderly rather than to take care of the young.

In addition, the dividend is not automatic, while demographic pressure is eased whenever fertility falls, some countries will take better advantages of that than others. Some countries will act to capitalize on the released resources and use them effectively, but others will not. With time when the window of opportunity closes, those that did not take advantage of the demographic dividend will face renewed pressures in a position that is weaker than ever.

With demographic factors affecting the socio-economic and human development which were enumerated in the previous sub-sections, the government needs to take the demographic dividend (Gift) seriously, as it opens a window of opportunity for faster economic growth and human development. As indicated earlier, there is need to attend to our fertility dynamics.

1.6 Population and Development Policy Framework

While the annual population growth has continued to increase over the past two decades and is expected to do so in the future, its rate will prevent a steady improvement in the quality of life of individual families. A coherent and comprehensive population policy framework that is responsive to societal demands is essential and urgently needed. The framework requires an integration of population policy with the government’s broad socio-economic development plan and demographics matters for development and vice-versa. Since, population and development is about people, the freedom of couples and individuals to choose from a range of approaches to family planning must be upheld. It must be understood, too, that the policy framework is not about family planning, it is also about reproductive health, rights and empowerment of women. Improving the status of women through full participation in the nation’s economic, social, political and natural life is considered an end in itself.

To sum up, the policy framework recognizes the interdependence of population and development. The population variable influences development and the latter influences population. Thus suggesting an approach to population management that emphasises reproductive health rights and gender equality.

1.7 Summary and Recommendations

Demographic trends are closely linked with development and the interplay of population growth and development is a major consideration in the formulation of a broad population framework. At the current population growth rate of 3.3% per annum, the Ugandan population estimated at over 27 million is expected

to double in 22 years.

The Country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP), on the other hand grows at an average 4.7 per annum, and is expected to double in 15 years. Population growth must slow down, and economic growth must speed up in order for most Ugandans to have a better standard of living.

The unfavourable economic and demographic situation also implies other conditions that serve to weigh down further on efforts to improve quality of life, such as low national savings, poor environmental quality, unreliable labour productivity, unemployment problems, low incomes and poor households.

The population projection for the next 30 years and an analysis of the sources of the expected growth serves as a basis for formulating the country's population and development policy framework. The framework should be characterized by the following critical policies:

1. The integration of population policy with the Government's broad socio-economic development plans.
2. An expanded view of family planning in the context of reproductive health and rights. This should include recognition of couple's right to plan their families and regulate their fertility and of the Government's responsibility to address the unmet needs of couples for family planning which now stands at 35%.
3. Advocacy for population and development interrelationship with emphasis to fertility regulation as an approach to population management.
4. Improvement of human resource skills and capability and increasing employment opportunities to absorb the large number of young people (teenagers) coming of age.
5. Pursuing open trade policies with open economies.
6. Putting in place policies to generate capital that are needed for fuelling growth; and personal savings needs to be encouraged and helped greatly.
7. Encouraging Government and business savings as well as foreign direct investments and development assistance that is favourable for Government's actions.

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CHAPTER 2

POVERTY REDUCTION IN UGANDA: PROGRESS AT HOUSEHOLD LEVEL

2.0 Introduction: Poverty trends in Uganda

The Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process (UPPAP) in 1998/99 and 2002, whose primary aim was to enable communities express their local understanding of poverty and their perceptions about policy priorities, offers valuable insights about factors contributing to persistence of poverty and transitions. Poverty is described as the

“inability to meet basic requirements, a perpetual need for daily necessities of life and a feeling of powerlessness.” A household’s lack of assets, such as land or financial capital, is seen as a major factor contributing to the perpetuation of poverty.

Uganda’s household surveys (UNHS) show that in the nineties, poverty levels decreased tremendously, but in the twenties, poverty levels are beginning to rise despite the increased funding and economic growth. UNHS surveys revealed that Ugandans living under the poverty line were 56% of the population in 1992; they declined to 35% in 2,000 but increased to 38% in 2003.

In addition to increasing levels of poverty, income inequality is widening among the Ugandan population. Despite the positive economic growth rates and considerable allocations for social sectors in government budgets this has not automatically led to poverty reduction, as would have been expected. Uganda’s gross domestic product grew at an average rate of 6.9% during the 1990s, yet this has not directly translated in

poverty reduction at household level (UJAS, 2005).

Poverty is also concentrated in the rural areas, especially in the north where only 20% of the population are benefiting from the 5% economic growth. In response Uganda's current PEAP aims to address increasing poverty and reduce regional and gender inequalities.

Table 2.1: General characteristics common to poor and wealthy households in Uganda:

Poor Households	Wealthy households
Large household size and many dependants	Small household size and less dependants
Female headed household	Male headed households
No or primary education for household heads	Secondary education (or more) for household heads
Agricultural	Non-farm / non-agricultural / wage employment
Owens no or little land and cattle, poor land	Owens a lot of land and cattle with fertile land
Limited household asset base or depletion of assets to pay for school fees, taxes or Medicare.	Expanding household asset base through purchases or inheritance
Excessive local taxation	Moderate and fair taxation
Rural and in Northern Uganda	Urban and in Central or Western region
Insecurity prone area	Security assured area
Elderly, disabled and unemployed	Young and Employed
Lazy and excessive drinking	Hardworking and not alcoholic
In area with poor delivery of social services	Area with good governance
Poor shelter and limited access to health services, education and safe water.	Good shelter and access to health services, education and safe water.
Polygamous marriages or child headed households	Monogamous marriages and with adult headed households
Family disintegration and gender inequalities	Family unity with gender equality
Family with HIV/AIDS patients, elderly and disabled	Healthy family with fewer dependants and more members earning income.

Source: Catherine Kanabahita (2006)

According to Lawson et al (2003) within the 1992-99 UNHS panel the poverty incidence fell from 48.6% of households in 1992 to 29.3% by 1999. 18.9% of these panel households were chronically poor, while nearly 40% experienced transitory poverty over this period, 29.6% of households moving out of poverty and 10.3% slipping in. A majority of those that were poor in 1992 had escaped by 1999, but a substantial minority were left behind and many others fell into poverty over this period.

Therefore, against the background of Uganda's impressive macroeconomic performance over this decade and significant variation in individual experiences of poverty movements, it is important to understand the factors that contributed to this phenomenon. This chapter analyses the underlying reasons for increasing household poverty, why some families remain trapped in poverty while others are get out of it. Conclusions and policy recommendations are made.

2.1 Factors that influence poverty trends at household level

This chapter discusses key factors that influence poverty at household level and which continue to widen the unequal distribution of wealth. They have been identified as: High population growth rate; Regional inequalities, insecurity and displacement; Limited investment in agriculture, markets and infrastructure;

Gender inequalities; The impact of social cultural factors like alcohol abuse, polygamy, family disintegration, HIV/AIDS and Limited access to social services especially education, healthcare, water and information.

2.1.1 High Population Growth Rate

According to the 2002 Census Uganda has a population of 24.7 million people. The total fertility rate is 6.9, largely unchanged over the past ten years and much higher than in neighbouring countries (Kenya: 4.7; Tanzania: 5.6). Uganda's population growth rate is about 3.2% per year, making Uganda one of the countries with the highest population growth rates in the world. The demographic implications of this high population growth rate are shown in Table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2: Demographic Projections for Uganda 2000-2050

	Population ('000)	Pop. Growth	TFR	Population Density	Dependency Rate	Pop. Aged 15-64	Growth 15-64	Pop. Aged 5-19
2000	23487	3.30%	100	7.10	110	11164	3.16%	9504
2005	27623	3.62%	117	6.78	112	13044	3.67%	11167
2010	32996	3.58%	140	6.37	111	15621	3.88%	13467
2015	39335	3.46%	167	5.93	108	18894	4.06%	16167
2020	46634	3.31%	198	5.43	102	23051	4.00%	19115
2025	54883	3.11%	233	4.87	96	28051	3.86%	22143
2030	63953	2.84%	271	4.27	89	33894	3.64%	25287
2035	73550	2.53%	312	3.70	82	40522	3.38%	28395
2040	83344	2.27%	353	3.24	74	47844	3.12%	31096
2045	93250	2.06%	395	2.90	67	55801	2.79%	33051
2050	103248		438		61	64039		34326

Source: United Nations Population Division (2002) as quoted in Klasen (2004)

The Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment found that a large share of respondents saw large families as one of the most important causes of poverty (MFPED, 2003). Households that moved into poverty did partly so because household sizes increased (from 5.06 to 6.79 of those that moved into poverty between 1992 and 1999). Thus there is not only a static link between family size and poverty, but there also appears to be a dynamic link with large families being more likely to stay in, or move into poverty.

Differential family size between rich and poor has an impact on widening inequality in Uganda. Lawson et al (2003) noted that the impact of household size on poverty in Uganda has increased between 1992 and 2002. As a result, differential fertility and its effects are responsible for about 10-12% of the level of inequality in 1992 and in 2002, and for about 20% of the increase in inequality between 1992 and 2002. Angemi (2003) noted that a reduction in fertility of one child would reduce the likelihood of a household to fall below the poverty line by 3-4%. In addition, it would lower the dependency burden which would have the effect of reducing household poverty by another 1%.

There are also important geographic differences in the distribution of chronic and transitory poverty. Most striking are results relating to rural areas and particularly to the northern region. Almost one third of chronically poor households in Uganda reside in the Northern region, compared to just over one seventh of the population. Within this region almost two in every five households are chronically poor. They are also less likely to have escaped poverty and more likely to have fallen into poverty compared to the other regions (UBOS 2003, MoFPED 2003).

In the UPPAP studies, the communities identified insecurity and displacement, characteristic features of the northern region, as priority factors moving people into poverty. The rural northern region is where the effects are strongest with households being significantly more likely to be poor and significantly less likely to move

away from poverty. Those in the rural eastern region are significantly less likely to be never poor, but more likely to be moving out of poverty – this being a locality where poverty fell sharply between 1992 and 1999. Those in the urban areas of the western region are significantly less likely to have been chronically poor or descending into poverty over this period, and significantly less likely to escape poverty. Again these patterns are consistent with the geographic pattern of poverty reduction over this period of 1992 – 1999 (MoFPED (2003), MoFPED (2006) and Lawson et al (2003)).

Increased population due to birth, migration or displacement has diverse effects on the status of the environment and consequently on household poverty. Most households, especially the poor ones derive their livelihoods directly from natural resources. On a daily basis, they collect firewood, till the land, collect water and their sustenance is totally dependent on the status of the environment. When underground water levels reduce, springs dry up and homesteads lack water. When the forest cover is removed, the rains become scarce and agricultural production is threatened. When soil is over or poorly used, it becomes barren and gets poor yields. The examples to show the link between nature and the survival of human beings are numerous. Therefore, environmental degradation has to be halted and nature conservation methods such as forestation, preservation of wetlands, alternative sources of fuel than firewood, better farming methods and others needs to be introduced for purposes of sustainability and poverty reduction.

2.1.3 Limited investment in the productive sector, most especially in agriculture, markets and infrastructure

Uganda is an agricultural country and agriculture is the backbone of the economy. About 80% of Ugandans live in the rural areas where their main livelihood is derived from agriculture. Over the past years, the Agricultural sector has received a small percentage of about 4% of the national budget. This reflects a mismatch of less investment in a sector where the majority of Ugandans operate. Consequently, UPPAP results show that poverty among crop farmers had increased over time due to deterioration of farmland quality, coupled with an inability to purchase hybrid seeds and fertilisers and limited extension services. (MoFPED, 2003). Table 2.4 below shows the marginalisation of Agriculture as a backbone of the economy in the Budget of FY 2003/04.

Table 2.3: Budget releases for FY 2003/04 (Uganda shillings in Billions)

SECTOR	BUDGET (Annual Releases)
Security	335.68
Roads and Works	146.46
Agriculture	45.87
Education	517.27
Health	207.79
Water	53.21
Law and Order	197.04
Accountability	86.47
Economic Affairs and Social Services	124.07
Public Administration	371.60
TOTAL	2,079.64

Source: MoFPED, 2004

Communities also attributed low earnings among most crop farmers to taxes (which they say is the single most important impoverishing factor) and limited markets and low prices, especially for maize. Agricultural produce marketing constraints and a feeling of exploitation of the smallholders in the context of liberalisation were also identified as influencing factors for deterioration of living standards. Uganda can easily be the food basket of Africa. But it lacks agricultural products and technologies needed to make more out of its natural resources. (UPPAP, 2003, MoFPED, 2006, Lawson, 2003)

Ross Herbert (Ed. 2005) noted the need to focus on growth and productivity as a means to self reliance and less donor dependency. This underscores the need to invest in sectors that directly produce growth, employment and more resources. These include strengthening commercial infrastructure (i.e. good roads and energy), investing in rural economies (modern agriculture and appropriate technology) as well as skills training and research.

2.1.4 Gender inequalities

In the UPPAP studies, poor gender relations were regarded as “causing and perpetuating poverty.” Key factors behind the perpetuation of unequal gender relations include the practice of paying bride price; domestic violence, often linked to alcohol abuse; and conservative attitudes among both men and women. The World Bank (2004) noted that there is a marked gender gap in control over resources, especially land and decision making power, to the detriment of women. The labour burdens of men and women differ significantly to the disadvantage of women especially given the disproportionate responsibility they bear for meeting family needs. The implications of these gender based disparities reinforced by lack of appropriate legislation are far reaching and intertwined in ways that are complex and multidimensional.

The probability of Female Headed Households (FHH) moving into poverty and being chronically poor is substantially higher than for Male Headed Households (MHH). Divorced FHH are less likely to move out of poverty (19.1 percent), compared with divorced MHH (33.3 percent), and more likely to move into poverty. Households headed by unmarried individuals, of either sex, are less likely to be chronically poor and more likely never to be poor (The World Bank, 2004).

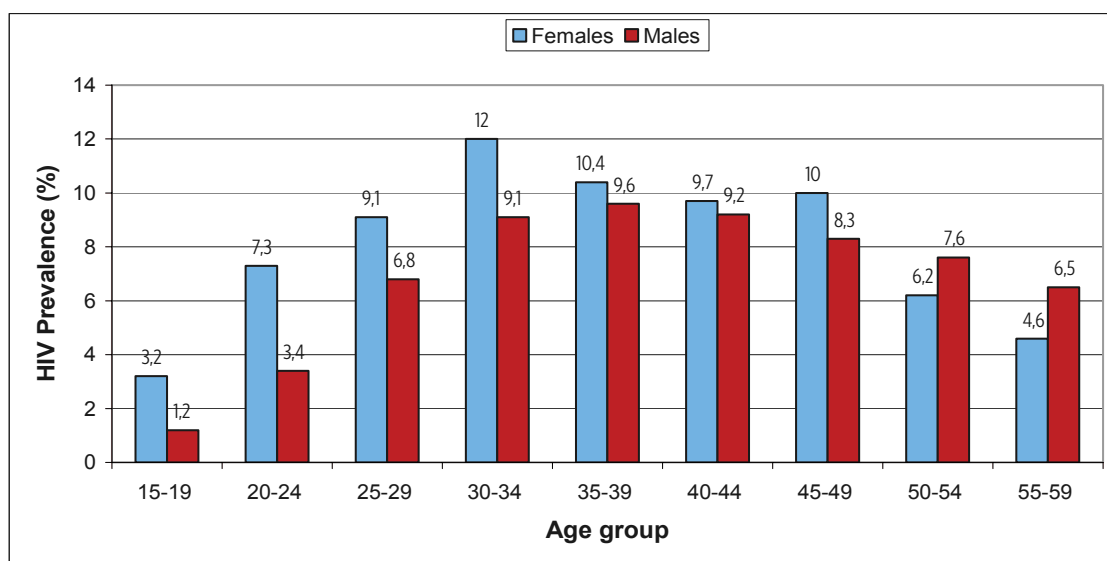
Maternal mortality has remained stable and high at 505 maternal deaths per 100,000 live birth and places women and children at great risk. The majority of maternal deaths occur outside the hospitals, indicating delays in seeking and reaching care. These delays are themselves linked to gender differences in decision making, access to and control of resources at the household level (MoH, 2006)

2.1.5 The impact of social cultural factors and HIV/AIDS on household poverty levels

Excessive consumption of alcoholic drinks is regarded as a major cause of poverty in terms of the amount of money spent on it and its effects. In 1992 chronically poor households and households that were not poor then but later fell into poverty were more likely to purchase alcoholic drinks, and devoted higher proportions of their budgets to it. Large numbers in these two groups devote more than one quarter of their household's budget to the purchases of alcoholic drinks (MoFPED, 2004).

Polygamy and excessive alcohol consumption are two drivers of poverty in most households in Uganda. Households whose head is in a polygamous relationship are more likely to be poorer than average, though not necessarily more likely to be chronically poor. Other important factors include being in a large (or polygamous) family; loss of assets, a job, or remittances; loss of a spouse or marital break up; Family defragmentation (following death of a key family member or marital breakdown) as a key shock, particularly impacting on women. The UPPAP studies also noted that marginalised groups (such as the elderly, the disabled or internally displaced people), who typically have lower levels of assets anyway, face the further disadvantage of commonly being excluded from existing household and community support mechanisms. Marginalised groups are also doubly disadvantaged by lower levels of assets and processes of exclusion that only enable them to attain a low return on the assets they do have. (Lawson, 2003, MFPED, 2006)

Figure 2.1 Graph showing the prevalence of HIV/AIDS according to age and sex.



Source: Ministry of Health, Kampala, (2005)

Ill health and HIV/AIDS were also considered very important for falling conditions of living. Uganda has had unprecedented success in bringing overall HIV prevalence rates down from 15-19 percent in the mid-1990s to around 6.5 percent now. Of concern are the persistent differences in HIV prevalence for young men and women aged 30-34. In all age categories, except 50-59, women are most hit by the HIV/AIDS epidemic, as the preliminary results of the Uganda HIV/AIDS sero-behavioral survey, as depicted in the graph below. Ill health especially HIV/AIDS impacts enormous burdens to households in form of medical expenses that often lead to asset depletion, loss of employment, care and support. Households have been sprawled into chronic poverty because of HIV/AIDS and the situation is worsened by limited access to treatment. Uganda's initiatives to universal access to ARVs and highlighted efforts in prevention will go a long way in addressing a major cause of poverty in many homes.

2.1.6 Limited access to education, health care and information

Primary school enrolments have risen from 3 million in 1997 to 7.6 million in 2003. Despite the significant achievements, the lowest income quintiles are still less likely to attend primary school or to do so consistently and face the brunt of high dropouts, especially for girls. At the secondary level, there is limited access to the majority of the population and continued gender inequalities, with between 20 and 35 percent more boys in S1-S4 and over 60 percent more boys in S5-S6. Although completion of primary education is expected to significantly improve well-being in itself, access to skill and education at higher levels is crucial for sustained poverty reduction. Uganda has an unusually large differential in fertility between the highly educated (3.9) and the women with low education (7.8) and is therefore particularly prone to this dynamic of the poor being caught in a demographic poverty trap which keeps poverty high, widens inequality and reduces economic growth. Sustained reductions in fertility are one of the most important ways to generate pro-poor growth in countries such as Uganda (MoES, 2004)

At the household level, a large number of children is associated with low human capital investment in each child. As a result of many children, households have fewer resources to send children to school, they have fewer resources to afford health care, and they have even fewer resources to save or invest in productive activities. Another reason for the linkage between high population growth and low economic growth and poor progress in improving health and education is related to the provision of public services. In a high population growth

environment, it is extremely difficult to extend services to the rapidly rising population. This is particularly the case for education and health services for children. Another key issue identified in rural areas is lack of information. More educated women have access to family planning information and family planning services and have much lower teenage pregnancies and quality households. Although there is general increase in access to health, education and safe water, quality of public service delivery needs attention.

The poor quality of public services has been closely linked to corruption and abuse of public resources. Corruption is a cancer that sabotages development and ensure the amassing of wealth for a few individuals at the expense of the common good, thus creating poverty for some and widening the wealth gap. In the UPPAP studies, communities also identify the absence of strong local leadership or participatory governance, and the presence of corruption as being an important factor behind poverty and its perpetuation. Zero tolerance against corruption by leaders and the communities should be embraced by all. A culture that fosters transparency and faithfulness needs to be nurtured if poverty and growth inequalities are to be eradicated in a sustainable manner.

3.0 Key Policy Recommendations

Government should transform the current demographic burden to a demographic gift through political action in support of population management, access to affordable family planning services and use of media to promote the concept of small families. Smaller family sizes will ensure fewer dependants (less 15 years and more than 65 years), fewer dependants will lead to higher saving rates of the working age, higher savings will lead to the build up of capital and ensure an investment led boom in housing, infrastructure, and more and efficient social services. Continue to promote female education and female employment opportunities. This should go hand in hand with increasing and improvement in reproductive health services.

Government should invest more in infrastructure, rural economies, research and skills training. In addition support for income generating activities, access to assets and fighting corruption and misuse of public resources should be undertaken vigorously. Public education against polygamy and alcohol abuse should be promoted and carried out.

Government should stimulate private sector investment, promote exports and increase mobilisation of domestic resources. The business climate in Uganda has improved from 9% of GDP in 1990/01 to 16% of GDP in 2002/03, but much more needs to be done to meet the PEAP target of 21% of GDP if Uganda is to achieve the target of GDP growth rate of 7% per annum. Uganda needs to diversify further the non-traditional exports, in addition to fish, flowers, vegetables and tourism in order to generate more revenue and foreign exchange, and it needs to reduce dependence on donor aid and manage her external debt (UJAS, 2005).

Legislation to promote gender equity and empowerment should be enacted without delay to protect women and children from sexual violence and abuse. In addition enforcement of existing and new legislations should be done to make them relevant to purpose. This should go hand in hand with building the capacity of women in politics to enable them participate effectively in debates in decision making for a such as parliament and local governments. There is also an urgent need to reduce the unmet need by increasing access to reproductive health and family planning services.

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CHAPTER 3

POPULATION, ENERGY AND ENVIRONMENT: THE LINKAGES

3.1 Introduction

Energy is a basic human need and is a vital input in the process of economic development and is critical to sustaining economic growth and poverty reduction. The energy sector in Uganda is comprised of the following sub-sectors: Power, Petroleum, the New and Renewable Sources of Energy and Atomic Energy (MEMD, 2002). The energy sector in the country is currently facing a number of problems and challenges which include; the widespread energy shortages, the inefficient use of limited energy supplies, the lack of alternative energy technologies and the low level of energy consciousness among other problems and challenges. These have undermined prospects for economic growth and contributed to increased poverty.

3.2 Uganda's Energy Potential

Uganda is rich in a wide range of new and renewable energy sources including Hydro Electric Power (HEP), Wind, Geothermal and Solar and has abundant Biomass resources. The HEP potential is high and is currently estimated at 2000 Megawatts (MW) out of which only 10% has been developed (NEMA, 2004). Solar conditions are ideal and its radiation is currently estimated at 4-5 kWh/m²/day while the potential of geothermal power which is evident from the hot springs found in western Uganda with temperatures ranging from 500C to 1000C, has an estimated national potential of 450 MW. The wind speed in the country is estimated at about 3 metres per second on average, while in flatter areas such as around Lake Victoria, the Karamoja region and on top of hilly areas it is as high as 6 metres per second (MEMD, 2002). This is sufficient to support wind

technology applications in the country. Atomic energy use in the country is limited and is mainly applied in the agricultural and health sectors.

Table 3.1 Estimated Energy Potential, 2004

Energy Source	Estimated Electrical Potential (Mw)
HEP	2000
Solar	230
Biomass	190
Geothermal	450
Peat	800

Source: Draft New and Renewable Sources of Energy Policy, 2005



3.3.0 Energy in the Development Process

3.3.1 Linking Energy to the MDGs and PEAP Goals

Energy is the engine of economic growth and development and is a vital input into all the productive and social sectors of any economy. In Uganda the energy sector is central in the country’s quest for economic transformation and modernisation process. According to the PEAP (2004), energy supply is critical to enhancing production, competitiveness and incomes. Electric power is essential to the development of modern manufacturing and services and plays an important role in rural development through supporting such activities as agricultural processing, mining areas, lime production, fish landing sites for preservation etc. Thus energy is the lifeblood of the economy of Uganda linking other sectors and has a direct bearing on the performance of other sectors.

Energy Policy goal and targets: *To meet the energy needs of the Ugandan population for social and economic development in an environmentally sustainable manner. The target of the Rural Electrification Strategy and Plan-RESP (2001-2010) is to increase rural electricity access from 1% in 2001 to 10% by 2010.*

The PEAP targets on energy include reducing distance travelled by villagers to firewood sources from 0.73km in 2002/03 to 0.5km in 2007/08.

The satisfaction of basic needs (food, health, housing and water) requires diverse energy sources while poverty is characterised by low energy consumption. Hence the availability of energy is critical to poverty reduction and improved welfare.

Whereas energy is not specifically mentioned as one of the MDGs, there is emerging evidence to suggest that it must be taken as a priority for sustainable human development (UNDP, 2005). It is pertinent to the attainment of the MDGs and indeed no energy no MDGs. For example, meeting MDG 1 of reducing extreme poverty and hunger requires access to reliable and more efficient fuels and technologies to improve enterprise development and increase the productivity of enterprises and other income generating activities.

Energy also makes major contributions to the national treasury through fuel taxes, VAT on electricity, levy on bulk purchases of electricity, licences and royalties and also contributes to foreign exchange earnings through power exports to the neighbouring countries (Kenya, Tanzania and Rwanda).

Table 3.2 Contribution of Taxes and Petroleum Products to Total Revenue

Year	1995/6	1996/7	1997/8	1998/9	1999/00
Actual Contribution (Mill. U.Shs)	150,962	197,332	187,927	193,208	196,800
Contribution (%)	22.3	27.3	23.3	19.719.2	

Source: Uganda Revenue Authority, 2001

Table 3.3 Contribution of Energy Exports to Total Export Earnings

Year	1997/8	1998/9	1999/00	2000/01
Actual Contribution (Mill US\$)	11.96	12.27	13.76	17.0
Contribution (%)	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.04

Source: Bank of Uganda, 2002

The energy sector contributes significantly to the creation of employment. Trading in biomass generates rural incomes, saves foreign exchange, employs over 20,000 people and generates US\$ 36 billion (US\$ 20 m) per year in rural incomes (MEMD, 2002).

3.2.2 Energy Poverty in Uganda

Whereas Uganda is rich in new and renewable energy, much of her energy potential with the exception of biomass is unexploited and paradoxically the country is energy poor. Energy poverty is defined as the absence of sufficient choice in accessing adequate, affordable, reliable, quality, safe, and environmentally benign energy services to support economic and human development (MEMD, 2002). Energy poverty in Uganda is widespread and exists at all levels especially at households levels in the rural areas.

3.2.3 Indicators of Energy Poverty in Uganda

The indicators of energy poverty in the country include; the excessive dependence on biomass, the low consumption of modern energy (Electricity and Petroleum) basically due to the inadequacy and poor quality of electricity services and the general low consumption of energy among other indicators.

3.2.4 Low per capita energy consumption

The per capita energy consumption in Uganda is very low, especially in the rural areas. At only 0.3 TOE (Tones of Oil Equivalent) or 12.72 GJ, like the rest of Africa it is among the lowest in the world, compared with 7.5 to 9 in North America (a ratio of 1:30). While the per capita electricity consumption is only 62 kWh/year one of the lowest in the world, compared to 300 in India, 580 in China, and 11,000 in USA (PEAP, 2004). This is an indicator of economic backwardness, for to a large extent, the level of energy consumption reflects the level of development attained.

In addition, the major consumption of energy at a commercial level is in the urban, industrial and transport sectors, with the agricultural and the rural sectors getting only a small percentage of the total commercial energy.

3.2.4 Excessive dependence on Biomass

Over dependence on Biomass is an indicator of energy poverty; households, institutions and rural based industries such as bakeries, tea and tobacco curing, brick-making, lime production, pottery and ceramics all heavily depend on biomass energy. Biomass in form of firewood, charcoal, cow dung and agricultural residues constitute the major source of energy accounting for over 90% of the total energy consumption in Uganda (MEMD, 2002). Only 5% of the total population and less than 1% of the rural population has access to the national electricity grid and between 2001-2003 electricity consumption accounted for only 1.1% of the total energy consumption (NEMA, 2004).

3.3.0 Linking Population Growth and Energy

3.3.1 The Demand and Supply of Energy

Energy is a basic need for the population of Uganda therefore in addition to other basic needs man needs energy. Evidence is emerging that it must be taken into account as a priority for sustainable human development. The demand for energy in Uganda is increasing at a very high rate. Several factors affect the demand in the country, the most important of which are the levels of economic growth and demographic factors.

The high population growth rate (3.2%) per annum and the high economic growth rates averaging 6% experienced in the past 10 years have increased the demand for energy tremendously. The leading sectors i.e. construction, manufacturing and services that account for the biggest percentages of energy demand have grown at rates of more than 10% making demand for electricity to grow at rates (7-9%) higher than the GDP (East African Master Plan). The current energy demand which is to grow at 24 megawatts per year is basically a function of population growth and social-economic development.

Nalubaale power station has a generation capacity of 180 MW while Kiira dam has an optimal capacity of 120 MW bringing to a total of 300MW the installed capacity of the two dams while their operational capacity is 265 MW (URA). The drought and falling water levels have reduced the generation capacity from 265 to a mere 135MW. On the other hand the peak demand estimated at 350MW and by June it is expected to grow to 370MW widening the evening time shortfall from 165MW to 185 MW.

3.3.2 Thermal Electricity: the Hard Choice

One of the interim measures taken is the introduction of the expensive thermal generation that uses large quantities of diesel fuel. Two more thermal power generations plants at Namanve and Mutundwe in Kampala have been planned to supplement the current energy supply. Each of these thermal power plants is expected to generate 50 MW, thus adding a total of 100 MW to the current supply (ERA, 2006).

Government currently spends Ush329 billion (\$188 million) on thermal power but only collects Ush151 billion (\$86.3 million) in tariffs, leaving a shortfall of Ush179 billion (\$102.3 million) that the government subsidizes. Expenditure on thermal power is expected to rise to Ush555 billion (\$317.1 million) next year with tariff revenues rising to Ush186 billion, leaving a subsidy requirement of Ush368 billion (www.nationmedia.com/eastafrican).

In order to meet the high cost of thermal electricity generation government has been forced to increase the electricity tariffs by 37% across the board with the exception of heavy industries whose prices went up by 58%. Whereas the tariffs have gone up, they are not adequate to meet the costs of electricity generation. Government therefore has to subsidize power costs, for example in a period of 12 months, government will release US\$ 70b and get an additional US\$ 50 million from the World Bank to further subsidize consumers over the same period (The New Vision, Tuesday, May 9th, 2006).

Such subsidies are not sustainable as they consume funds that would otherwise be channeled into development of long-term power generation infrastructure. Further still, they are unjustifiable and highly inequitable,

given that access to electricity is only 9% at present having increased from 5% in 2001, out of which only 4% is rural coverage (MFPED, 2006).

The increase in power tariffs will have a huge impact on the manufacturers who are already suffering the burden of escalating bills as a result of the high expenditures on diesel to run generators.

The fast population growth in rural and urban areas is putting pressure on the traditional sources of energy such as fuel wood which already is quite excessive and environmentally destructive. Unfortunately this pressure is not likely to recede in the foreseeable future.

Table: 3.4 Key Statistics of Supply and Demand for Hydro Electric Power (HEP)

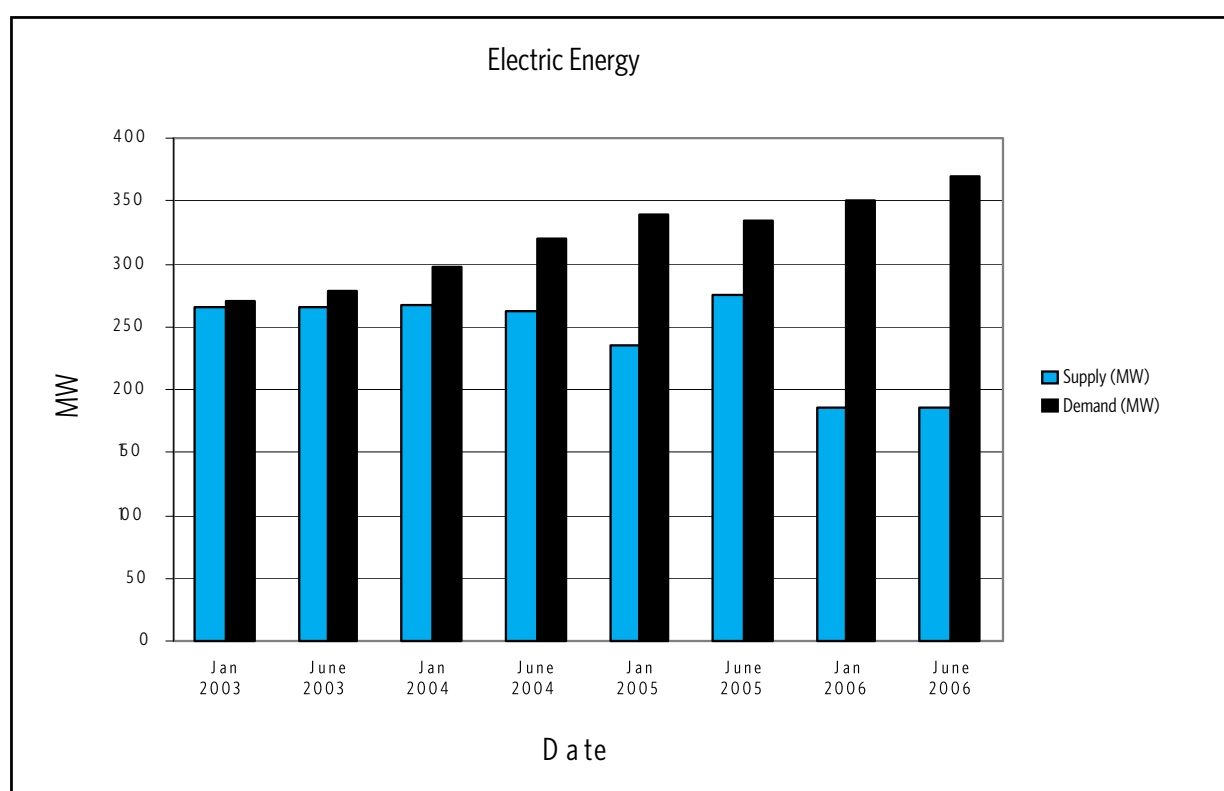
	Jan 2003	June 2003	Jan 2004	June 2004	Jan 2005	June 2005	Jan 2006	June 2006
Generation Supply (MW)	265	265	267	262	236	275	185	185
Evening peak Demand (MW)	271	279	297	320	340	335	350	370
Day time demand (MW)	245	220	235	250	250	250	250	260
Evening time shortfall (MW)	6	14	30	60	104	60	165	185

Source: UETCL data

3.3.3 The Energy Deficit and its Implications

Whereas annual demand for electricity is growing at 30 MW, the country's capacity to generate HEP from Kiira and Owen Falls Dam in Jinja has been on the decline basically due to the falling water levels.

Figure 3.1: Demand and Supply of Electric Energy in Uganda



The current electricity energy production is only 185MW stretching the country's energy gap to 165MW this has forced UMEME to start administering a daily 12 hour black out across the country.

The main challenge facing the energy sector today is the severe power shortages arising from the reduced generation capacity due to the prolonged drought that has hit the country and the increased energy demand. This has had severe negative consequences on all sectors of the economy that rely heavily on power as a major input in the production process. The energy challenge facing the country has resulted into the decline of projected GDP growth from 6% to 4.9% in 2005/6. The impact of shortage of energy is further illustrated below.

URA whose collections in the recent past have been overshooting their collection targets by more 10bn/=, collected less than 157bn/= against their 163bn/= target and one of the reasons given is the increased load shedding.

According to Hilary Obonyo the Executive Director of UMA, firms are currently working at 50% of their regular production capacity, while on the other hand some of the overheads like transport, water, communication bills, rent and others are fixed thus raising the cost per unit of output.

Commenting on the power shortages, the Executive Director Uganda Investment Authority said that if the current situation is left to drag on it could eventually start eroding the country's hard won reputation

Source: Daily Monitor Newspaper Tuesday March 28th, 2006

3.3.4 Scarcities of Fuel wood

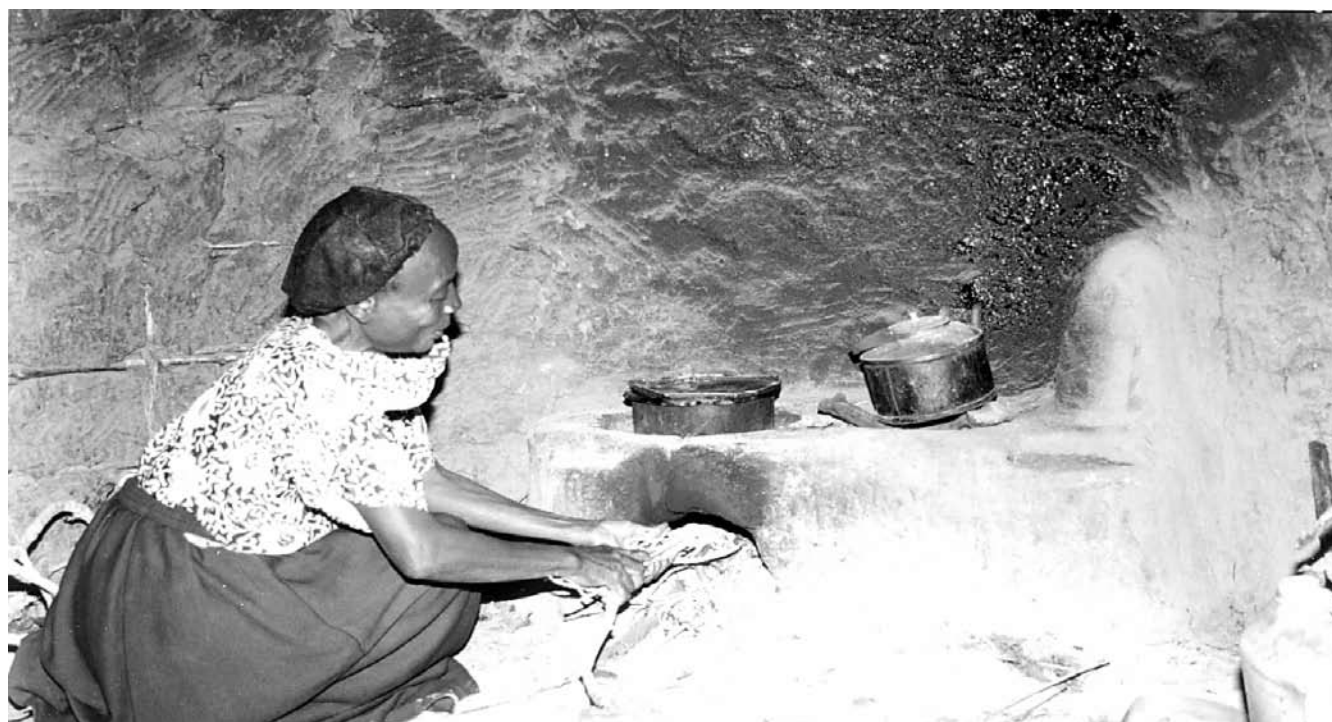
Whereas the dependence on biomass by the majority of the population is likely to persist in the foreseeable future, there is no explicit policy on biomass development. Instead the current policy emphasis is mainly on developing HEP which includes the Rural Electrification Strategy. However the economic viability of this strategy is still subject to debate in the face of worsening rural poverty and the high marginal costs of installing electricity network.

With the reducing electricity supply and increasing tariffs, more people have resorted to using charcoal and firewood for cooking. Currently an equivalent of 26 million tons of wood is consumed annually and demand is predicted to triple to over 60 million tonnes by 2025 (MEMD, 2005). Thus, whereas population will double by 2025, the available wood will reduce to a third per person (NFA, 2005). Charcoal mainly consumed in urban areas increases at a rate of 6% per annum close to that of the urban population (MEMD, 2002).

The distance travelled to collect firewood especially by women and children increased between 2002 and 2005. In Lira and Gulu districts, it has increased from 0.9 km to 7 km requiring 8 hours to collect a head load of approximately 0.25m³ equivalent to 2000 Shillings. This head load lasts a family of 4 for only 3 days of 2 meals per day (Draft Poverty Status Report, 2006). Low firewood availability results into poor quality food intake due to reduced energy for cooking. The districts in the North and North East have been the most affected by firewood scarcity. Government efforts need to be directed to curbing this negative trend and promoting widespread tree planting/replanting programmes especially in the most affected areas.

3.3.5 The Gender, Energy and Environment Perspectives

Women and girls are generally responsible for the provision of energy for household use. This is mainly because according to the traditional gender roles, they are responsible for cooking and feeding their families and often for subsistence agriculture and food processing. This imposes a burden on women's time with negative effects on their economic and domestic activities as well as the quality of their lives (PEAP, 2004).



The dependence on biomass energy especially the use of the poorly ventilated traditional kitchens exposes the women and children to the problem of indoor air pollution. Studies have indicated that exposure to indoor air pollution is as bad as smoking. It has been indicated that in some homes where women cook for three hours per day, they are exposed to similar amounts of carcinogens as if they had smoked two packets of cigarettes daily (Rahlaman, 2005).

Access to efficient energy and technologies is a critical factor to greater equality and the empowerment of women. It frees up women's time and income which is relocated to more productive activities that build their asset base, increase income and improve family well-being and their healthy, generally.

3.4 Energy and Environment Linkages

Energy is a major contributor to environmental problems. The production, processing, conversion, transportation and final use of energy all have potential adverse environmental conditions and also give rise to numerous health and safety issues. Indoors air pollution, urban air pollution, acidification and global warming, deforestation, destruction of ecosystems, are all associated with different energy processes. Bio-fuel cook stoves used in poorly ventilated surroundings are an important contributor to indoor air pollution that is responsible for much of the respiratory ailments especially among women and children in poor countries.

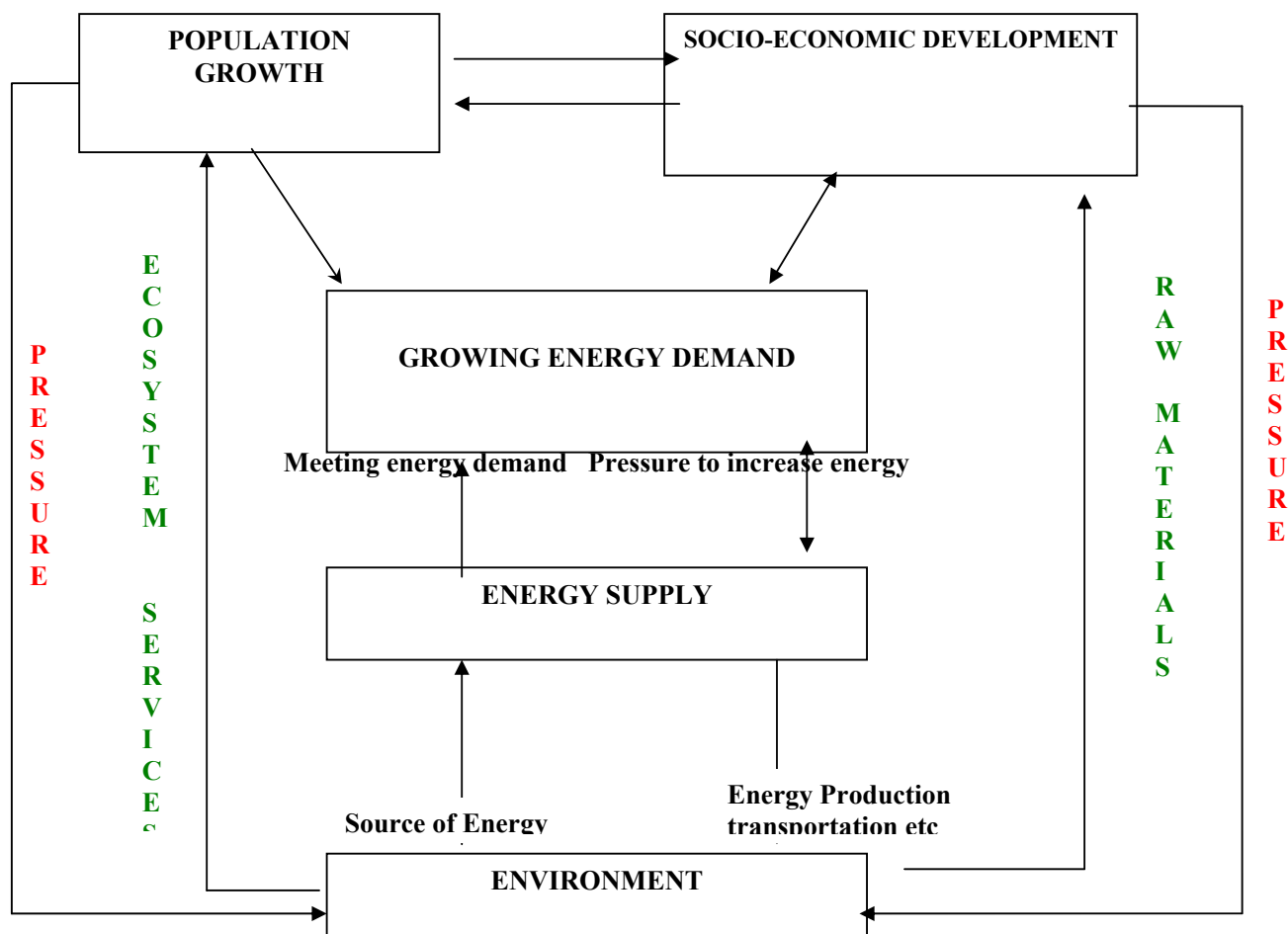
Deforestation is one of the major environmental problems facing the country today, fuelled by a number of factors including the high population growth rates and the consequent demand for food and energy. The over dependence on biomass energy is one of the leading causes of deforestation as evidenced in Nakasongola and Masindi districts (NEMA, 2002) and is not sustainable.

3.4.1 The Environmental costs of the increasing use of Thermal Generators

The electric power shortages experienced today have forced many commercial entities, public institutions and households to increasingly use thermal generators especially in urban areas. In addition to raising the costs of production, it has worsened the problems of noise and air pollution and NEMA is increasingly registering complaints from the affected parties.

Energy is a major contributor to climate change facing the world today. The main variable of climate change is the rising temperature due to the effects of Green House Gases (GHGs) emissions such as Carbon dioxide (CO₂), Chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), Ammonia (NH₃), Methane (CH₄) etc. The build up of such GHGs causes global warming which adversely affects the availability of fresh water, the ability to produce food due to either prolonged droughts or excessive rainfall. The build up of GHGs that cause a rise in surface temperatures is a result of the use of fossil-fuel for global development. This is illustrated below.

Figure 3.2: POPULATION, ENERGY, AND ENVIRONMENT LINKAGES



The figure above shows the critical linkages between population, energy and environment. The growing energy demand is a result of a combination of the high population growth and the social economic growth the country has experienced in the recent past. To meet the growing energy demand, supply has to be stepped up and this implies turning to the environment since it is the source of energy. The processes of producing energy, its use and transportation processes all have potential adverse environmental effects unless mitigated. Population growth and economic growth on the other hand exert pressure on the environment to assimilate the wastes generated and to supply ecosystem services and raw materials.

3.4.2 Relationship between falling water levels and generation capacity

During the past two years, Uganda and indeed the East and Southern African regions has experienced a severe drought. The impact of prolonged drought has lead to the declining water levels in all the lakes in the region as a result of the decline in rainfall in the lakes catchment areas. The falling water levels of Lake Victoria, have affected the electricity generation capacity. Recent reports have also indicated a fall in the water levels of Lake Albert which has caused a rise in transport costs of the ferries on the lake.

3.5 Key Challenges

The main policy goal of the energy sector is to meet the energy needs of Uganda's population for social and economic development in an environmentally sustainable manner (MEMD, 2002). While the good intentions of this policy cannot be doubted, many challenges still hamper the realisation of noble policy goals. The major challenges include some of the following;

- The severe power shortages arising out of the reduced generation capacity due to the prolonged drought.
- Increase demand due to (1). Increasing Population Growth rate. (2). Increased economic growth.
- Expanding access to affordable, reliable and adequate energy supplies to address the poverty issues without damaging peoples' health and the environment.
- Developing a sustainable energy economy, which will ensure its security, availability and affordability, while sustaining the diversity of both the resources and systems (NEMA, 2004).
- Meeting the growing demand for electricity at national and regional levels and increasing area coverage.
- Improving energy efficiency.

The main challenge facing the energy sector in the country today is the severe power shortage arising from the reduced generation capacity due to the prolonged drought and the increased demand.

3.6 Conclusion and Recommendations

It has been established that access to energy is a critical factor for achieving the development goals relating to poverty alleviation, improvements in health and education and environmental sustainability as well as the empowerment of women.

The essential linkages between energy, population growth, environment and social-economic development call for an integrated approach to energy issues, balancing environmental, population management, economic and social concerns.

Energy development, population increase and environmental damage are intricately related thus there is a need to mitigate both the physical and social environmental impacts created by energy development especially hydropower (MEMD, 2002) as well as managing the country population growth rate. Long term strategic energy planning is therefore of critical importance if the country is to sustainably meet the energy needs of a growing population and expanding economy.

More efforts should be directed towards establishing or strengthening institutions for policy formulation, planning and implementation of energy development strategies. Energy planning and population growth should be made an integral part of the development planning process at national, local and community levels if the country is to meet the energy needs of a growing population and expanding economy.

As part of capacity building process, there is need for training of personnel in various energy related areas of expertise including the assessment of energy demand and supply, development, adaptation and transfer including the identification of appropriate technologies. Capacity in the construction, installation, repair and maintenance of energy plants should be enhanced.

A vigorous sensitisation campaign is necessary to the energy suppliers and users about the environmental issues associated with energy. In addition efforts should be made to promote the use of alternative sources

of energy and technologies which are environmentally friendly and to educate the public on efficient energy use. For instance efficient firewood technologies are key in reducing the rate at which wood is being depleted in the country.

Whereas the country is facing an energy shortage, the little energy that is available is not efficiently utilised. It is estimated that 200,000 Ugandans can save power generated by Aggreko thermal station at Lugogo (MEMD, 2006). There is therefore a critical need to improve efficiency in the use of the limited energy resources, particularly at the household level where there is widespread use of ordinary bright bulbs, that utilise only 10% of the energy for lighting and 90% wasted as heat. Improved efficiency in lighting can register significant savings in electricity use. In addition to the use of energy savers and encouraging more use of solar etc.

The Government policy is to promote efficient use of energy in all the sectors of the economy for sustainable energy use and poverty reduction as well.

Energy policies and resources should be directed towards biomass energy, a critical source of energy to the majority of our people especially in the rural areas. High priority should be accorded to research in biomass energy and investment in reforestation and energy plantations.

The deep environmental roots of the current energy crisis requires a regional approach and international cooperation, more so given the trans-boundary nature of environmental problems and the fact that Lake Victoria is a shared resource. Coordinated efforts, networking and exchange of information should be enhanced.

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CHAPTER 4

INTERNAL MIGRATION AND DISPLACEMENT: IMPLICATIONS FOR REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH AND HUMAN RIGHTS IN NORTHERN UGANDA

4.1 Introduction

The continent of Africa generates and hosts the largest share of today's internal migrations and internally displaced persons. Uganda is one of such countries with a large population of rural to urban migrations, and internally displaced persons. In Uganda, there has been a series of internal migrations most of the remarkable internal movements (rural-rural) are sighted in the Northern and Western parts of Uganda.

4.2 Rural to Rural Migration.

This denotes the movement of people from one rural locality to another with less or similar characteristics in terms of development. This form of internal migration is common in areas of western Uganda and is mainly voluntary mostly in search for agricultural land. In Western Uganda, there has been a mass movement of people particularly the Bakiga into the areas of Kibaale and Kyenjojo Districts both voluntarily and involuntarily by the Government since 1972. The government of Uganda in the last century has established 2 resettlement schemes in Kibaale namely Kagadi resettlement scheme and the Bugangaizi resettlement schemes. The First scheme was established in 1972 as a result of voluntary migrations of Bakiga from the over populated areas of Kabale, Kisoro and Rukungiri and they occupied about 100 sq miles of land in this scheme each family was given 10 acres of public land.

The Bugangaizi scheme was established in 1992 and mainly involved involuntary resettlement of Bakiga evicted from Mpokya Forest in Kabarole District each family was given 5 hectares of land. In addition to the above settlement there has been voluntary settlements that are out side the official settlement schemes by the government a case in point is the heavy settlement of Bakiga in Igayaza and Kikwaya parish in Bugangaizi County (The Kibaale land question:2003 Uganda land alliance).

All the above settlements account for about 50.8 percent of the population in the area, causing violent conflicts between the indigenous Banyoro and immigrant Bakiga. (The Kibaale question 2003, Uganda land alliance).

Migration into Kibaale has put pressure on land there and reduced opportunities for traditional and customary sources of livelihood (hunting, access to forest resources and land). Further still the access to social services is hindered as a result of population pressures and unending violent conflicts which affect both the migrants and the indigenous Banyoro in Kibaale. (P-A-E-S 2005 Kampala)

4.3 Rural Urban Migration (RUM)

This type of internal migration denotes movements of people from rural settings to urban settings. In Uganda for instance in the past decade RUM has been one of the most common of all the types of internal migration mostly evident in towns such as Kampala, Jinja, Mbarara among others.

4.4 Population Displacement

In most cases, displacement is forced by conflict or a search for security and welfare by people living in precarious conditions due a crisis including war, conflict and natural disaster. This may eventually cause intensified social vulnerability and increased propensity to poverty. It may also lead to physical and moral denial of basic rights to mainly to food, access to health and quality schooling for children, in addition to sexual violence against girls and women as well as abduction of boys and men.

Table 4.1 IDP Population in the Conflict affected Districts, 2005

No.	District	Population
1.	Adjuman	8,039
2.	Apac	98,193
3.	Gulu	460,226
4.	Kaberamaido	4,956
5.	Katakwi	195,447
6.	Kitgum	310,111
7.	Lira	350,828
8.	Pader	319,506
9.	Soroti	12,992
	TOTAL	1,760,298

Source:UN-OCHA,Uganda,2005

In Uganda, the first IDP camps were established in 1980 in the West Nile region in the districts of Arua, Moyo, and Adjumani, by civilians trying to protect themselves from the violence associated with the overthrow of the government of President Idi Amin (Ayiga 1999). In the recent years, new IDP camps have been established for persons fleeing the dangers of the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) rebels, led by Kony. The proportion of the IDP population has grown tremendously over the years, and by 2003 the number rose to over 1.2 million persons (United Nations, 2004).



The protracted violent conflict in Northern Uganda between the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) and the Government of Uganda, which mainly effects the seven districts located in the Acholi and Lango sub-regions, has for over 20 years, brought terror, brutal violence to communities, resulted in weakening social protection mechanisms among the society, led to abduction of children for use as child-soldiers, local defence units, sex slaves and porters, unknown numbers have been mutilated and / or killed, leaving both physical and psychological scars. Latest information shows that since 1994, over 30,000 persons have been abducted, 25,000 of who are children forced to enrol as soldiers and girls as sex slaves. The conflict has furthermore caused an internal displacement of 1.4 million people, which the UN Emergency Relief Coordinator, Jan Egeland, to described as "among the worst humanitarian disasters in the world".

4.5 Social-economic situation of IDPs in Northern Uganda

Access to basic health care, water and sanitation, and education services in IDP camps in northern Uganda has remained an issue of concern. Recent data show that 58% of health facilities in Lira, 43% in Gulu and 25% in Kitgum districts are non-functional. In addition, the widespread lack of qualified health staff, poor salaries and inadequate working conditions pose a challenge to delivery of services especially in the return areas.

The closure of many schools in the northern and north-eastern regions due to insurgency in Uganda has led to the exclusion of at least 23% of school-age children from primary schooling. Primary school completion rates are extremely low (1.3% on average) in the districts of Gulu, Kitgum, Pader, Apac, Lira, Moroto, Kotido and Nakapiripirit compared to the national average of 22 %. The levels of trauma and indeed depression in children and their teachers have negative effects on the retention and achievement of all children and overall, girls' participation in education is lower than that of boys.

The Labour-force participation rate is the proportion of the economy's working- age population that is economically active. The overall participation rate was 67 percent according to Uganda Bureau of Statistics survey on Northern Uganda, 2005. The Acholi Sub-Region had the lowest labour participation rates (50 percent). The Acholi sub-region has the lowest employment-to-population ratio (50 percent). This low ratio indicates that people in this sub-region were less likely to get jobs. This is also true for people in IDP camps (51 percent).

Acholi sub-region had the highest proportion of economically inactive working-age population (50 percent). The high inactivity rate shows the vulnerability of these people to poverty. In addition, people in the IDP camps were more likely to be economically inactive than those in Non-IDP households (47 percent compared to 30 percent).

Limited access to income is a major obstacle in northern Uganda. The monthly household consumption expenditure in the Northern region (Shs. 72,800) was lower than the national monthly consumption expenditure (Shs.139, 300) recorded in UNHS 2002/03. The budget share of food in the total household expenditure is also much higher in the region (almost 70 percent) than the national average reported in UNHS 2002/03 of 44 percent, indicating that most of the household expenditure is spent on food, drinks and tobacco. This data shows how the displacement has affected the development process in the region and requires immediate attention from all stakeholders.

4.6.0 Situation analysis of access to Reproductive Health in Northern Uganda

4.6.1 STI/STDs and HIV/AIDS

Inadequate access to HIV/AIDS prevention services and psychosocial support for those infected and affected in the conflict-affected districts of northern Uganda remains an important concern. HIV prevalence in the region is estimated at 10.5% compared to national rate at 6.4% (Sero and Behavioural Survey 2004-2005) and 2-3% in neighbouring West Nile regions. In addition, there is limited access to VCT and PMTCT. Less than 3% of HIV-positive women complete proper counselling, testing and accepting PMTCT.

In addition Information on HIV/AIDS services in northern Uganda has generally not been available. This is mainly attributed to the fact that most of the population in the affected districts cannot be adequately and effectively reached and the necessary infrastructure for the provision of such services has been severely disrupted by the insurgency. Available data indicate that only a few HIV/AIDS services are provided. This has left the rates very high hence crippling the entire development process.

IEC is an important strategy for the prevention of HIV. Available data indicates that 99% have heard of STI and HIV/AIDS, 95% cited unprotected sex as the main route of HIV transmission, 18% have ever, used condoms and only 40 percent did not know that HIV could be transmitted from an infected mother to the child during pregnancy and breastfeeding (IOM-UNAIDS-UNFPA – June 2005). Coupled with low PMTCT services in IDP camps, and low knowledge of mother to child infection the rates of HIV/AIDS prevalence are bound to be high.

Studies by IOM among night commuters in Gulu found that the main sources of knowledge about HIV/AIDS were the family (37 percent), health workers (38 percent) and friends (31 percent). About 11 percent of the night commuters reported they heard about HIV/AIDS from infected persons.

Services for OVC's are lacking in most parts of northern Uganda. A Study on vulnerability among children conducted by Save the Children Denmark in Gulu found that HIV/AIDS services targeting children and youth were limited. The situation was found to be similar even among HIV/AIDS unaffected children (Save the Children Fund Denmark undated). Findings by the Uganda AIDS Control Project (2003) in Lira district suggest that indeed HIV/AIDS services targeting children and especially youth are inadequate.

4.6.2 Contraceptives

Contraceptive knowledge and approval is high in Uganda however the level of actual use is as low as 23 percent (2000/01 UDHS) while in Northern Uganda is much lower at 12.0 percent. The proportion of married women aged 15-49 that use effective modern contraceptives is estimated at 6 percent (Makerere University, 2006) and 7% amongst adolescents aged 15-19 (UDHS 2000/01). The absence of adequate contraceptive services can be explained by the high growth rate of the population in the region estimated at 4.5% as compared to other regions of 2.76%, 3.62%, 2.95% for Central, Eastern and western Uganda respectively (2002 Census).

Condom use is equally very low. Only 18% of respondents declared to have ever used a condom. Among those who used a condom, 43% did it during their first sexual intercourse, and 48% the last time they had sex with a casual partner. Males were more likely to have ever used condoms (25%) than females (14%), especially male

youths aged 15-29 years (IOM, UNAIDS & UNFPA, 2005). Some of the reasons for non-use of condoms were lack of availability of condoms and lack of access to it.

4.6.3 Safe motherhood

Child bearing in Uganda begins at an early age. A recent study shows that three in ten teenagers aged 15-19 are already pregnant or are mothers with their 1st child (UDHS 2000/01). Overall, 89% of respondents had at least one child. More than 50% of the respondents having two children were aged 20-24 years. 80% of the respondents with five or more children had no education and were more likely to live in rural camps. Findings from individual interviews showed that only 16% of male respondents and 9% of female did not have children (IOM-UNAIDS-UNFPA June 2005). In general early pregnancies are mainly related to increased lack of contraceptives in northern Uganda, rape and defilement and transactional sex amongst others.

In northern Uganda 1 in every 5 pregnant women carries out an abortion and the proportion of unwanted pregnancies is estimated at 50 percent (Makerere University, 2006). The above is mainly attributed to the lack of adequate health related services and the increasing numbers of the vulnerable children and women every year due to displacement.

Transactional sex is reported to be common in most of the internally displaced people's camps this has mainly been attributed to low incomes, child headed households where in most cases the older females without any income generating activity only resort to prostitution so as to earn a living and also look after their siblings.

4.7 Human rights in Northern Uganda

During the past 18 years over 1.7 million people have been displaced from their homes as a result of internal conflicts in northern Uganda by the Lord's resistance army of these about 80% are in camps. However, the authorities have partially lived up to their obligations to provide basic physical needs and security, (FIDH-FHRI 2002 Report).

Over the years the IDPs have had their rights greatly violated by the LRA rebels to a great extent. This is manifested in form of personal attacks such as torture, rape, abduction-of about 25%, mutilations of body parts and forced recruitment into the rebel forces amongst others. In all this, women and children are the most affected group (FHRI 2002 Report).

In most of the IDP camps, security of both property and life is inadequate therefore people live in a state of tension and fear of attacks on the camps by rebels. Many people have been massacred while many others have been abducted from protected camps. This has therefore increased the number of night commuters who move into the township areas of Gulu, Lira and Pader in order to seek security. It should be noted that these night commuters mostly sleep on streets in the cold, exposing them to diseases due to poor nutrition, shelter and other essential needs that are inadequate. This has therefore, constrained the whole development process in the area.

4.8 Sexual and gender based violence (SGBV)

The most affected human rights are those of women in form sexual and gender based violence (SGBV). Evidence available indicates that gender based violence is the worst form of human rights abuse and is common in the IDP camps. In camps women report sexual and gender based violence as one of the problems being faced, with rape as a leading form of violence. Other forms of violence reported include; abductions, sexual slavery, torture and forced marriage (Amnesty International, 2004). The immediate consequences of gender based violence in the region include social stigmatization, consequence on their economic, social and health rights, and the destruction of the social fabric of the communities (Ondecko and Purdin 2004).

Violence against women goes beyond the direct attacks, rape and physical violence by the rebels. Some of the

long term effects of violence against women in this conflict affected area include early marriages and female headed households. Early marriage is a common phenomenon in this area as parents fear their inability to “control” their daughters and will try to marry them off in order to save the honour of the girl and the family. Early marriages are in themselves, a violation of children’s rights. Furthermore girls who enter marriage are less likely to enjoy their right to education, and are more likely to encounter medical and psychological problems in the case of an early pregnancy. Early marriages are a reflection of the destruction of social care and control mechanisms that are usually expected in the social environment of the community. The traditional courtship systems that regulate marriage arrangements are broken or redundant in IDP setups. The breakdown of this mechanism is a strain on the security of women and girls and results in entering hastily agreed marriages.

4.9 Rights of participation

Internal displacement usually denies free participation in many of the activities for instance majority of the people in northern Uganda have not been participating in any form of the economic activities such as farming, animal rearing, trade and communication as they are confined to some area for security purposes. Women are the most affected group and in Northern Uganda, ISIS-WICCE (2001) found that women heading households were the poorest. A common situation that develops around the IDP camps is the shadow economy. Trade and paid labour in nearby markets and villages become essential sources of income for the inhabitants of the camps. Yet for most female headed households such sources of income are out of reach. If several people are responsible for a household, they are able to split work or employment opportunities. However, for the women who bear the responsibility on their own, it often impossible for them to perform all the tasks. These women therefore remain at the lower level and vulnerable. In addition such women are vulnerable to sexual exploitation thereby being exposed to HIV/AIDS. Their children are more likely to be affected by malnutrition, less likely to receive education and it is often these women or their daughters who are forced into selling sex for survival.

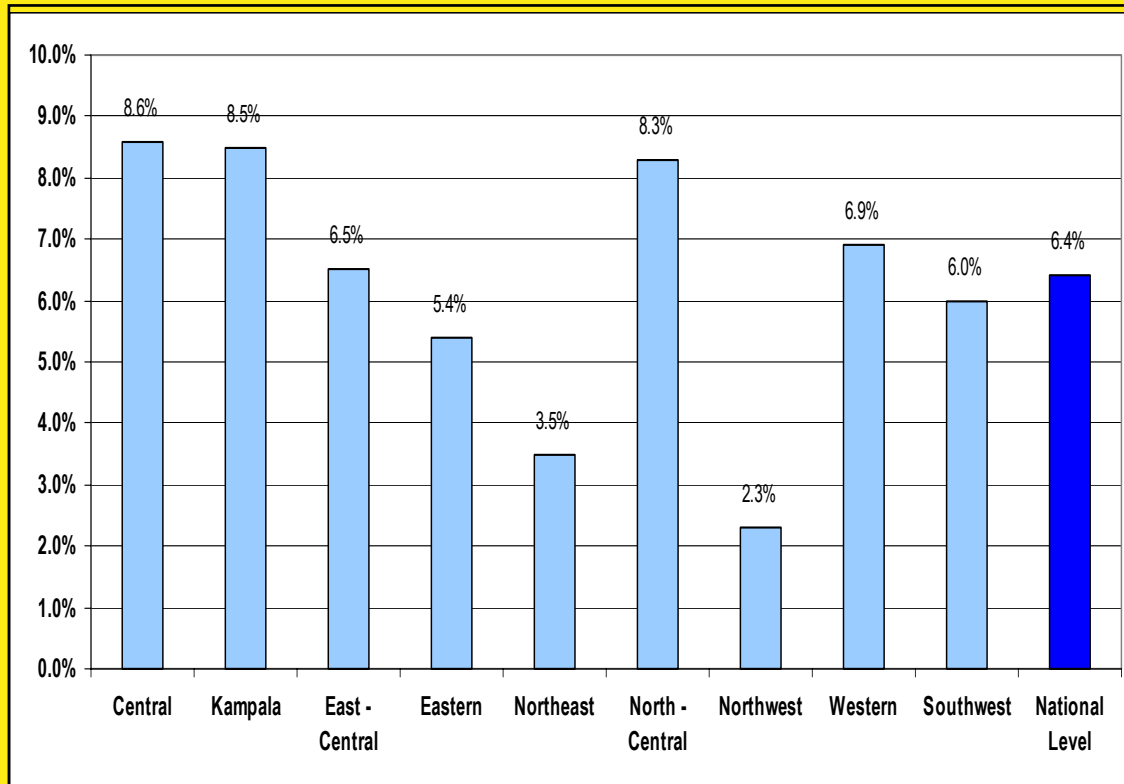
Further still due to the non sufficient protection out of the camps, people cannot risk taking to their fields for cultivation and business, leading to a remarkable increase of hunger in the area (FAO 2006, Report).

4.10 What is being done?

- The government of Uganda under the Prime minister’s office and UN OCHA have started implementing the national policy on internal displacement. The policy contains provisions concerning institutional arrangements, protection of IDPs against arbitrary displacement and during return. Property rights, family unification, food, security, shelter, clothing, education, water/sanitation, health among others are some of the priority areas the policy addresses.
- The government has also continuously initiated and promoted dialogue with warring parties so as to create lasting solutions to the conflict and its effects in the region. Government in partnership with NGOs and bilateral agencies has also implemented a number of programmes such as the Northern Uganda social Action Fund (NUSAF) aimed at improving the security and quality of life in northern Uganda.
- Further still national budget allocation has been directed towards promoting health and the rights of IDPs. In this the government has set up a number of health units in the camps which have helped in improving the Reproductive health status of IDPs.
- The government in partnership with UN agencies such as UNFPA, UNDP, WHO, WFP UNAIDS among other agencies, is implementing an integrated Programme for northern Uganda aimed at solving most of the problems currently facing the region.

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Source: Uganda AIDS Indicator Survey 2004/5 (MOH)

CHAPTER 5

THE DEMOGRAPHICS OF HIV/AIDS: IMPLICATIONS FOR NATIONAL RESPONSE

5.1.0 Introduction

Despite a sharp decline in the prevalence rate of HIV/AIDS, it still remains a serious challenge contributing significantly to morbidity and mortality. According to the national AIDS sero-behavioural survey (2004 and 2005) the overall prevalence of HIV/AIDS in the country is 6.4 percent, with clear social demographic variations. These variations impose challenges for national response, in terms of prevention, treatment, care and support.

As more people become infected with HIV, many will die of AIDS. Despite a triple increase in the number of people receiving anti retroviral therapy worldwide, only one person in ten in Africa, receives it (UNAIDS/WHO, 2006). To get ahead of the epidemic, HIV prevention efforts must be scaled up and intensified as part of a comprehensive response that simultaneously expands access and care. This needs to be complimented with increased global and national commitment (UNAIDS, 2005).

A structured Government response to the HIV/AIDS epidemic in Uganda dates back to 1986 when an AIDS Control Programme was created in the Ministry of Health. Over time, there has been a series of realignment of national response in conformity with the international principle of the 'Three Ones' i.e., one agreed HIV/AIDS action framework that provides the basis for coordinating the work of all partners; one national AIDS

coordinating authority with a broad based multi sector mandate; and one agreed country level monitoring and evaluation system for HIV/AIDS.

Uganda's response has enjoyed bilateral and multilateral support from partners, financially and materially. Various international NGOs have also funded and implemented several programs and activities (UAC, 2001). To this day, although Uganda is still far from achieving universal access, she continues to benefit from support of various countries and institutions for preventive, treatment, care and support programs.

Uganda was one of the countries that signed the Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS at the United Nations General Assembly Special Session (UNGASS) on HIV/AIDS in June 2001. This Declaration of Commitment reflects global consensus on a comprehensive framework to achieve the Millennium Development Goal of halting and beginning to reverse the HIV/AIDS epidemic by 2015. According to Uganda's progress report on UNGASS commitments (2005), Uganda has made spectacular success in reversing the trend of the epidemic over the last two decades. The decline in HIV/AIDS trends means that Uganda has already achieved the HIV/AIDS Millennium Development Goal. The results of the 2004/2005 HIV sero-behavioural survey, however, indicate that Uganda still has a high HIV prevalence rate and this therefore calls for more concerted efforts and commitment to be strengthened into the national response.

This section presents the demographic variations and socio-dynamics of HIV/AIDS in Uganda based mainly on the Sero-behavioural survey 2004/5. Understanding demographic and social dynamics is key to designing mitigation strategies and has profound implications for national responses.

5.2.0 The Demographics and socio dynamics of HIV/AIDS

5.2.1 Age

Over the years, young people (15 – 24 years) especially girls have been categorized as most vulnerable to HIV infection (UAC, 2004). Sentinel surveillance data shows HIV prevalence is markedly low in the age category of 5 – 14 years, begins to increase in the 15 – 19 age group peaking in the age range of 20 – 24 years.

The Uganda HIV/AIDS Sero-behavioural Survey (UHSBS) 2004-05 however, found marked decline in the age specific prevalence rate of HIV infection. The survey found that HIV prevalence is higher among women than men (7.3% of women have HIV compared to 5.2% of men aged 15 – 59yrs) and for both sexes, HIV infection levels in the country are highest among those in the age category 30-34 and are lowest in the 15-19 year age category. Table 5.1 summarizes the HIV prevalence rates by age category for Uganda.

Table 5.1: Women and men age 15-59 who are HIV positive, Uganda 2004-05

Characteristic	HIV sero-prevalence (%)	
	Female	Male
Age		
15-19	2.7	0.3
20-24	6.2	2.3
25-29	8.7	6.0
30-34	12.1	8.1
35-39	9.9	9.3
40-44	8.5	9.1
45-49	8.3	7.2
50-54	5.7	6.9
55-59	5.0	5.9

Source: Uganda AIDS Indicator Survey 2004/5 data

5.2.2 Young people

In Uganda young people are sexually active before age 15, putting them at risk to likely have sex with high-risk partners and are less likely to use condoms (UDHS 2000/01). This is often due to the fact that young people lack information- many do not know how HIV is transmitted, or how to protect themselves, or lack access to contraception. Further more, misperceptions are widespread, particularly as young people get their information from peers and the media.

The decline in HIV prevalence among young people by half or more is however, mainly attributed to changes in behaviour among young people, such as delay in sexual experience and increased condom use (Kiragu, 2001, UNICEF 2002, UNAIDS 2004). Stark differences for males and females remain.

Although there exists wide range of policies and programs addressing youth/young people with regard to HIV/AIDS, funding is still inadequate given the needs of young people (World Bank 2005). Most programs are adult driven and duplication of activities contributes to the failure to adequately address needs of the youth (ACP 2000). Young people are perceived to lack self-confidence; youth focused organisations lack credibility, are neither well co-ordinated nor aware of funding opportunities (World Bank, 2005).

This implies therefore that measures for the young people have to be scaled up. More youth representation on governance bodies in the youth-focused organisation and at the intermediary and national levels is essential. The UACP should strengthen youth networks for advocacy, programming and coordination in order to address lack of knowledge of funding sources and the lack of coordination among youth groups.

The role of parents is also critical with informal “family life education”. Aunts, uncles and grand parents should be in charge of teaching young people the basics of sexuality and relationships to contribute to the reduction of HIV transmission. Young people should also be encouraged to keep in groups of friends e.g., in sports, clubs etc to develop positive ways of meeting healthy activities to engage in, especially among the out of school and the unemployed.

5.2.3 Adults

The sero-behavioural survey 2004/5 showed that the AIDS epidemic is most widespread in an older population. There is a strong need for strengthening behavioral change communication (BCC) including ABC analysis among the adults.

Recently there has been a shift from comprehensive and evidence based prevention messages to abstinence until marriage approach. This is likely to undermine the gains Uganda has made over the last decades. The billboards that promoted condom use have been replaced by abstinence until marriage bill boards (Action Aid, 2005). The situation is worsened by condom shortages although government had earlier developed and disseminated policy guidelines on condom distribution, use and quality control (NSF, 2001).

5.2.4 Sex

The infection rate is higher for women than men with national prevalence among women at 7.3 % and at 5.2 % for men (sero-behavioural survey, 2004/5). Women are particularly vulnerable to heterosexual transmission of HIV due to substantial mucosal exposure to seminal fluids. Sexual coercion and violence of girls and women is also common phenomenon especially due to the traditional submissiveness and rampant poverty. Women are also sexually abused even within marriage. The woman has little or no negotiating power and cannot deny sex nor demand safer sex practices such as condom use (Aids net, 2005).

In addition, women may not think they are at risk for HIV infection. They may not heed symptoms that could serve as warning signals of HIV infection, such as recurrent yeast infections and PID.

This calls for possible strengthening of gender integration into national response. Women need to be educated

on the need for safer sex practices and should be economically empowered so as to practice safer sex. Offering tailor-made counselling to married women through existing family planning services, promoting the female condom and the use of microbicides will go along way in addressing the problem.

There is also a strong need to create awareness among the public and decision-makers about the challenges of gender based violence and coercion against women and children. Gender concerns need to be on the national agenda, with specific actions and resources dedicated to address the increasing impact on women and girls. Violence should be raised as a public health threat in general and as a propagator of HIV in particular. Legislative action and enforcement is required to stem the problem of gender based sexual violence.

Early diagnosis allows women to make informed reproductive health choices and therefore, women should be encouraged to consider HIV testing if they have engaged in behaviours that put them at risk of infection. For sex workers and other women, there is need to increase income generating capacity and improve food situation – which are important measures to make them less vulnerable to sexual exploitation.

Respect for sexual and reproductive health rights of HIV positive women is mandatory. Therefore all pregnant women should be encouraged to take an HIV test and thereafter register for Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission (PMTCT). However, poverty, stigma, gender and power relations complicate women's decision making on whether to breast feed or not and the PMCT facilities for the services are still inadequate in relation to the targets (Action Aid, 2005). Further more, attainment of the target to reducing MTCT is constrained by instances of drug stock outs and dependency on donor support and civil society organizations.

The availability of this program service/ service will increase uptake of VCT in a synergistic fashion. MTCT prevention programs are also crucial entry points for the introduction of antiretro viral treatment of the mother and family when indicated and therefore need support and funding.

5.2.5 Marital status

A common assumption is that young single people are at the highest risk of infection and consequently many programmes are targeted at the young single people. The sero-behavioural survey data however, shows that HIV is higher among married people. Married spouses that stayed together were at a lower risk of being HIV seropositive than those staying apart.

Women usually marry earlier in life to considerably older men, who are likely to have had more sexual partners. Thus marriage increases women's risk of HIV/AIDS. Condom use is rare among married; it is much more common among the sexually active young people, although consistent condom use is very rare in all age categories (Akinironola B, 2004). Women, especially in rural areas are most vulnerable to sexual violence and other forms of abuse that predispose them to HIV infection. Although communities have recognised reality of HIV/AIDS and transformed some of their cultural practices that increased chances of infection for the married women, a number of cultural practices in different societies that 'allowed extra marital, casual and spontaneous sexual practices such as widow inheritance still do exist (Action Aid International. 2005). Government needs to create a zero tolerant environment for the abuse of rights of women and girls.

Discordance, where only one partner is infected with HIV, is also extremely high. The sero survey data shows that 48 % of couples in which at least one partner is infected are discordant, meaning even some people in faithful, monogamous marriages could be at risk. Consistent use of condoms prevents HIV transmission to the uninfected partner better than prevention counselling alone.

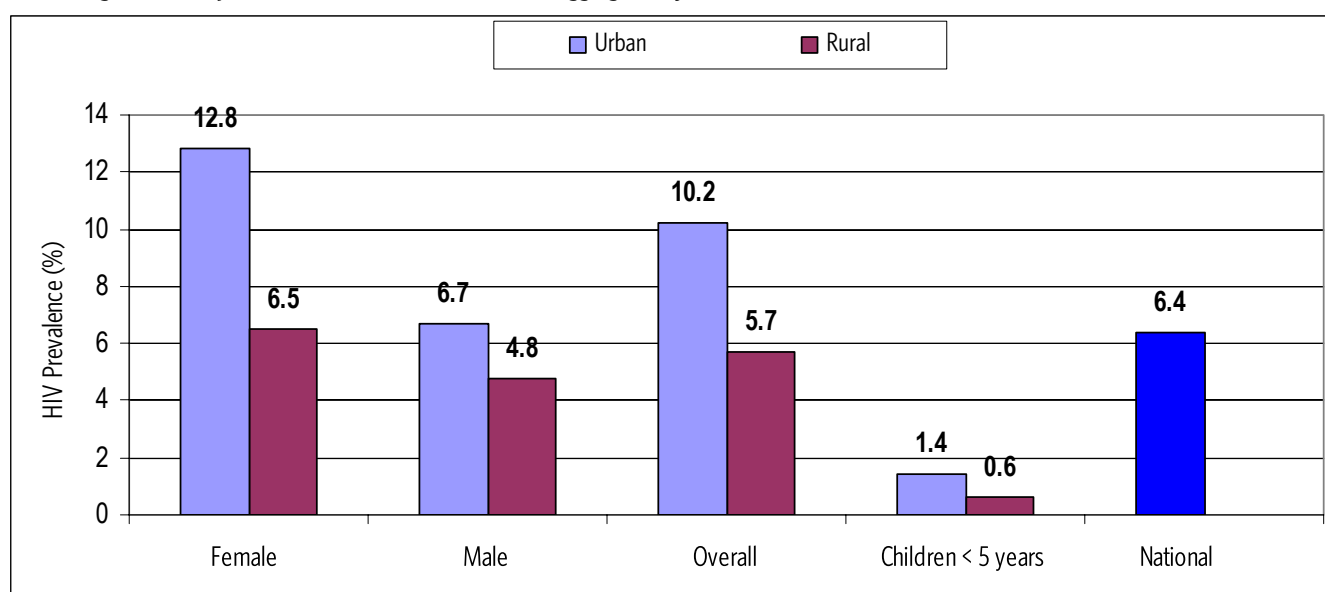
Since discordant couples represent a critical risk group of the population, improved counselling protocols that clearly explain discordance, emphasize high risk transmission, and support risk reduction are urgently needed.

5.2.6 Location

The HIV Sero-Survey results also confirm that Ugandan adults living in urban areas are almost twice as likely to be infected with HIV compared to their rural counterparts.

This could be due to urbanisation that comes along with search for jobs in the urban centres, where girls end up as female sex workers. Another problem is the loss of close contact with older relatives in the rural areas, resulting into loss of morality among urban dwellers.

Figure 5.1: HIV prevalence in urban and rural areas disaggregated by sex



Source: Uganda AIDS Indicator Survey 2004/5 data.

The higher urban distribution calls for more urban-based prevention, care and support services and stronger rural prevention including free condom distribution.

In contrast to urban areas, there are some characteristics of rural culture that are different or more pronounced, which complicate the management of the epidemic. Rural communities can provide their members both strong support and strong condemnation at times. In rural areas, traditional moral values, conformity to community norms and intolerance of diversity can be strong (Rounds KA, 1989). In some cases, stigmatization of people with AIDS makes effective HIV prevention nearly impossible (NAC, 1992). Confidentiality can be hard to maintain in rural areas, yet it is crucial for many residents due to fear of stigmatization (Frazier EM, 1996). Testing for HIV, discussing sexual practices with clinicians, obtaining drug treatment, or buying condoms in local stores—all important preventive activities—can be difficult to do confidentially in rural areas. Access to preventive services is hindered because rural residents need to travel several hours for medical care or social services.

Prevention efforts that are incorporated into already existing services can be effective in rural areas. As HIV and related illnesses begin to strain existing health care services in rural areas, access to quality treatment is critical. Aggressive diagnosis and treatment of STDs will help prevent HIV transmission. Rural communities need to foster acceptance of prevention messages for safer sex and especially teens, should have easier and more confidential access to low priced or free condoms.

Rural development policies and programmes in support of poverty alleviation, food and livelihood security, the empowerment of rural women, etc. are, in effect, also HIV prevention and AIDS mitigation measures and vice versa.

5.2.7 Regional variations

There also exists enormous variation in the sero-prevalence rates across geographic areas. For example, Kampala District, the Central and North Central parts of the country have the highest rates (8.5%, 8.6% and 8.3% respectively) while North West has the lowest rates (2.3%). Kampala District and the central region are mostly urban, a probable reason for the high HIV prevalence compared to other regions.

Parts of Northern Uganda remain mired in a conflict between the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) and government-backed militia. During the conflict, LRA rebels have abducted thousands of children, 20% of who are girls vulnerable to sexual exploitation, gender-based violence, including rape and other forms of sexual abuse. HIV prevalence levels amongst the LRA troops are worrying because there have been many reports of mass-rapes and of deliberate HIV infection, often against civilian populations (Human Rights Watch, 2003).

Vulnerability to HIV transmission in conflicts may also arise from reduced access to health prevention and care activities, either due to break down of health infrastructures or the absence of adequate facilities in locations where displaced persons escape.

Such emergency situations call for emergency relief interventions to provide special protection for women and children against sexual abuse. In addition, disaster relief supplies need to include items such as condoms, and culturally sensitive informational material for displaced persons on how to protect themselves from HIV/AIDS.

Emergency services should include preparedness form care after rape: social support, emergency contraception and post exposure prophylaxis for HIV.

5.2.8 Occupation

All different sects of the population are exposed to getting HIV, but engagement in certain activities, formal or informal predisposes some groups of people to higher vulnerability to the epidemic. Among the groups that suffer the most vulnerability are the commercial sex workers, truck drivers, the police and people in the fishing industry, and these are obvious groups in need.

Commercial sex workers start sexual intercourse early, often have non-regular partners and do not occasionally use condoms. A well co-ordinated campaign against the disease should be undertaken by targeting those who are at high risk. Condom use should be promoted especially among the commercial sex workers who seem to be engaged in sexual intercourse with multiple partners.

This implies therefore that government has to strengthen strategies to prevent female sex workers from becoming infected with HIV. One of the strategies could be through the promotion of condom use. However, female sex workers often face problems when negotiating condom use with their clients as some clients claim that condoms reduce sexual pleasure. For this reason it would be imperative to find alternative contraceptive methods such as the female condom and, more recently microbicides. These methods are likely to improve the female sex workers' situation, as they will be in control of using them. Female sexual workers are also predisposed to STIs and therefore effective

diagnosis and management of STIs would be crucial in HIV prevention efforts addressing them

Truck drivers are always on the move and the police leave solitary lives, often being transferred from one station to another. Such movements predispose these groups to have sexual contacts with multiple partners. The government should control the disease by trying to break the chain of HIV infection through promoting condom use and availing them in large quantities.

HIV prevalence rates are up to more than three times higher among fishing communities than the national average (Grellier et al 2004, Tanzarn and Bishop Sambrook 2003, NAADS 2003), yet there has, generally, been limited specific attention on fishing throughout the history of HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment, care and support.

5.3.0 Work place policy

One critical sector where a glaring gap exists is combating HIV/AIDS in the work places, both formal and informal, government and non-government. In Uganda, the workplace policy has to a large extent received a lip service. The Ministry of Gender Labour and Social Development spearheaded the development of the policy on HIV/AIDS and the workplace (finalised in December 2003). However the policy has not yet been widely disseminated.

At some of the corporate bodies, where the policy has been implemented, there has been an overwhelming staff response. Cases of absenteeism for those who have declared their status have been on a steady decline and where previously staff shied away from work, thinking they were infected, the negative test results have served to motivate them. It is however important to note that, majority of Ugandans are not employed in the formal sector.

The investment in employees improves profitability because of increased man-hours on the job. In most corporate companies, the strategy is to assist infected staff live longer, and to put in place mechanisms to prevent those not infected from contracting the disease, but it is only in the formal sector where only minority of the population work. There is therefore a strong call on the government to incorporate the policy for the informal sector, where more vulnerable groups are found.

Organizations need to develop guiding policies and translate them into programs with adequate funding allocated for their implementation in order to effectively respond. The implementation of such work place policies partly calls for the inclusion of HIV awareness and prevention campaigns, support and care for staff infected and affected by HIV and AIDS, as well as creation of a conducive environment that is free of stigma or discrimination; respect for staff who are living with or are directly affected by HIV.

In all this, gender dimensions should be put into consideration, as it is well known that HIV impacts differently on male and female employees.

5.4.0 Conclusion and recommendations

Uganda still has a high HIV prevalence of 6.4. There are large regional, gender, marital and occupational disparities and a shift from young people to adults aged 30 – 39 years. There are high prevalence rates mainly among women, among the fishing communities and the conflict areas. Awareness continues to be high but translating this information into behaviour change remains difficult. There is therefore, a need to adopt a comprehensive approach that includes prevention, treatment and mitigation.

Government of Uganda should further reaffirm the Ministry of Health and Uganda AIDS Commissions' commitment to a comprehensive evidence based approach- i.e., The ABC and even introduce the female condom and microbicides so that women can directly influence their own prevention.

Additional resources must be sought and government should commit increased budgets for HIV programs so that all Ugandans can attain universal access to HIV prevention, care and treatment services. A significant behaviour change strategy should be developed to prevent those infected from infecting others and protect those who are especially vulnerable from infection.

As women represent a particularly vulnerable group, there is need to secure their sexual and reproductive health rights. In addition to strategies for changing human behaviour, there is need to also address factors

that continue to fuel the pandemic such as the insecurity in Northern Uganda where majority of people are confined to IDP camps that often lack the most basic health services.

Advocacy is needed to create a supportive environment for social change through policies, programs and legislation. Information, education and communication are further needed to encourage individuals to change their behaviour. Counselling and training are needed to bring about more effective interpersonal communications. Access to services must be ensured, and research is needed to identify problems and potential solutions.

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CHAPTER 6

INTERGRATING HIV/AIDS INTO REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH

6.1.0 Introduction

The developing world faces an enormous task to achieve the requirements both of the ICPD PoA and the MDGs by 2015. Among others, the need to improve reproductive health and tackle the growing challenge of HIV/AIDS remains critical.

Several concerns continue to impede progress in Uganda's quest for HIV / AIDS prevention and treatment; and universal access to reproductive health services. Whereas in many countries there has been significant progress in the decline of HIV prevalence, most of the RH indicators remain poor, are stagnating or in some cases worsening.

Specific to Uganda, Political leadership demonstrated for HIV/AIDS is almost lacking for other aspects of RH. Additionally, the Ministry of Health houses both the AIDS Control Programme and the RH Division but the two units do not plan together. HIV/AIDS programmes are fairly well funded but implementation approaches remain vertical. On the other hand, RH programmes are poorly funded. Funding for RH/HIV/AIDS is almost entirely provided by donors.

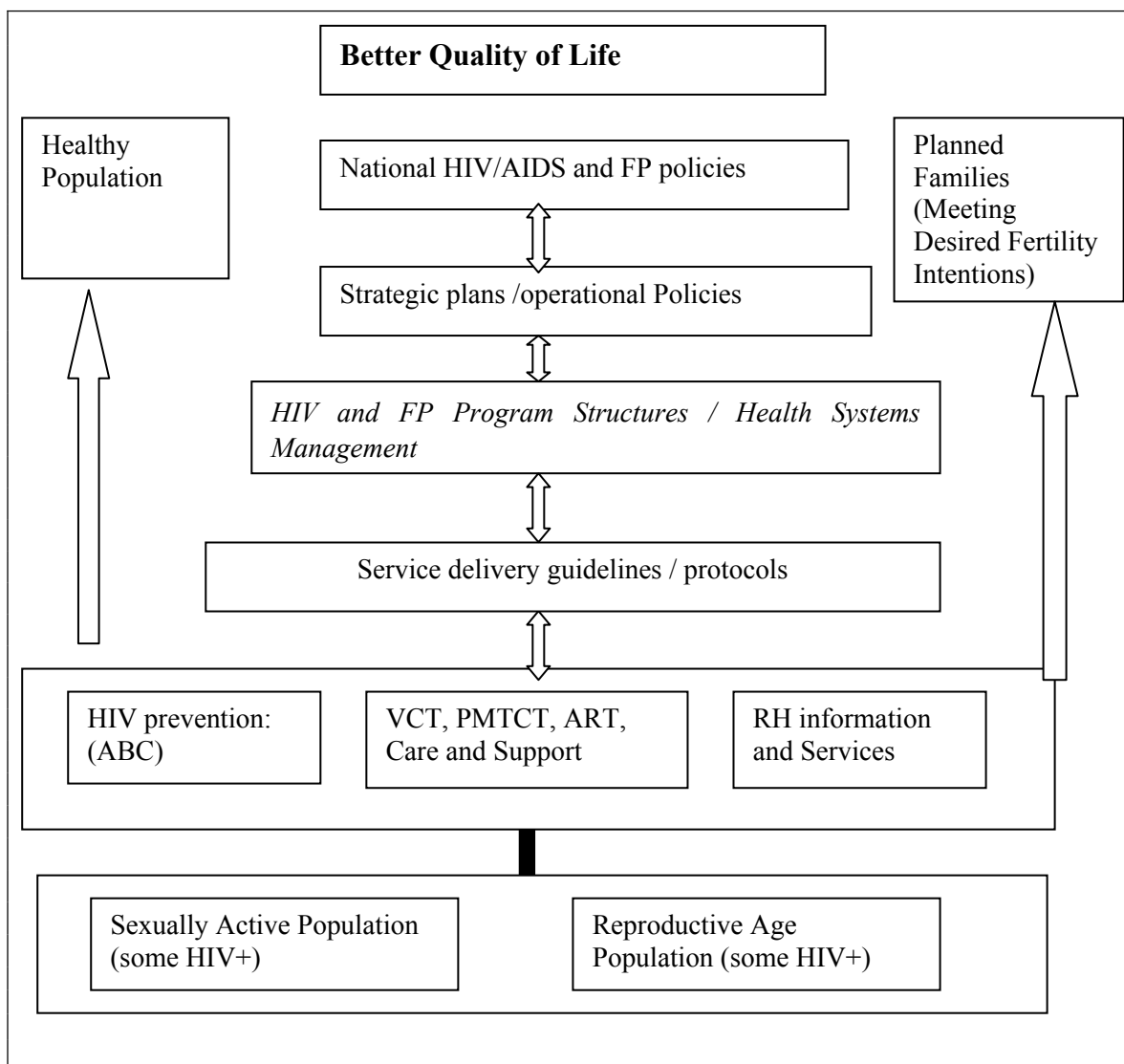
These factors have led to an increasing need for policy makers, donors and program implementers alike to enhance the linkages between RH and HIV / AIDS programs. This chapter examines the concepts, challenges and opportunities for integration.

6.1.0 Definitions and conceptual framework

Integration of services has been defined as the provision of two or more services at the same time with the provider of one service actively encouraging the client to consider using the other services within a single visit. The principle here is to make the services more efficient and convenient to the client. It may be noted here that this definition does not require the services to be offered in the same premises, or by the same service provider.

Other definitions refer to Integration as the delivery of two or more types of services previously provided separately, as a single, coordinated, and combined service. However, despite extensive literature on the subject there does not appear to be consensus on the operational definition of integrated services – whether it allows for a degree of stand-alone services, and which services should be integrated. Some literature thus prefers to use the term “Strengthening Linkages” because it leaves less room for speculation than does integration. A Conceptual Framework for the Integration of Reproductive Health and HIV / AIDS is proposed in Uganda, as in Figure 6.1 below.

Figure 6.1: Conceptual Framework for integration of FP within HIV / AIDS



Source: MISR/POLICY II Project, Uganda

The Model implies integration at three levels – at the national level / Policy level, the strategy level and the service delivery level. In addition, integration is required at the systems level – both at program organization and service delivery. It assumes that the demand and use of integrated services can influence their sustainability.

6.2.0 Rationale for integration

The central tenet of integration of reproductive health and HIV / AIDS programs and services is synergy. The aim should be to ensure that there are no missed opportunities for RH promotion and HIV and AIDS prevention, treatment and care.

Integration of services is considered a way of expanding access to services, improving efficiency and cost effectiveness in service delivery and enhancing opportunities for delivery of more services per client contact. The most successful experiences suggest that integration enables providers to offer more convenient, comprehensive services. Through integration, more people are reached with a broader range of services.

At the policy level, although the resource envelope for HIV /AIDS programs has recently improved, funding for RH programs and services is not increasing as much or as fast. Yet in developing countries, most HIV infection is heterosexually transmitted and over half of those infected are women of reproductive age.

In addition, many HIV infected women are likely to need reproductive health services. Besides, women seeking reproductive health services are also likely to require HIV prevention, diagnosis and treatment services. It may be argued that these women are likely to be married and thus at low risk for HIV infection. However, evidence from several countries suggests that marriage offers women little or no protection against HIV infection since married women have little or no bargaining power for safe sex with their spouses, in settings where extramarital relations are customary.

On the epidemiological front, integration is most appropriate in countries with “generalized epidemics” where the HIV prevalence is above 1 percent among pregnant women and the epidemic has moved beyond the highest risk groups. In such settings the number of people requiring both HIV /AIDS related services and reproductive health services is likely to be high. (The majority of sub Saharan and Asian countries fit in this bracket.

Further rationale for integration of RH and HIV / AIDS is provided by the undeniable fact that programmatically; the two share several critical components, as illustrated in Figure 6.2 below.

Table 6.1: Programmatic Components Reproductive Health and HIV / AIDS

Components of Reproductive Health Programs	Components of HIV/AIDS Programs
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Counseling and IEC ▪ Provision of contraceptives and condoms ▪ STI screening and treatment ▪ Infection prevention ▪ Youth friendly services ▪ Male involvement ▪ Community participation ▪ Antenatal and newborn care ▪ Safe delivery ▪ Emergency obstetric care ▪ Post abortion care 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Behavior change through IEC, counseling. ▪ Condom promotion and distribution ▪ Voluntary counseling and testing ▪ Management of STIs ▪ Prevention of mother to child transmission ▪ Youth targeted programs ▪ Treatment, care and support ▪ Community participation ▪ Health worker safety

6.3.0 Models / types of integration

Integration has been found to have different practical meanings in different settings. On the one hand, integration of RH into HIV / AIDS may entail the provision of ANC / STI / FP information and services into VCT / PMTCT or vice versa. On the other hand integration may adopt a health systems approach. In the latter approach the integration may occur at the level of service delivery, program management and at the level of systems support (training, logistics, M&E, record keeping, etc).

There is no single model for integration of HIV / AIDS and reproductive health. However, three forms of integration are commonly observed:

1. HIV services are usually provided through RH planning programs. These services generally include sexual risk-reduction counselling (BCC), condom promotion, HIV voluntary counselling and testing (VCT) and PMTCT.
2. Efforts have begun to add RH (particularly FP) counselling and services to HIV services such as VCT and prevention of mother-to-child transmission (PMTCT). For HIV-infected women, ready access to family planning can help avert unintended pregnancies and thus reduce numbers of HIV-infected infants.
3. Being explored (Kenya, South Africa) is the integration of family planning into care and support for people living with HIV. This will enable voluntary caregivers to be able to respond to RH problems and queries as they arise in the community.

6.4.0 Status of Integration of RH and HIV / AIDS in Uganda

The status of integration is best discussed at policy and program implementation levels. Looking at the former, the degree to which HIV / AIDS policies in Uganda address FP differs. The national VCT policy currently under review is the most comprehensive in addressing family planning. The National Policy Guidelines for VCT highlight the importance of assessing clients' needs for family planning and other services. Existing PMTCT policies only partially address family planning but are undergoing revision to strengthen the FP component. ART policies and guidelines do not address family planning primarily because of the pressing need to expand and consolidate ART services and achieve treatment goals.

Conversely, HIV/AIDS issues and services—particularly VCT and PMTCT—are addressed in the National Policy Guidelines and Service Standards for Reproductive Health that govern the delivery of FP services.

Looking at the institutional framework for addressing RH and HIV / AIDS, one finds that the RH and HIV / AIDS services are vertical and non-integrated—HIV/AIDS is under the Ministry of Health (MOH) HIV/AIDS Control Program (within the Communicable Diseases unit) while RH falls within the Reproductive Health Division. Under the current structure, the Reproductive Health Division is solely responsible for any RH services or information provided at HIV/AIDS service sites.

At the implementation level, family planning is an integral component of VCT services at the AIDS Information Center, the largest provider of VCT. Indeed, RH service integration is more evident in VCT and PMTCT settings where FP counselling; provision of contraceptive methods other than condoms; and information, education, and communication (IEC) materials are available in varying degrees. However, condoms are promoted primarily to prevent HIV infection and re-infection rather than for the prevention of unintended pregnancy. Also, a limited range of non-surgical contraceptives is made available to clients, and service providers have been trained in FP service delivery and referrals for specialized FP services. In fact, most counsellors in HIV/AIDS settings have received at least some kind of training in FP counselling and contraceptive methods. However, the formal referral systems and mechanisms are weak or nonexistent and coordination remains problematic

because of the vertical management of FP/reproductive health (RH), VCT, and PMTCT programs.

6.5.0 Challenges and constraints to integration

- Shortages of manpower – may overburden staff and weaken services.
- FP service personnel may not be trained to offer HIV / AIDS related services, and vice versa.
- Client time wasted through lengthy counselling sessions and waiting times.
- Weak logistics systems – frequent stock outs of FP supplies may undermine strong HIV / AIDS services.
- Each aspect requires strong systems for supervision, logistics management and referrals for follow up.
- The persistence of vertically run programs – FP and HIV programs are often implemented by different programs, with different policies and different sources of funds Unique contraceptive considerations for HIV+ women. For the integration of HIV service components into FP services, a possible challenge is that there is a possibility of provider reluctance to offer services due to HIV associated stigma and fear of occupational exposure to infection. Even when successful models of integration are found, their adoption will require a change in government and donor policies that promote vertical programs.

6.6.0 Opportunities for Integration

FP services for HIV positive women: Preventing unintended pregnancy among HIV-positive women is an effective approach to reducing paediatric HIV infection and vital to meeting HIV-positive women's sexual and reproductive health needs. Contraceptive services for HIV-positive women are one of the four cornerstones of a comprehensive program for prevention of mother-to-child transmission of HIV (PMTCT).

Diagnosis and treatment of STIs: Screening for STIs could be undertaken in FP clinics and treatment provided syndromically. This has the potential for reduction of the rate of HIV infection, though research findings on this have been contradictory (Rakai, Mwanza).

Sexual risk reduction counselling (BCC): Education on unsafe sex provides opportunities for RH service providers to address HIV and AIDS prevention, and vice versa.

Programs for combating sexual and gender based violence: By addressing gender based inequity and violence government can simultaneously achieve goals for RH and HIV /AIDS. Girl child education, better access to information and services, reduction in harmful traditional practices, prevention of early marriage, all will have an impact on the RH of women and slow down the spread of the epidemic among women. Male involvement in RH is a critical element here.

Condom Promotion (Dual Protection): Condom use is an effective HIV / STI prevention strategy as well as one of the strongest contributions for Family Planning to HIV and AIDS. VCT centres can provide contraceptive methods, including condoms.

Logistics management: Distribution systems for contraceptives and other RH commodities can also be used for HIV / AIDS supplies, including ARVs.

Box 1

Case Study – AIDS Information Center: Integrating FP services into VCT

Opened in 1990 as a single site offering only HIV voluntary counseling and testing (VCT), the AIC now offers VCT integrated with multiple reproductive health services to thousands of clients each year at six main sites in Uganda. Receiving about 250 clients daily at these sites, the AIC is now one of the largest nongovernmental providers of VCT services in the country.

First provided at the main Kampala facility in 1993, family planning services have been offered at branches in the cities of Jinja, Mbarara, and Mbale since 1995. There was initial resistance from the VCT counselors regarding time constraints. Many thought that by integrating services, including family planning, counseling sessions would become much longer. But this was addressed through training. Reproductive health volunteers also assist counselors to help ease the burden of providing multiple services.

For each client, a typical visit to the AIC includes pretest counseling, HIV testing, HIV prevention counseling, delivery of test results obtained on-site, and post-test counseling, all in a single visit lasting from 45 to 90 minutes. Counselors mention the AIC's family planning services in both pretest and HIV prevention counseling, where they also demonstrate correct condom use. During post-test counseling, counselors offer free condoms and advice on how to negotiate condom use. The reproductive health volunteers are also in the waiting room throughout the day, providing family planning information, identifying particular family planning needs, and referring clients to counselors who can meet those needs.

Another barrier to integration — that many of the counselors did not have medical backgrounds — was resolved by creating an internal referral system. Non-medical counselors would assess the reproductive health needs of clients and then refer them to counselors who had medical backgrounds to provide further services. If clients request other methods such as injectables or intrauterine devices, they are referred to counselors who are also nurses.

Data from the AIC indicate that condoms are the most popular contraceptive method, with almost a third of family planning clients using condoms plus another, more effective method for dual protection against unintended pregnancy and HIV infection. Demand for family planning has increased over time, and approximately 8 percent of clients at the four main sites offering family planning services accessed those services in 2002. Other services that have been integrated into the AIC include syphilis testing, management of sexually transmitted infections and services targeting young people.

6.7.0 Recommendations

1. Advocate better policies supporting integration and driving better resource allocation. Evidence from program evaluations and operations research is instrumental in informing advocacy efforts.
2. Undertake research to provide evidence on the RH benefits of integrating HIV / AIDS into RH programs. Research is needed to demonstrate that integration will not compromise the quality of services and that it will actually improve RH. Such research should test different models of integration and their effect on cost effectiveness, service quality, adoption and continuation of FP, etc

3. Strengthen health systems – Support RH commodity security, strengthen human resource management, and develop institutional capacities for integrated service delivery.
4. Coordinate planning and management cycles to institutionalize integration.
5. Strengthen partnerships at international, regional and country levels and between public and private sectors.
6. Maintain flexibility in integrating RH and HIV / AIDS programming. Considerations include available human and financial resources; human resource capacity; community needs and existing services; HIV / AIDS prevalence; target groups.
7. Galvanize support for condom programming to provide adequate supply of condoms to meet client needs for dual protection. Actions here include needs assessment, capacity building, IEC / BCC and advocacy.
8. Increased community participation to strengthen links between community level BCC interventions and services; and to create demand for integrated services.
9. Stigma reduction to promote equal use of both RH and HIV / AIDS services.

6.8.0 Conclusion

Achieving the reproductive health goals set out in the ICPD PoA, the MDGs and other international instruments calls for the utilization of all opportunities to attend to the wide range of unmet health needs, including for RH and HIV / AIDS. The obstacles for integrating RH and HIV and AIDS need not preclude integration. Sexual and reproductive health is a right for all, regardless of HIV status. HIV positive women have special RH needs that need to be carefully considered during programming, and addressed within a human rights framework. Thus, a clear understanding of what constitutes integration, its associated costs and benefits is important for scaling up efforts to reach more underserved women and men. Effective integration calls for commitments at policy, program and community levels to deliver on the promises made in Cairo, and other international declarations.

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Source: Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS)

CHAPTER 7

EMPLOYMENT IN UGANDA, THE POTENTIAL OF THE INFORMAL SECTOR

7.1.0 Introduction

The informal sector has experienced rapid growth in developing countries and has consequently attracted increasing attention. The informal sector activities cover a vast range of small-scale, income generating activities which take place outside the official regulatory framework and typically utilize a low level of capital, technology and skills, offering commensurately low levels of pay, little if any job security and often appalling working conditions. The informal sector reflects the survival strategy of the poor, those without steady jobs or incomes and without any form of social insurance. It is often the only recourse for workers left to fend for themselves. The low productivity and income combined with the absence of social protection, training or social services is a particularly harsh burden on many of the most vulnerable groups in society, including women, children and disabled who are disproportionately concentrated in the informal sector (ILO, 2002)

In Uganda, the informal economy is stimulating interest among academicians researchers, social development activists, and policy planners. It is generally believed that the rapid growth of the sector has been influenced by underemployment and unemployment. Increasingly, the informal sector is developing as a resilient economic base.

As an economic system, the informal sector in Uganda dates back to the 1970s, gaining more visibility in the 1980s, and consolidating in the 1990s. Many factors have contributed to this development, including the

economic crises of the 1970s and the 1980s resulting from the expulsion of enterprising Indians, the collapse of the formal economy, political instability (Okumu, 1994), retrenchment, downsizing the public service workforce, lay-offs in public sector organizations, demobilization of servicemen, the increasing number of school drop outs, on-going rural-urban migration, the increasing entry of women and children to the sector, frozen vacant positions in the public sector (Ssemogerere, 1996), and the automatic entry of illiterate people into the sector (Katabira, 1995).

7.2.0 Definition of the informal sector employment

Informal sector employment refers to persons employed in privately-owned enterprises having not more than 5 paid employees. Included are persons engaged in activities undertaken at a market place, in a temporary structure, on a footpath, on the street or in another open place, excluded are domestic servants of private households though other countries include them. Persons employed in registered cooperatives, professional-type enterprises (e.g. doctor's or lawyer's practices) and in enterprises using high technology are also excluded.

7.3.0 Uganda Labour Force

The Integrated Household Survey (IHS 1992/1993) and the 2002/03 Uganda National Household Survey (UNHS, 2002-2003) show that labour force in Uganda has expanded considerably over the period. The total labour force was estimated at 9.8 million in 2002/03 compared to 5.2 million in 1992-93. This shows that the Ugandan labour force growth rate is 5.6 percent annually. Over the years, the increase of the labour force has come mostly from the growth in the working age population.

The rural-urban variation in the labour force growth has also been significant. Between 1992/1993 IHS and 2002/03 UNHS, the rural labour force growth rate was 5.0 per cent annually while the urban labour force growth rate was by 9.8 per cent. This reflects the impact of urbanization that has taken place in the country.

7.4.0 Informal Sector in Uganda

It is observable that in Uganda the formal sector is small and does not cope with the growing number of job seekers in the country. Every year a large number of people leave the education sector as graduates with certificates, diplomas and degrees while others simply drop out of the sector to enter the labour market to find productive employment opportunities. The structural adjustment programmes implemented by the Government, which hitherto was the largest employer, resulted into a reduction in Government recurrent expenditure and expenditure in public parastatals leading to cut out of posts and retrenchment of employees. The reduction of the formal sector associated with low rate of its expansion has led the informal sector to offer alternative opportunities.

In Uganda, informal sector enterprises are small-scale, labor-intensive operations, a low level of technology, few capital requirements, a simple division of labor, and little differentiation in the ownership of means of production. The main constraints of the informal sector include the perception that the sector is for the uneducated and lowly qualified members of society whose products are meant for the poor; lack of articulated government supportive policy; lack of skills; inability to access credit; lack of suitable operational environment - poor working conditions without infrastructure facilities, restrictive legislation and banking laws and practices; lack of preparedness and orientation for informal sector operators (Draft National Employment Policy, 2004)

7.5.0 Role of Informal Sector in Uganda

Household enterprises are important for a number of reasons that have to do with poverty reduction and employment generation. The thrusts in development literature on micro-enterprises and non-farm employment over the last decade regard household enterprises as the first unit of micro-entrepreneurship – the family

firm or the non-farm business that could potentially grow into a small or medium enterprise. They are also a special category of micro-enterprise – tiny businesses that work on the basis of family ownership and labour, sometimes in trades passed down over generations (or castes), often relying on family based apprenticeship - either poised for take-off or doomed to failure. Second, in rural areas of Uganda these enterprises fulfil the important role of absorbing excess labour supply from the agricultural sector and may have a bearing on migration to urban areas. Individuals not absorbed in agricultural work or with little income from agriculture tend to supplement their income with a household enterprise such as making local brew, burning charcoal, making bricks, sand and stone quarrying, etc – before stooping to casual labour, or staying out of the labour force. Thus, they help to develop the rural non-farm sector, rather than migrate to towns and cities. Under other circumstances, they may be fountains of entrepreneurship – composed of individuals who fail to get paid jobs. Thirdly, in Uganda, household enterprises employ a sizable proportion of the working population; they constitute over 25 percent of the total workforce.

Thus, the informal sector certainly is an integral part of the economy, a substantive sector of the labour market which plays a big role in the production of goods and services, contributing to income generation and employment.

7.6.0 Scope of the Informal Sector

The informal sector in Uganda covers all branches of economic activity, this chapter covers only the non-agricultural sector. This is because there is no evidence to suggest that formal institutions have been a source of hindrance, obliging farms to operate outside the framework of law, even though numerous subsistence farms co-exist along with large commercial farms. Unlike the non-agricultural sector where enterprises are expected to be registered and licensed, and comply with a host of regulations, there are no such obligations in agriculture. All farming activities enjoy equal legal status in Uganda even though there is considerable heterogeneity in terms of size, organization and access to markets.

7.6.1 Challenges of the Informal Sector in Uganda

The informal sector although vibrant and growing, is faced with a number of challenges. These include:

- The inadequate skills within the sector
- The sector's lack of ability to procure/secure credit facilities
- The unfavourable working conditions for workers in the sector.
- Fragile banking system, the aversive and inconsistent tax regime that forces many enterprises to operate underground; and the prohibitively high rates of interest
- The negative societal perceptions that the informal sector is for the low class of society, and that it produces goods to suit the demands of the poor
- Insecurity of tenure

7.6.2 Legal and Institutional Framework for Informal Sector

The draft MSE policy (MoFPED 1999:6) points out that the 'existing legal and regulatory framework in which MSEs operate is not favourable for their development. Laws and by-laws, rules and regulations and their enforcement or non-enforcement pose major obstacles to the development of MSEs.' The common direct problems identified relate to business registration and licensing, securing land title deeds and the application of the tax regime. Indirect problems relate to lack of commercial courts to settle trade disputes, lack of guarantees to access financial services, the presence of too many laws, rules and regulations, which are unclear to the micro and small-scale entrepreneurs.

The government has since 1996 put in place quite a number of institutions to ensure that a policy is formulated to address the needs of the MSEs. In addition to the Micro and Small Enterprises Policy Unit in MOFPED, an Informal Sector Enterprises Committee has also been established to take care of the needs of these enterprises (Haan, 2001:64). These collaborate with MSEs associations like the Uganda Small Scale Industries Association (USSIA) and other institutions like the Private Sector Foundation (PSF) and the Uganda Manufacturers' Association (UMA).

7.7.0 The size of the non-agriculture informal sector in Uganda

The informal sector component gives an estimate of the size of the sector as a whole in terms of jobs created. The 2002/03 UNHS estimated that there are 1.8 million informal sector enterprises employing 2.6 million people in the country giving an average of 1.5 persons per enterprise excluding agriculture enterprises. Table 7.1 presents the number and percentages of working populations, population in the informal non-agricultural enterprises and proportion of working population in informal sector by background characteristics. It shows that about 1 in 4 working people are employed in the informal sector. More males (30 per cent) are likely to be employed in the informal sector than females (22 per cent). In Uganda more working persons in rural areas are in informal sector (31 per cent) compared to 15 per cent in urban areas. The central and northern regions had the highest proportion of working population in the informal sector at 32 per cent, closely followed by eastern at 30 per cent. The western region had the lowest proportion of population working in the informal sector at 12 per cent. The high percentage of household informal sector enterprise may be due to insecurity. People abandoned their homes and are staying in camps, they have to look for alternative ways for survival.

Table 7.1: Number and percentage of persons in the informal sector by sex, Residence and Region, 2002

Total Working population (000)	Working population in Informal sector (000)	Percentage of population in the informal sector
Total 9,772.60	2,590	26.5
Sex		
Male 4,634.20	1,418	30.6
Female 5,138.40	1,142	22.2
Residence		
Rural 8267.60	2,360	28.5
Urban 1,505.00	230	15.3
9,772.60		
Regions		
Central 2,951.33	938	31.8
Eastern 2,599.51	783	30.1
Northern 1,778.61	566	31.8
Western 2,443.15	303	12.4

Source: Labour market situation report, 2006

7.8.0 Role of Education in the Promotion of Informal Sector

The level of productivity and earnings and, hence the access to remunerative employment, of an individual is positively related to his/her level of education. With significant increase in enrolment rates in Uganda, the educational profile of the labour force has improved over the years creating better potential for skill development. Completion of primary education concentrates people in self-employment while secondary and post-secondary education enables relatively larger numbers to get paid employment. Lack of formal education is most likely to consign people to unpaid family work. The 2002/03 UNHS showed that 83 per cent of all the

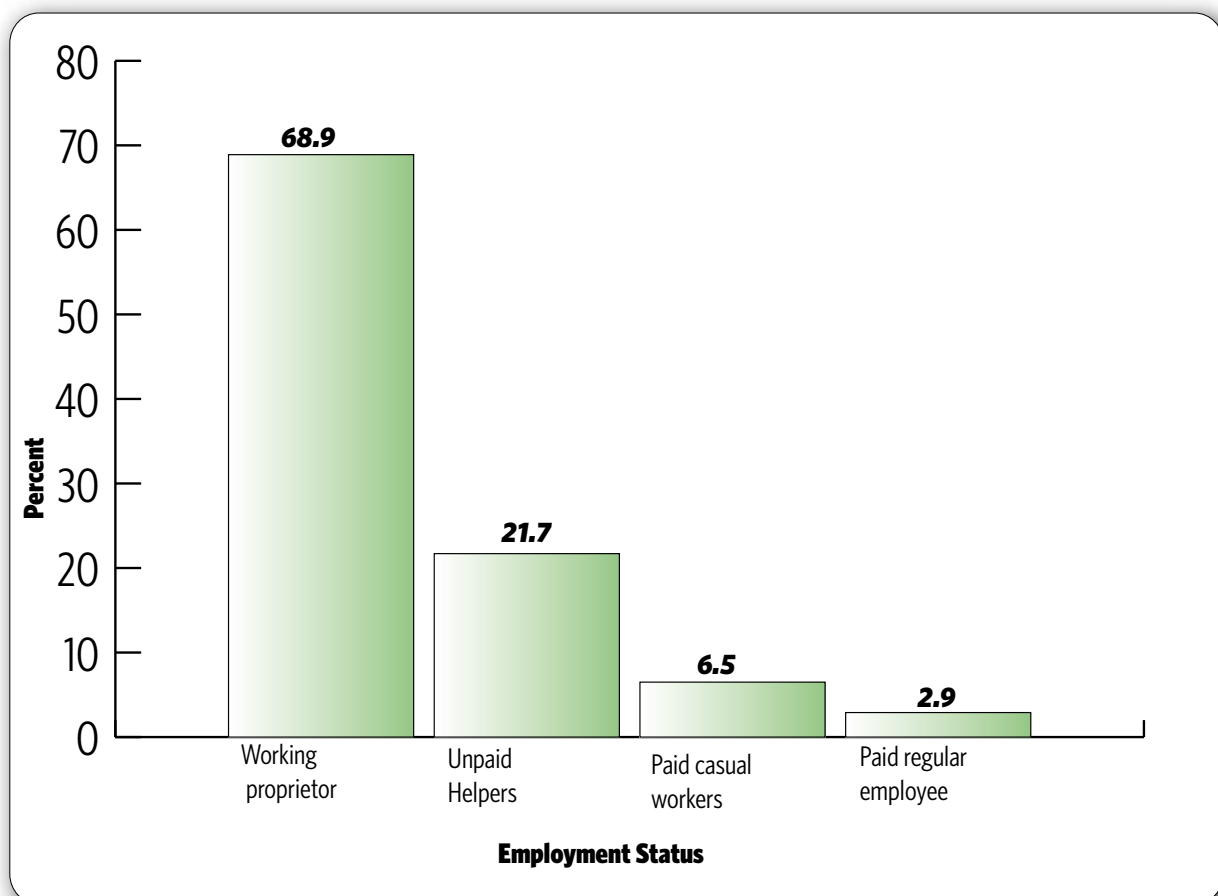
working population had attained secondary education and below. This means that creating the demand for jobs alone without having a labour force with the necessary skills to match the available jobs opportunities cannot solve the underemployment and unemployment problem in the country. Because of lack of skills, the informal sector employment provides alternative employment for this people.

7.9.0 Employment in the Informal Sector by Employment Status

There are contrasting in the characteristics of the informal and formal sectors, the former being characterized by ease of entry, low resource-base, family ownership, small-scale, labour-intensive, adapted technology, unregulated but competitive markets, and informal processes of acquiring skills. The majority self-employment and family labour in various guises, wage labour (regular as well as casual) and apprentices, for example, were also a very important component of the Informal Sector

The distribution of persons employed in the informal sector by their employment status is given in Figure 7.1. Importantly, the statistics on employment in the informal sector economy are essential to obtaining a clear idea of the contribution of all the workers in the economy. In Uganda, the informal sector has been a “fallback” alternative for those excluded from paid employment. No wonder the majority of persons in the informal sector are self-employed workers (69 per cent). This dominance of the self-employed category is expected considering the nature and scope of the informal sector in the country. In the majority of cases the capital involved is little, and the owners of the informal sector enterprises tend to work alone or with the members of their families. Employment of outsiders is generally only considered when the businesses expand.

Figure 7.1: Percent of persons in informal sector by employment Status, 2006



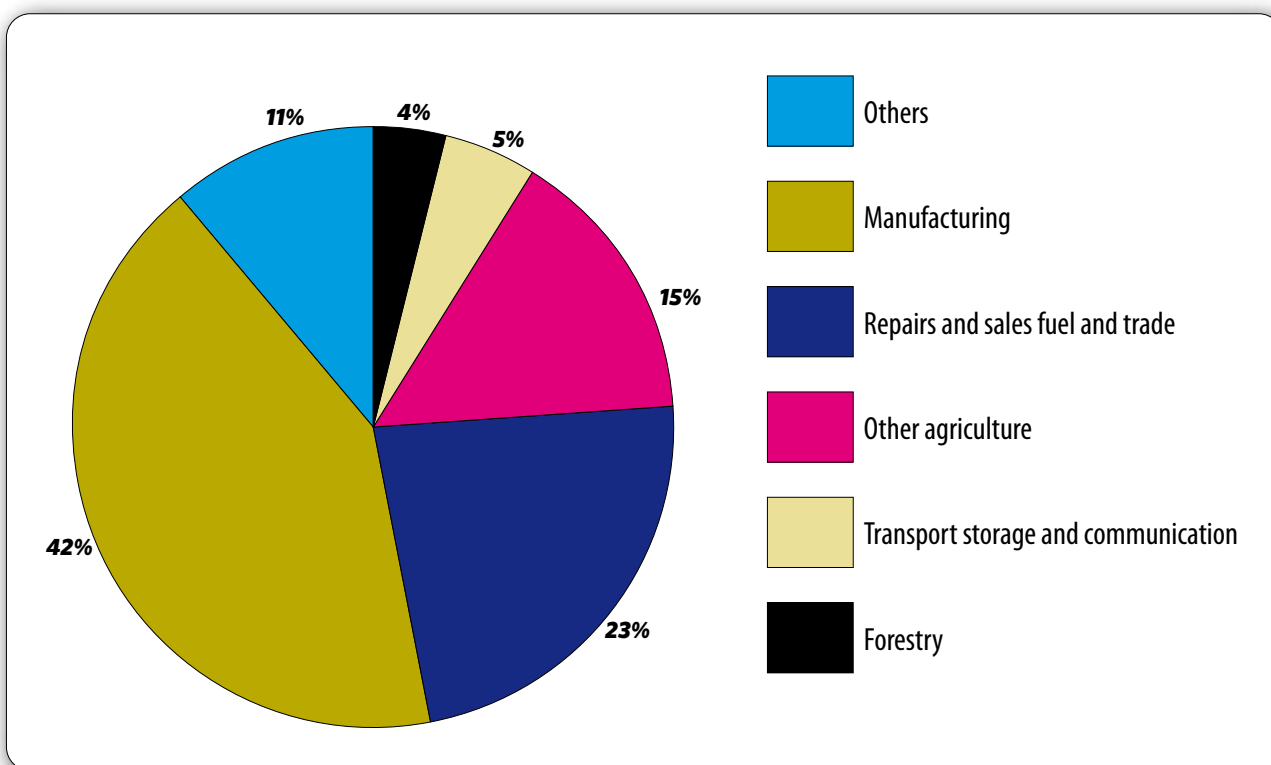
Source: Labour market situation report, 2006

7.10 Employment in the Informal Sector by Industry

In Uganda, the informal sector is highly heterogeneous in terms of the types of activities and encompasses a range of sub-sectors including manufacturing, trade, services, construction, and transport. The relative distribution of these activities shows that by and large manufacturing tend to dominate followed by repairs and sales of fuel and other agriculture (poultry, bee keeping etc).

Figure 7.2 shows that 4 in 10 of those involved in the informal sector are engaged in manufacturing industry (brick making, charcoal burning, baking, making textiles, basket making, metal works, saw milling etc). The other industries employing notable number of people include repairs and sale of fuel (23 per cent), other agriculture (15 per cent), transport, storage and communication (5 per cent) and forestry and hotels at 4 per cent. The rest of those other industries together employ less than 12 per cent of the working people in the informal sector sector.

Figure 7.2: Percentage distribution of person employed in the informal sector by Industry



Source: Labour Market Situation Report, 2006

The informal sector manufacturing industries are notably light in nature and need support. The Government appreciates that no meaningful development of the economy can be achieved without the development of the manufacturing sector. A noteworthy of the means to achieve this would be to support the manufacturing component of the informal sector by among other measures, availing training and credit services to the informal sector enterprises.

7.11 Earnings

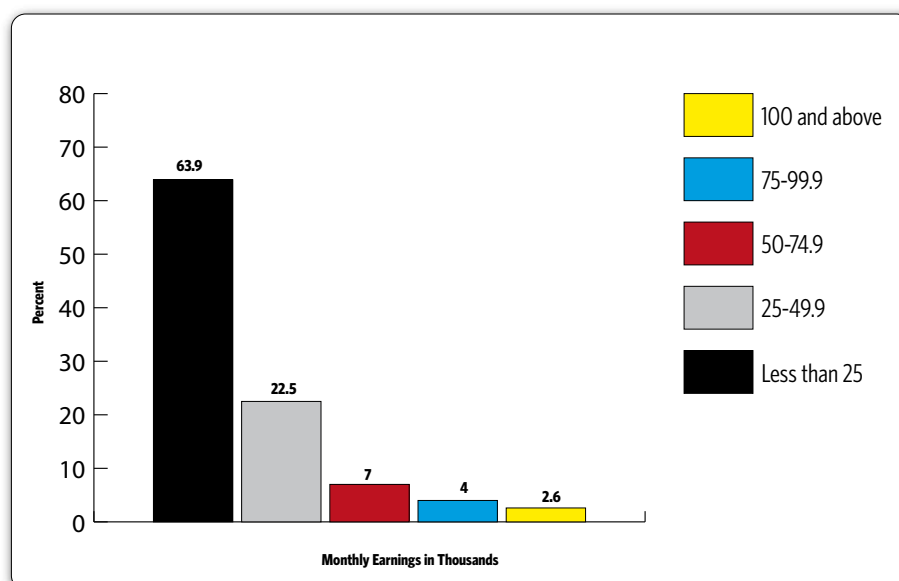
Wages tend to be very low in the informal sector, typically markedly below those offered in the formal sector, and often below legislated minimum wage levels. There is a notable gap in the earnings of the male employees compared to female employees in the country. Both in rural and urban areas males are paid more than females. In northern Uganda, females on average earn more.

Table 7.2: Average wages and salaries, 2006 (in Ushs)

Background characteristics	Male	Female	Total
National	28,793	13,816	21,305
Residence			
Rural	22,582	15,734	19,158
Urban	38,392	13,326	25,859
Region			
Central	24,522	11,507	18,015
Eastern	22,627	5,464	14,046
Northern	25,894	30,797	28,346
Western	22,537	7,601	15,069
Industry			
Other agriculture	22,227	24,333	23,280
Fishing	71,660	5,333	71,660
Mining and quarrying	18,500	10,710	11,917
Manufacturing	16,402	-	13,556
Construction	49,200	10,900	49,200
Sales, trade and repairs	23,525	26,000	17,213
Hotels	15,811	9,000	20,906
Transport, storage and communication	73,511		41,256
Other services	13,188	50,000	31,594

Source: Labour Market Situation Report, 2006

Figure 7.3: Monthly earnings for paid employees



Source: Labour Market Situation Report, 2006

7.12 Child Labour in the Informal Sector in Uganda

Information on the number of child labourers in the Ugandan informal sector is inadequate. The 2002/03 UNHS attempted to collect information on the number of working children in the informal sector. The information presented in this section refers to only household based enterprises and small scale enterprises in rural areas. The survey estimated that 319,566 children were working in the informal sector. This number excludes the number of working children in the urban small scale enterprises. The findings show the existence child labour in the informal sector. These children are engaged in activities such as hawking, carrying garbage, washing cars, working in garages, small mills, carpentry workshops, restaurants, transporting people. Moreover these children are exposed to dangerous substances and chemicals in the pursuit of their duties as child labourers in the informal sector (Luyima 2001:6; ILO, 1991:7). This includes items like battery acid and other petroleum products, welding works without being fully protected which results into eyesight damage.

Another aspect child labour within the informal sector is presented by the phenomenon of commercial sexual exploitation of children. This primarily affects the girls, where the girl-children are exposed to physical sexual molestation by working as prostitutes, strippers in night clubs and other places for adult satisfaction (FOCA 1991:4; Baguma and Matagi, 1995:57; ILO, 1998a:6). The physical, psychological and moral repercussions of commercial sexual exploitation on the girl children cannot be over estimated. Children are exposed to risks of early pregnancies, STDs including HIV/AIDS and other far reaching physical effects (ILO, 1998a:6; RYDA, 2000:16, Ratter, 1998:8; Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare et.al, 1996:36; ILO, 2002a).

Like any other employees in the informal sector, the conditions under which these children work are very filthy, exploitative, shocking and are subjected to working long hours without corresponding pay . This is compounded by lack of provision for social security and insurance for these children in case of a contingency.

7.13 Policy Recommendations

Government in collaboration with the private sector and donors should bring about the necessary reform of the legal and regulatory framework through a deregulation programme. Such a programme should facilitate the conduct of business and reduce burdens on entrepreneurs and businesses by reforming rules and regulations.

The Government through the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development should expedite the passing of the Child labour Policy to provide a framework for combating child labour and providing for the prevention, withdrawal and social protection of children from hazardous work.

Wide spread awareness campaigns in respect of the reform should be conducted. Rules and regulations should be explained and made more transparent, fair and simple, where needed translated in local languages. Uncertainties should be reduced

The registration of businesses should be simplified and decentralised and procedures for application shortened in such a way that starting a business will be easier

Government should continue to build capacity with the tax enforcement officers to assess the appropriate tax obligations of MSEs. Similarly more capacity should be built in the judiciary to address commercial disputes efficiently and timely

MSE specific investment incentives should be developed and opportunities identified and the information disseminated

Government should resolve macroeconomic impediments and revisit policies that specifically impinge on SMEs and Informal sector enterprises.

There is need to carry out a full fledged informal sector survey, so policies are developed on accurate information.

7.14 Conclusions

Informal sector is essentially the means by which workers have sought to gain access to income, by integrating themselves with the mainstream economy through whatever means. It is also in part a reflection of the failure of governments to assure formal employment i.e., jobs with adequate wage. By failing to adapt institutions they also seem to have caused the expansion of the informal economy. Without access to organized markets, basic infrastructure and legal recognition, it is not surprising that workers in this sector, despite their best efforts, have been able to improve their income only partially.

Besides low initial endowments of these individuals in terms of schooling, skills and physical capital, institutional constraints and poor macro economic environment also seem to explain why they have been unable to overcome poverty and vulnerability on their own. The need to protect workers in the informal sector is therefore not in doubt.

Since macro economic policy environment has also been an important source of insecurity for these workers, both institutional and policy reforms should form an integral part of such a strategy. Such reforms would help informal producers. Improved access to resources partly through lower transaction costs would provide incentives for investment and productivity improvement, as well as encourage them to engage in more lucrative activities through greater mobility.

Players in the informal sector have attempted to modify the institutional environment through collective effort, mostly by organizing themselves into a visible force, with or without the help of other non-governmental organizations committed to their advancement. But such attempts are still few and in their early stages, and the extent of their success is limited. Notwithstanding this, these initiatives have demonstrated the potential for bringing about a positive change in the environment through empowerment and participation of those in the informal sector. The proposed reforms could build on this experience. By encouraging such grass root organizations, and hence people's participation, it would seem possible to bring the issue of institutional reforms into the development agenda.

Unlike workers in the formal sector who are protected by legal minimum wage legislation, workers in the informal sector have no comparable protection. Social protection for workers in the informal sector in the country must address at least two types of risks: first, risks that are faced by any worker at the work place, or the immediate working environment. There is need for Uganda to develop and implement policies to protect workers in informal sector.

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CHAPTER 8

GENDER EQUALITY AND WOMEN EMPOWERMENT IN UGANDA: EDUCATION AND POLITICAL PARTICIPATION

8.1.0 Introduction

Gender equality greatly contributes to poverty reduction and enhances women's involvement and participation in decision making as well as accessing resources which significantly improve individuals and household welfare. Without progress towards gender equality and enhancement of women's empowerment it is almost impossible to achieve sustainable development. Gender equality is a human right and important for the achievement of PEAP objectives and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

Education for all is important to overcoming poverty, disease burden, ignorance and ill health as well as increasing economic investment. In addition, education promotes healthy lifestyles among the population due to increased awareness through the use of reliable information and messages. This chapter therefore, looks at existing frameworks in education, levels of political participation and whether they provide a supportive environment to enhance women's empowerment and achieving the Millennium Development Goals two and three by the year 2015.

Equality necessitates that men and women responsibly participate at all levels of development specifically in knowledge acquisition, skills building, employment, public and political life as well as in controlling resources and living healthy life styles. Goal 3 of (MDGs) seeks to eliminate gender disparity in education and to ensure

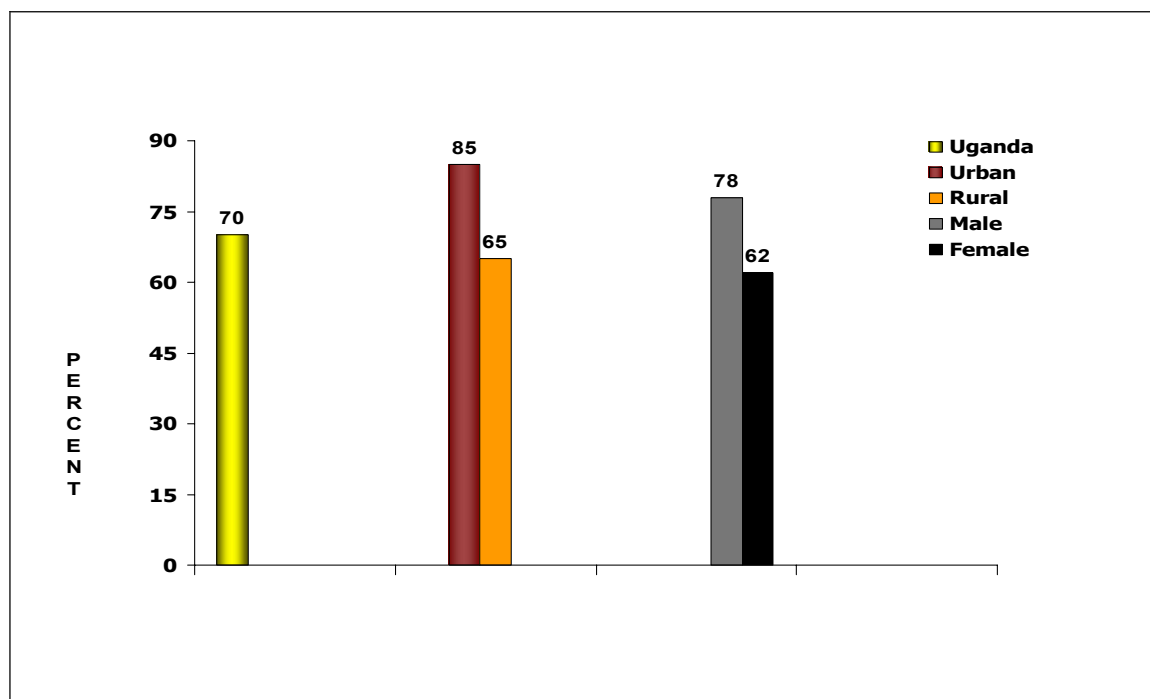
that girls as well as boys have opportunities to go to school so that more women become literate, increase their voice and representation in public policy and decision making and have improved job prospects.

8.2.0 UPE and its Impact on Gender

MDG 3 stipulates that, by 2015, 100% of 6-12 year old boys and girls will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling. UPE was introduced in Uganda in 1997, after which, primary enrolment in absolute numbers doubled, and net primary enrolment rates increased from 62% in 1992 to 86% in 2002/03. Since then UPE has helped to reduce the gender imbalance in education at that level, however, there remains very little progression in terms quality, leading to high drop out rates and inadequate educational achievement. With the trend of having many numbers of children enrolling with cropping issues of quality education it's not clear whether this will have the overall desired long-term benefit of reducing gender disparities.

The Ministry of Education and Sports (2006) reports that school dropout rates have increased from 4.7 in 2002 to 6.1 in 2005, leading to low overall education attainment especially for the girls. Based on current performance net enrolment of 95% can be achieved, however, due to growing concerns in respect to the quality of education, survival rates of 100% for Primary 7 remain doubtful.

Figure 8.1: Literacy rate by Sex and Residence (10+years)



Source: Household survey data 2005/2006(Mid-term Report), UBOS

8.3.0 Policy Framework and Universal Primary Education in Uganda

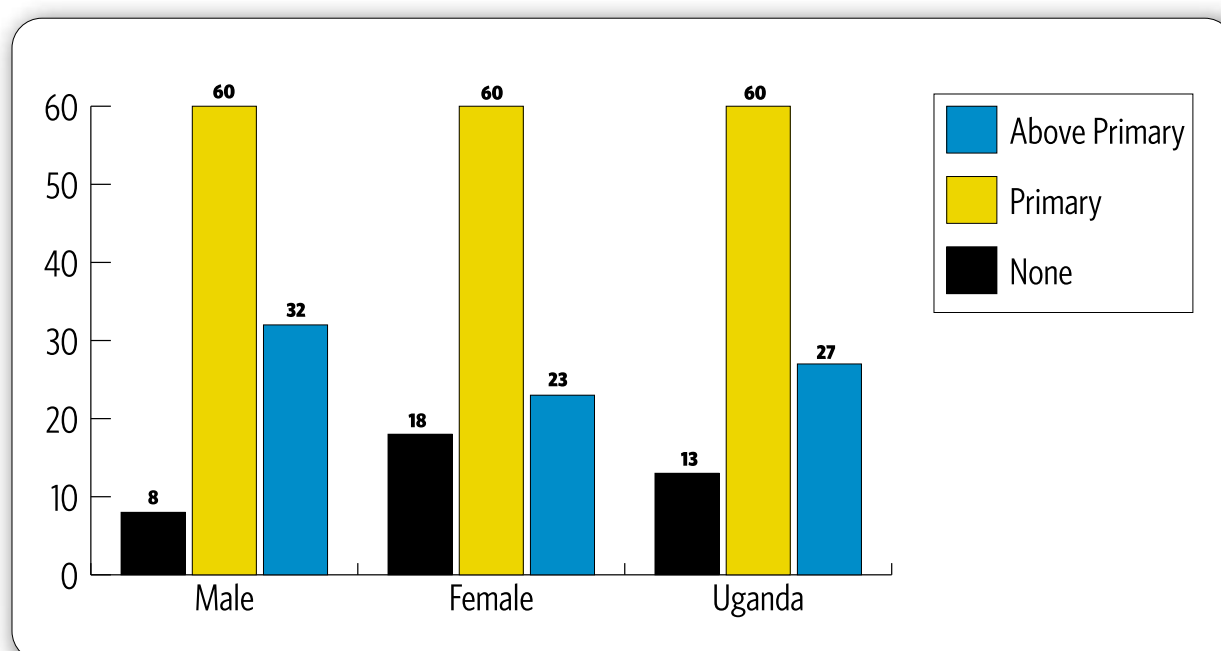
Government, through the education sector continues to show strong commitment to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the more ambitious Education For All (EFA) initiative. The latter emphasises progress in completion rates and learning and quality achievements rather than enrolment rates per se. To improve quality and support the classroom improvement processes, the educational sector has initiated a range of initiatives, such as monitoring and inspection of learning conditions, together with a hardship allowance for teachers working in remote areas.

There has also been considerable effort by government to prioritise the improvement of the quality of UPE

with results showing positive trends in the selected quality indicators. Provision of instructional materials has resulted in the reduction of the pupil/book ratio from 6:1 in 2000 to 3:1 in 2003. School sanitation and hygiene has also improved from a stance/pupil ratio of 700:1 in 1997 to 96:1 in 2000, with a third of schools having separate facilities for girls. Net enrolment ration has increased to 87% for boys and 86% for girls in primary school (UNESCO, 2003).

Despite the increase in numbers of children in school, the numbers of children successfully completing primary education have grown more slowly. (PEAP 2004/5) Full achievement of UPE requires that not only children start school, but also move through the whole system and graduate with quality education from P7. The figure below shows that more females do not complete primary education.

Figure 8.2: Education Attainment by Sex (6 years+)



Source: Uganda National household Survey 2005/06(Mid-term Report), UBOS

8.3 Challenges of UPE Programme

The challenges for UPE in Uganda include the following:

- Improving the quality of education to meet the global nature of the job market.
- Formulation of policies that are socio-cultural sensitive and implementation of programmes that address gender issues in education.
- Improving the quality of education through provision of adequate facilities such as water and sanitation, scholastic materials, enough classrooms and teaching aides amidst the expanding population in terms of provision of
- Teacher training and adequate staffing for all schools in Uganda.
- Mobilising sufficient resources to meet the quality and quantity aspects of educational requirements

To sustain gender parity in primary education, it's important that enrolment of children be maintained through improvement of school conditions sanitation facilities, i.e. building of latrines for boys and girls and paying

special attention to location and school specific gender needs, particularly on treatment of girls.

There is great disparity in literacy levels among boys and girls. The 2005/2006 household survey showed that literacy rate among males was 78% as compared to that of females at 62%. It is imperative that policies and programmes aimed at achieving gender parity as a means to achieve MDG and PEAP goals by 2015 are put in place without further delay.

8.4.0 Factors that Influence Education for girls

8.4.1 Poverty and Social Cultural beliefs

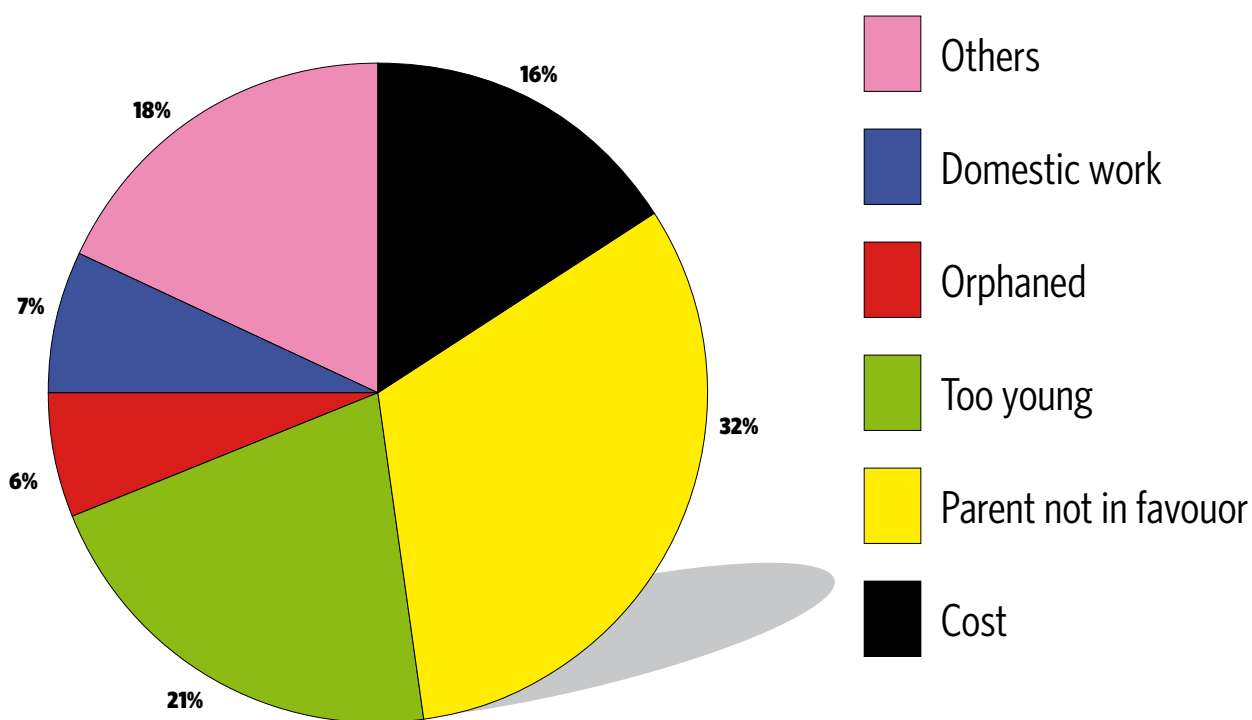
Although there is evidence to show that high fertility levels lead to large family sizes and significantly increase poverty, many people still don't understand this relationship. There are glaring gaps in awareness on the link between high population growth, female education levels and adult literacy (PEAP 2004/5-2007/8).

Most females in Uganda spend most of their time in domestic chores, looking for fuel energy (firewood), collecting water and caring for children. This leaves women with little time to engage meaningfully in social economic activities, hence increasing the levels of poverty and vulnerability among women. The proportion of females caring for the sick is twice as that of males and this is given as one of the reasons for non-participation in the paid labour force (UNHS 2002/03).

The household survey 2005/06 revealed that of the persons aged 6 years and above who do not go to school 32% do so because their parents are not in favour of their education. Two thirds of this number are girls. One in every five persons was reported to be too young to attend school while 16 percent cited high cost. This puts females at further disadvantage.

Targeted interventions are needed to get girls into school and encourage them to stay there by proving a conducive and friendly environment as well as basic requirements that often cause discomfort and force girls out of school. These include improved water and sanitation and a well maintained safe environment.

Figure 8.3 Reasons for not attending School



With the liberalized economy, the private sector is becoming a major player important in education. Private schools continue to be run on a commercial basis by groups of individuals where by, parents and the general community meet most of the school expenses. The Source: UBOS Uganda National household Survey, 2006

arrangement of education poses serious challenges for girls' access and retention in education especially at higher levels leaving them with no options.

A significant number of parents believe that in the long run, it may not be very useful to provide an academic oriented program for girls because the majority end up as housewives in rural settings. This belief explains why many girls drop out at secondary and tertiary levels. There are still fewer girls' secondary schools compared to boys' schools because a poor parent is more likely not to favour his girl child to continue schooling amidst financial challenges. In most districts gender disparities become progressively more marked when girls enter secondly school and later go to colleges and universities. This calls for a need to understand how to strengthen efforts towards educating the girl child.

8.4.2 Gender based Roles at the Household

Traditionally the bulk share of house-work is often borne by women and young girls, and this impacts negatively on the performance of girls at school compared to boys due to inadequate time to revise and do homework. Time to listen to news and educational messages on radios for women and girls is also limited which leaves them less informed.

Parents and communities need to know the crucial role they have to play to reduce gender gaps in education. This is mainly in terms of how roles and responsibilities are allocated among boys and girls at home and their implications on girls' education performance. It is important to ensure that the roles do not compromise the study time for the girls.

A good environment is a requirement in terms of policies and programmes that enhance realisation of individual goals and potential. One way to achieving this, is implementing action oriented activities that promote equality as a core value that can give individuals strength, security and capacities to exercise control over their lives as well as being able to access knowledge and skills to enable them take advantage of opportunities available.

8.4.3 Access to Health Services

Existing Health and Gender policies determine the health seeking behaviours for men and women as well as access to health information in communities. Most illiterate women remain the very poor amongst the poor therefore, unable to access meaningful information and services. Some women are hesitant to go to hospitals due to high transport costs and lack of a descent cloth to wear at times fearing that the health providers will not give them attention. Poverty continues to limit women's choices of where to seek quality health services consequently causing delay in accessing timely care.

Table 8.1: Household Responsibility for Meeting Health Care Costs

Responsible person	Central (%)	Western (%)	Northern (%)	Eastern (%)	Total (N)
Wife	29.7	32	34.5	39.1	33.2 (158)
Husband	46.8	54.1	49.6	53	50 (238)
Relative	0.9	1.6	1.7	0	1.1 (5)
Friend	0.9	0	0	0	0.2 (1)
Both partners	21.6	12.3	14.3	7.8	13.7 (65)
Total	100	100	100	100	100 (467)

Source: GoU/UNFPA5th Final Evaluation and Baseline Survey, 2006

Gender relations at the household level influence decisions of women on where to seek health care. Among the underlying causes, lies the lack of decision making causing delay in accessing health services, low priority

given to the rights of women and lack of gainful employment which leaves women in powerlessness positions. Half of the female respondents interviewed during the 6th CP GoU/UNFPA baseline survey, 50% reported husbands as meeting cost of health care in household. The trend was the same across the regions implying that men generally control resources. This scenario is even worse with the poorest of the poor women who are more likely to be malnourished and less likely to seek any health care due to issues of affordability and transport costs to the nearest health unit.

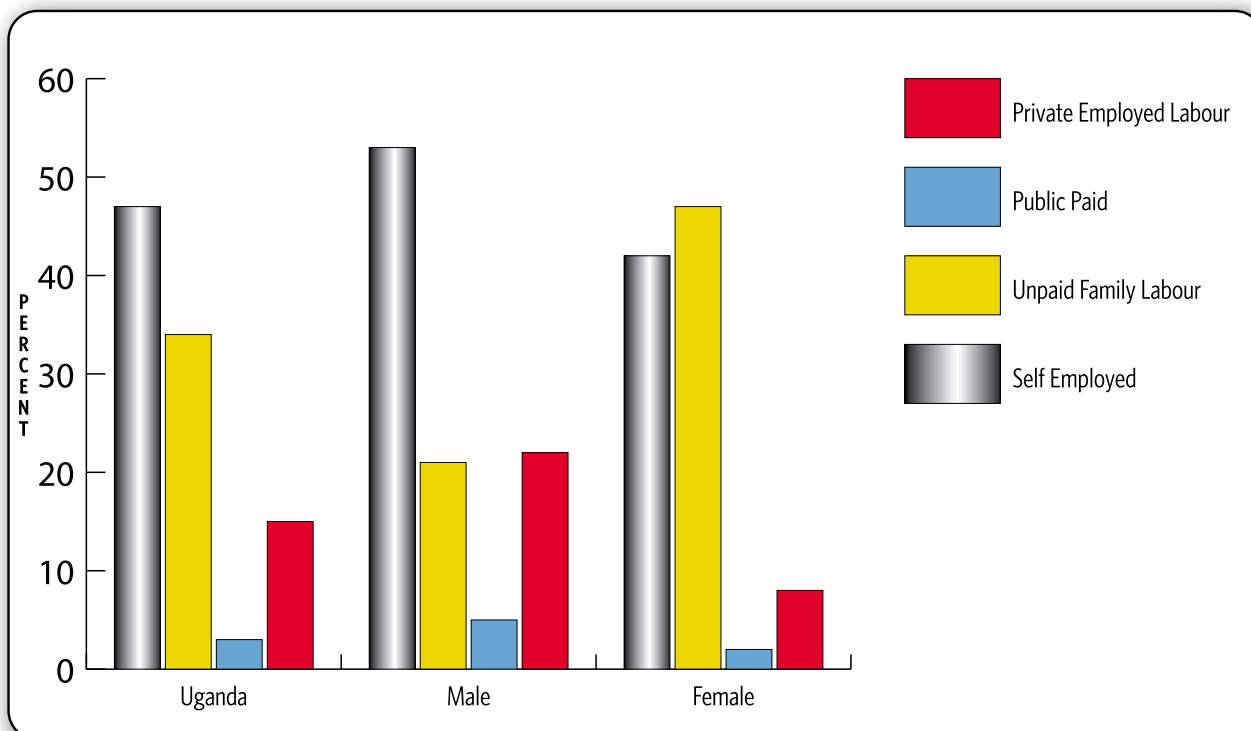
8.4.4 Employment Status

Achieving primary education and beyond is important for individual’s empowerment and to fully manage themselves and overcome the environmental challenges in which they live. Among the numerous benefits of quality education, is the economic security that comes from paid employment which also provides support for personal enhancement. Less educated women often lack access to well paying jobs; they lack information to make informed decisions and choices which lead to denial of women’s basic rights of life. Education raises women’s awareness on how best they can take advantage of the opportunities in an informed and rational manner. Women’s low levels of education and literacy are major obstacles to their full involvement in the job market and the development process.

The employment status trends are generally difficult to review because of the limited data. The 2002 Uganda National Household Survey (UNHS) mid-term report (Jan 2003) shows that 45% of Uganda’s population is economically active. Within this sub-set, 79.6% are either self-employed or unpaid family workers and the number is considerably higher for female workers at 88.2%. The Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) Report on the 2001/02 Business Register also reports that only 3.6% of the economically active population are employed by the private sector, where private is defined as formal or informal businesses operating from fixed premises. Only 39% of these workers were females.

Uganda National Household Survey (UBOS, 2005) shows that although women have increased their share in paid non agricultural employment, they remain a small minority in salaried jobs in many parts of the country while they are overrepresented in the informal economy as indicated in the figure below.

Figure 8.4: Employment Status of Economically Active Persons



Source: UBOS, Uganda National household Survey 2005/2006

From Figure 8.4 above, women continue to be less likely than men to hold paid and regular jobs and more often work in the informal economy, which provides little financial security with no any social benefits. Fewer women than men own business and employ others.

8.4.5 Formal Sector Employment

Formal sector employment is the major source of income for salaried earners yet not both sexes equally benefit from formal employment. Gender disparities exist in formal sector employment in Uganda, particularly among professional, technical and managerial work. As many as 29% of the working women are not paid, 9% are paid in kind while only 27% receive clear cash payments for their services.

Some of the reasons for large gender gaps in employment are discriminatory laws in the labour market, low education attainment of women and lack of working experience coupled with high fertility rates which leave no time for women to advance their education. Some women are in a fulltime reproduction process and are unable to combine education, work with domestic responsibilities.

8.4.6 Access to Credit

Credit access appears to be a major problem for women's economic empowerment with often inadequate capital to start up meaningful businesses. Often women are not able to access bank loans due to lack of collateral. The most common type of collateral in Uganda is land, yet only 7% of Ugandan women own land and can thus use land titles for securing a bank loan. This limits women's economic expansion and venturing into other options.

8.4.6 Politics and Decision Making

Social cultural practices, attitudes and perceptions take some time to change. Despite the fact that women account 40% of the elected positions in the local government gender disparity still persists at all levels. Women are only about 28% of Parliament while the proportion of women in cabinet in 2006 has decreased. Men still dominate the presidency, cabinet, judiciary, legislature and other key portfolios at the national level. The effect of this is that women's issues may not be addressed considering that they are not sufficiently represented in key decision making arenas.

Decision-making at the national and local levels of government remains very central in regard to design and implementation of development policies, programmes and strategies. Participation in the decision making process of government at all levels, therefore, continues to be a key pointer towards women's empowerment. There has to be continuous gender tracking of trends on the numbers of women and men that occupy top decision making public positions including sector management of the executive, legislature, judiciary, the public service and other bodies as highlighted in the government's legal documents.

While there has been steps to provide a supportive environment for the promotion of women's participation in decision making and politics, the pace is still very slow and risk stagnation. Most women are not aware of their rights while many others do not have the means to enforce their rights. The policy and legislative framework does not sufficiently provide for and guarantee the participation of women in politics and decision making.

Gender mainstreaming in the PEAP offers a ray of hope towards addressing issues that exacerbate gender inequalities. This will ensure that gender sensitive programmes are designed to ensure that both men and women benefit equally.

8.5.0 Challenges

Lack of enabling legislation and policies in relation to equal opportunities remains a major challenge to women's empowerment in Uganda. Women continue to play a secondary role in decision making in politics and tend to occupy second positions (vice/deputy chairpersons) on almost all committees or government positions.

This has caused a structural problem that a woman will most likely not be elected to a position because they are reserved for vice/deputy position.

Despite increased girl enrolment in primary schools completion of primary cycle remains a major concern. Most girls drop out of school early due to socio-cultural and economic reasons. Yet decision making and political participation is a function of ones ability to communicate and self confidence. Overcoming these barriers will go a long way in advancing participation of women and decision making.

Under the movement system of governance government had adopted affirmative action for women. Where by a third of all local council seats were reserved for women at all levels of the local council structure including other related bodies like Service Commission and Tender Boards. Under a multiparty system gender empowerment and equality may take the back seat as parties struggle for political power and domination.

Girls still lag behind boys in secondary and higher level education partly due to poverty, teenage pregnancy resulting into school drop out. Child marriage is a common negative cultural practice in the Ugandan society as it increases the chances of adolescent pregnancy. Adolescent pregnancy is associated with several obstetric complications which may lead to ill health and disability for both the mother and baby and sometimes death. This practice propagates poor health status of women curtailing many girls' chances to complete schooling.

Tackling gender based violence and safe guarding rights of women and children to inheritance and ownership of property remain core challenges for women's empowerment. Women's participation continues to be constrained by inability to inherit and own property in their names to secure opportunities ownership may offer. They end up being exploited under the guise of holding in trust of women and children.

In the war torn areas rampant sexual abuse leads to unwanted pregnancy and unsafe abortion. It should also be noted that sexual abuse of all forms are common in all parts of Uganda, coupled with increased abuse of girl students by teachers and relatives. Yet in most cases many such cases end prematurely due to loss of interest or lack of sufficient evidence on account of women's inability to provide sufficient information due to inadequate educational attainment of socio-cultural buriers.

8.6.0 Recommendations

Most women are not in position to participate in decision making or politics due to low educational attainment. This is because young girls do not enrol at all or they drop out early. It is recommended that governments implements practical measures for the enrolment and retention of girls in schools. Improving the environment in schools by providing sanitary facilities, gender sensitive sanitation and actions against harassment can provide a good start to the long process in this discourse.

The cost of educations remains a major stabling block to access to education. A significant number of children drop out if school due to the inability of poor families to meet the cost of education. Girls are more vulnerable especially when choice has to be made on whether to get the boy or girl child to accommodate for limited resources. Government should work closely with all stakeholders including the private sector in order to address issues of education costs. Tax incentives to institutions that promote girl enrolment and retention could be part of the solution.

Addressing household poverty and promotion of income generating activities could insulate women from vulnerability due to limited resources and poverty. Government needs to come up with policies and programmes aimed at addressing household poverty.

Sensitisation of communities on the need and importance of promoting girls education is recommended. This will help societies where strong cultural attitudes that disadvantage women hold to appreciate and support the education of the girl child.

Government should expedite the debate and passing of the family law (Domestic Relations Bill). The law will harmonise and eliminate gaps in existing legal frameworks. Passing of the law should go hand in hand with policies and programmes to enable successful implementation and enforcement of the legislation.

Any technological advancement needs to take into consideration the educational needs of all children including children living with HIV/AIDS, orphans, as well children with disabilities with gender consideration in order to reverse the negative effects of the historical gender imbalance and ensure that women are not left out again. There is need to ease women's domestic chores such as fetching water and firewood, and cooking. Energy and labor saving technologies offer an opportunity in this regard.

The time constraint girls encounter in having to balance up domestic work and revising their books requires special re-redress as it affects performance for the girl child in schools. Women's work needs to be eased, in order to offer more time for the girl-child to study in a more supportive environment as the boys have, but also to increase women's overall contribution towards development. Refocus and sustain investment towards household' social economic welfare and put mechanisms in place to continuously track economic growth and check whether it translates into individuals capacity to purchase and meet their basic needs of life.

8.7.0 Recommendations

Gender inequality in education, especially post primary education impacts negatively on the development of the political and social economy. There is need to continuously advocate and sustain efforts towards Universal Post Primary Education, especially for the girl-child.

Women leaders need to be aware of politicians who often tend to hijack the cause for women empowerment process; through manipulation to suit their own political interests as opposed to the good of all. Inadequate commitment, weak systems and institutional capacity to address gender imbalances are still a major challenge. Gender based violence is still common with women and girls being the most victims of rape defilement abductions exchange of sex for favours resulting into risks to contracting HIV/AIDS.

Considering the existing political commitment in terms of policies relating to gender empowerment, there is hope that opportunities for women's empowerment and attaining the MDG targets in Uganda is possible, if corruption is checked, and programmes effectively implemented, well monitored and evaluated. At the international level, gender issues seem to be clearly stipulated in the MDGs and ICPD, which provides supportive environment

Finally, laws in themselves may not propel the desired harmonious relationships between men and women. Therefore, there is need to invest more time and advocate for increased resource allocation and research in order to inform desired.

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CHAPTER 9

UNIVERSAL SECONDARY EDUCATION: PROSPECTS FOR POPULATION AND DEVELOPEMENT

9.1.0 Background:

This chapter focuses on the rationale, the means and implications of providing Universal Secondary Education (USE) in Uganda alongside the already existing Universal Primary Education (UPE). Universal Education attainment in Uganda today is government commitment to pursuing Millennium Development goals by ensuring that all boys and girls complete a full course of primary schooling. The central premise underlying these efforts is that universal access to education will promote economic development, reduce social and gender inequalities and diminish adverse human impacts on the planet. It strengthens the population to be able to respond to issues of development and politics of their country much easily because at this level one is able to make informed decisions both in life and politics.

Education for All (EFA) has been on the global agenda since 1990. The Dakar Senegal framework for action 2000, commits governments to achieving quality basic education for all by 2015. In the quest to achieve this target a number of school age children are currently enrolled in primary schools in the whole country. The deficits are especially pronounced among the girls and those children concentrated in war ravaged areas.

9.2.0 Universal education and its challenges to Uganda today

In Uganda, Universal Education was introduced in 1997 through Universal Primary Education (UPE) to provide

free education for all children of primary school going age (6-13). Its purpose was to achieve a big impact on the population by reducing on the illiteracy levels in the country. At its introduction it was enthusiastically welcomed nationwide leading to an increase in enrolment in government –aided schools from 2.9million in 1996 to approximately 6.8 million in 2001 and 7.3million in 2002. Those who joined at the beginning completed Primary school level in 2003. However, many of those who completed primary education could not join secondary school due high costs and limited uptake capacity in secondary schools.

Uganda, like many other countries in the world has since independence recognized the great potential of education as an engine for economic and social development and has formulated policies and programmes aimed at increasing access to quality education. Today, primary enrolment to Primary school has increased to over 86% that in some districts schools are no longer able to contain the upsurge in numbers. However, due increased enrolment the quality of education offered remains a major concern. Teachers, classrooms and textbooks remain inadequate in most schools. A study done in Kanungu district revealed that despite high enrolment UPE faces major challenges. These include the following.

1. Some children are kept away from school to be able to keep scaring off animals and even birds from the neighboring Queen Elizabeth National Park that destroy crops.
2. Hunger and nutrition in the schools, where children go without lunch and parents do not prepare food at home because they have to tend the gardens and so children opt to stay home to be able to eat.
3. The case early marriages leading to a high drop out rate for the girls who more affected.
4. In some instance girls are kept at school but to cook food for the male teachers and hence spend most of the time in teacher's houses cooking food and this also exposes them to several other risks like rape and defilement.

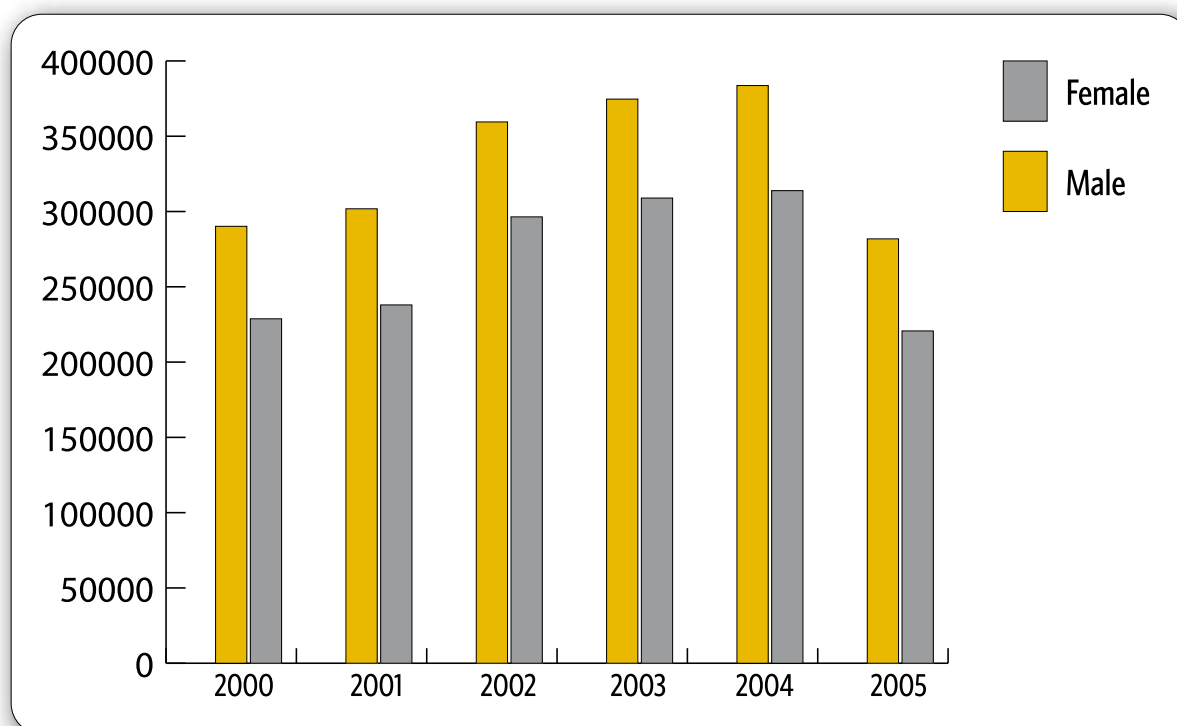
Government needs to learn from the lessons learnt from the implementation of UPE as a strategy to plan successful implementation of USE.

9.3.0 Secondary Education Development.

Among development agencies, conventional wisdom holds that educational expansion facilitates numerous favorable changes for nations and individuals. Global research has established that; education increases individual incomes, reduces poverty, illiteracy and income inequality. It also has a strong complementary effect on the achievement of lower infant and child mortality, better nutrition and construction of democratic societies.

Providing all the world's children with a high quality primary and secondary education, whether through formal schooling or by alternative means could in principle support all the approaches mentioned above. However, in less developed settings, educational expansion, particularly among women, also appears to have significant implications.

Access to education in Uganda has increased enormously, illiteracy reduced and a higher proportion of people are now completing primary, secondary and tertiary education than before. But the problem remains that many children of both primary and secondary school going age are not enrolled in school, most are illiterate and live in absolute poverty and the majority of these are female. It is worsened by the large educational disparities that exist at secondary school level with in different regions where quality schooling is low.

Figure 9.1: Showing enrolment patterns of secondary students in all schools with special reference to gender (2000-2005)

Source: Education Management Information System (EMIS), 2005

The patterns show that while the enrolment has been going up in secondary school, the number of girls progressively reduces. This pattern is caused by among others cultural gender disparities and high cost as a result of dominance of the profit driven private sector. The trend is likely to continue given the growing interest by the private sector. Table 9.1 shows secondary schools by ownership.

Table 9.1: Showing secondary schools by ownership-2004

Ownership	Number of schools	Percentage of schools
Government	764	38.80%
Private	1175	59.67%
Community	30	1.52%
Total	1,969	100.0%

Source: Ministry of Education and Sports, 2004

As shown in table 9.1 the private sector still holds a large percentage of schools in the country and this follows that they determine payable fees and standards. In the implementation of USE government plans to build 1000 more secondary schools, at least one school per sub county in Uganda

It should however be noted that without attaining the status of universal primary enrolment, the goal of Universal Education too cannot be achieved or be cherished. The post primary level of education cannot be expanded in isolation of the primary level. This is also true for the secondary level, which cannot be expanded independent of primary level. All children of secondary school age cannot be enrolled unless the goal of Universal Primary Education is achieved. Many children of this age group may still be in primary or may even be out of school.

By focusing on secondary education at universal access level, paying attention to access, quality and demographic contributions and also encouraging fresh perspectives, Universal Secondary Education (USE) will enrich educational development.

9.4.0 Universal Secondary Education (USE)

Universal Secondary Education, like Universal Primary Education is one of the government's commitments to achieving the Millennium Development Goals through the implementation of the EFA decisions to the provision of Universal basic education by the year 2015.

Universal Secondary Education is education aimed at enabling boys and girls of post primary school age to attend secondary or tertiary education. Universal Post Primary Education and Training (UPPET) which has two focus areas;

- (i) Universal Secondary Education (USE) – takes on primary school leavers into the formal education system by joining secondary school
- (ii) Universal Business and Vocational Training (UBVT) – takes on primary school leavers through offering them opportunities for the acquisition of skills in business and vocational education.

9.5.0 Government strategies for the implementation of USE

- Construction of 1000 school with one school per sub county
- Implementation to be done in phases with a class by class introduction; 2007- Senior one, 2008- Senior two, etc
- Revision of the curriculum to provide an opportunity fore those who leave school after completion to easily settle in the community and the labour market demands
- Open up the government recruitment ceiling to allow for the deployment of more teachers to cover the gaps in availability of teachers

9.6.0 Universal Secondary Education (USE) and population dynamics

Across many fields of research, there is evidence of important linkages between education and health related issues. For instance, a percentage increase in primary enrolment ratios is associated with an average increase in Life expectancy, so is with secondary and tertiary enrolment ratio increase. Similarly, increases in enrolment ratios at all levels are associated with significant reductions in infant mortality per 1,000 live births (Hadden and London, 1996).

9.7.0 Employment

Government's commitment to the five (5) pillars of the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) that aims at creating a framework for economic growth, improving the quality of life among others, is essential in Uganda's critical employment situation.

In planning the strategies for the delivery of USE, it requires government re-focusing attention on employment and education strategies that will create actions towards the promotion of employment. Unless USE delivery creates a reform in our education system, many graduates from the system will still be only literate but cannot contribute to the labor market and hence many still go unemployed. Young people must be helped to develop a fundamental set of skills and competencies through a holistic education through integration and promotion of vocational skills. The role of education here is to support the individual in attainment of knowledge and skill that will ensure that the skills developed match the labour market requirements, including the informal sector.

9.10 Gender Empowerment

Whereas the desire of the delivery of universal education is to strongly support the gender equality the situation in Uganda has not effectively favoured this arrangement. Experiences of UPE implementation show higher

drop out rates of girls than boys. Addressing gender equality and women's empowerment requires strategic interventions at all levels of programming and policymaking, but the empowerment of the girl child should not leave room for a degeneration of the education and empowerment of the boy.

One of the EFA goals (Dakar, Senegal 2000) is to eliminate gender disparities in Primary and Secondary education by 2005 and achieving gender equality in education by 2015. Progress in girl's education or lack it is directly related to other major areas of concern of children, such as over all health status, stunted development, exploitation and abuse. Literacy is a necessary condition for development and is an essential determinant of women's participation in productive areas of the economy and decision making process at various levels. It is believed and was said,

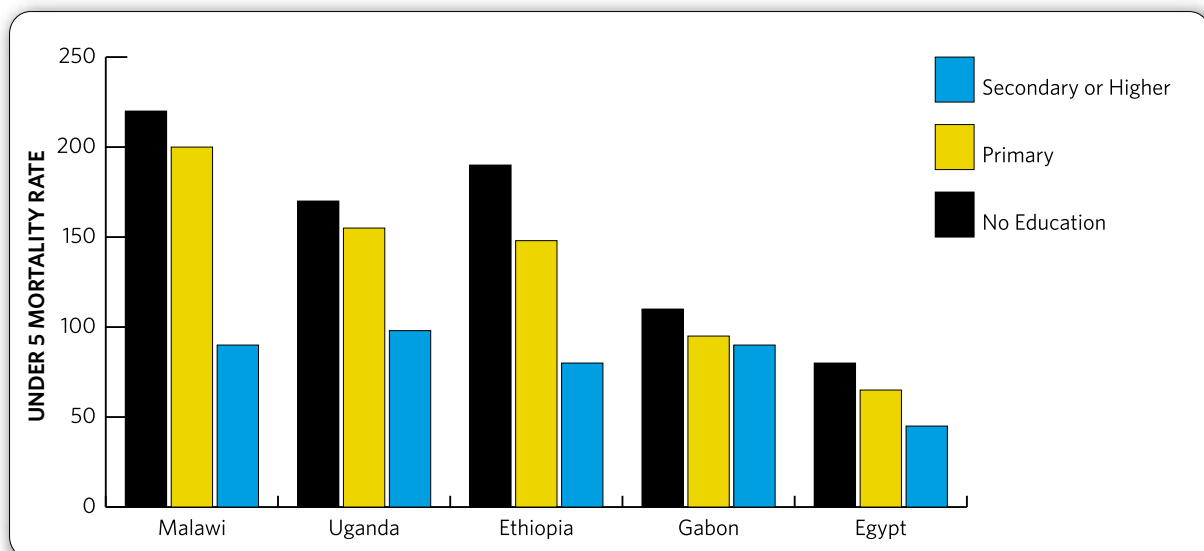
“Every year a girl is in school is progressive step towards eliminating poverty, advancing sustainable human development and stopping and mitigating the impact of HIV/AIDS.” (Nabagereka of Buganda- Population and Development Vol.10, July 2005)

Education is important for everyone, but it is especially significant for girls and women. This is true because educational achievements of women can have several effects on the family, economic development and growth.

9.11 Fertility and Mortality Ratios

The association between education and fertility is well established. Women with education especially secondary and higher education, tend to have substantially fewer children by the end of their childbearing years. Why do these patterns emerge? First, the benefits of maternal education for child health come into play. Improved rates of infant and child survival enable parents to plan their family size and, therefore, contribute to decline in fertility. There is growing evidence that countries with higher rates of female schooling and lower child mortality, experience substantial reductions in fertility and desired family size (Kirk and Pillet, 1998)

Figure 9.2: Under 5 Mortality Rates in 10 years preceding surveys by Mothers' Educational Attainment, DHS countries with 2000 or later surveys



Source: DHS, 2002

For nearly all countries represented in Figure 9.2 above, children of better educated mothers have lower mortality rates and higher immunization rates. On the other hand, education encourages a later age at marriage. For instance analysis of world fertility survey data indicated that the mean age at marriage was four

years later for women with at least seven years of education than for uneducated women. Delaying marriage carries significant potential for reducing family size. Later marriage typically increases the mean length of a generation, thus slowing population growth.

Education will influence children's education at household level and subsequent parental decisions about fertility. Education creates dependence of child upon parents rather than all family members contributing to the family economy, parents become responsible for supporting children for longer periods of time.

9.12 Culture

Education expansion serve the wider need of the economy instead of the values of the family production, educational expansion speeds cultural change and creates new values. New values might include occupational aspirations beyond the household and increasingly individually-oriented rather than family oriented goals. Even the values of individuals who do not themselves attend school may be modified.

9.13 Implications of USE

Notwithstanding the implementation of UPE, government has now come up with USE, and the question that comes to our minds, how is Universal Secondary Education going to change the whole stage of the education system in Uganda especially at secondary school level, how will it affect the population structures and development, what difference do we foresee in the population as we undertake the implementation of USE as a country?.

1. With Universal Secondary Education, enrolment in secondary schools will go high as was the case with UPE, this process poses greater challenges for the government in areas of quality classes/room, teachers, and materials but also population dynamics will be a factor in this growth in schools and educational expansion.
2. One vital element of Universal Secondary Education is information transfer as not only to be used in the traditional form of ensuring literacy, but also as a work tool to put ideas into practice. The idea behind Universal Secondary Education is to bridge the disparity between the classroom and the world of work and also accord the populations children who have completed primary school have easy access to secondary education so that students are taught more practical aspects of the job requirements in school There is need to impart the teachings of the types of skills one needs to generate knowledge and ideas in the school system in order to do well. Skills and knowledge that will be imparted to the students should relate to the community needs especially girls.
3. Universal Primary Education met several challenges especially in its implementation in up country centres, ranging from lack of room enough to accommodate the children (classrooms). Children in these areas practically do not study but only spend time at school. Teachers are absent from schools staff turnover is high due to lack of proper motivation. USE implementation means that government should invest in interesting teachers into the profession especially in the government-aided schools by creating incentives.
4. USE implementation means investment in terms of buildings, teacher training, laboratory equipment, books. This notwithstanding government's plan to construct 1000 new school (one per each sub county) and carry out phase by phase (Class by class) implementation of USE, the question that comes to mind is; to date many UPE school still grapple with poorly trained teachers and several other challenges. These and other hurdles of UPE present a case for government to think about in this transition phase to USE.
5. Today people in Northern Uganda where war has destroyed people's way of life, IDPs camps are being

vacated of their resident in a bid to resettle them in their homes. Children from these IDPs camps who have been to primary and have to join secondary education are being sent alongside their parents. The infrastructure in these areas has ever since broken down. What opportunity does USE have for these children to get to school again? How specialized will the curriculum be to enable these children get back into the school system and be able to socialize easily. USE should offer opportunities through partnerships with other several organizations such as NGOs to stand in the gap and of such vulnerable societies or children.

6. Along the gender perspective, there are social cultural issue that hindered the success of UPE e.g. girls education as not being vital, girls being used by teachers for work and other home related cores. It also stresses the several cases of drop out due to pregnancy related issues. USE implementation should create a situation to cater for them
7. Today education at Secondary level is quite expensive, very competitive in terms of performance and levels of retention in relation to drop out are high. UPE has also scored high on the levels of drop out due to several factors. For instance it was discovered that; in government – aided schools, the number of pupils enrolled at the beginning of the year has been reducing as the year progressed leading to far less numbers attending school by the end of the academic year. A study (Policy Review News Letter Vol 5, Nov/Dec 2005) done in Kanungu District. USE implementation should work upon the desire to retain children in school but also with an identified progress academically and otherwise. Provide the students with an education that gives them an opportunity to compete favorably with students from other private, better standard set schools.
8. The current school curriculum has not been able to create opportunities for the people who go through it to easily integrate in the labour market. USE should be in position to enable the graduates of the school system to fit in the current job/labour market. Children are exposed to several subjects that have no great meaning to their future aspirations. USE should re-think the educational goals and objectives, so that completion of school becomes are meaningful experience of those who go through it.
9. Several other government aided school that are not providing USE may incidentally get an over flow of students with the desire to have USE there or loose students to the free USE schools.
10. Children will have to walk long distances to reach the only USE school in given sub county depending on the geographical set up of the facility in that area.

9.14 Challenges

Successful implementation of the USE presents a number of challenges. Overcoming these challenges is necessary for making sure that children irrespective of gender or geographical location benefit from the programme. The challenges to USE include the following.

- Secondary school level children leaving IDP camps being resettled in their family homes
- Pupils who completed PLE and are not taken on by secondary education and have grown in age through the years
- Drop out due to Stigma of HIV/AIDS, early pregnancy
- Drop outs at several levels of secondary education, how do they fit in and benefit from USE.
- What has not been done by the current Secondary education
- Overflow from UPE to fit in the only one USE school

9.15 Conclusion

Together, the many pieces of evidence linking education to health related factors lead to expectation that educational expansion contributes to long-term favorable demographic changes and, ultimately, slowed population growth. With the conditions of large age differentials that in educational attainment and significant educational related fertility and mortality differentials that characterize many developing countries, the inclusion of education in population projections significantly impacts population size. Hence, a short-term investment in education will produce long-term effects on population size.

9.16 Recommendations

The government plans to spend big quantities of money on implementing Universal Secondary Education particularly in establishing classrooms and provision of other materials necessary for the success of the programme and education of the children. It is critical that such several issues be also considered in this planning.

1. The curriculum should enable the learner translate the learning experience into solving their potential community problems. The study of various subjects that are only theoretical should be translated into studies that are contributing to the large informal sector of labour and high ignorance of our communities.
2. Students who have been empowered with information, skills and necessary community intervention tools through education back in their homes especially in the countryside become consultants on issues in the community. Translating the learning to solving community problems and being able to mobilize others requires the programme that is being implemented to have that fall back position to allow the benefits of the programme trickle down to the communities.
3. Apparently many peasants are happy that their children will get a chance to see a secondary school education hitherto solving the wide spread poverty levels. It is therefore important that the USE system opens up doors for reaching the expectations of the parents and children.
4. Secondary education plays a crucial role in socialization of young people and in targeting youth at risk. The age group in secondary education demonstrates the greater capacity to change behaviour. Universal Secondary Education should be able to play a decisive role in fostering positive social attitudes, civic values and in fighting against drug abuse and disease like HIV/AIDS.
5. The biggest expansion of secondary education to universal Secondary Education will be needed in order to make schooling available to students, getting students to attend school and helping to learn when they are in school. . This means generating policies to boost the success of the programme.
6. There is need to strengthen efforts to mainstream gender in planning, guidance and counselling programmes at the primary level.
7. Through USE government should formulate and review policy to allow re-entry into school of girls who get pregnant before completing school, create room for the drop outs to return.
8. The NGO sector and partners e.g. churches (founders of education) have played significant roles in training the population on several issues of health and development, government can bring them on board in a partnership to equip students and schools with tools, skills and information on population and development related problems and gaps through the curriculum formed.
9. The system should enable the capture of information on the number of orphans and vulnerable children accessing secondary education and number of teachers providing life skills training for purposes of

support and further empowerment.

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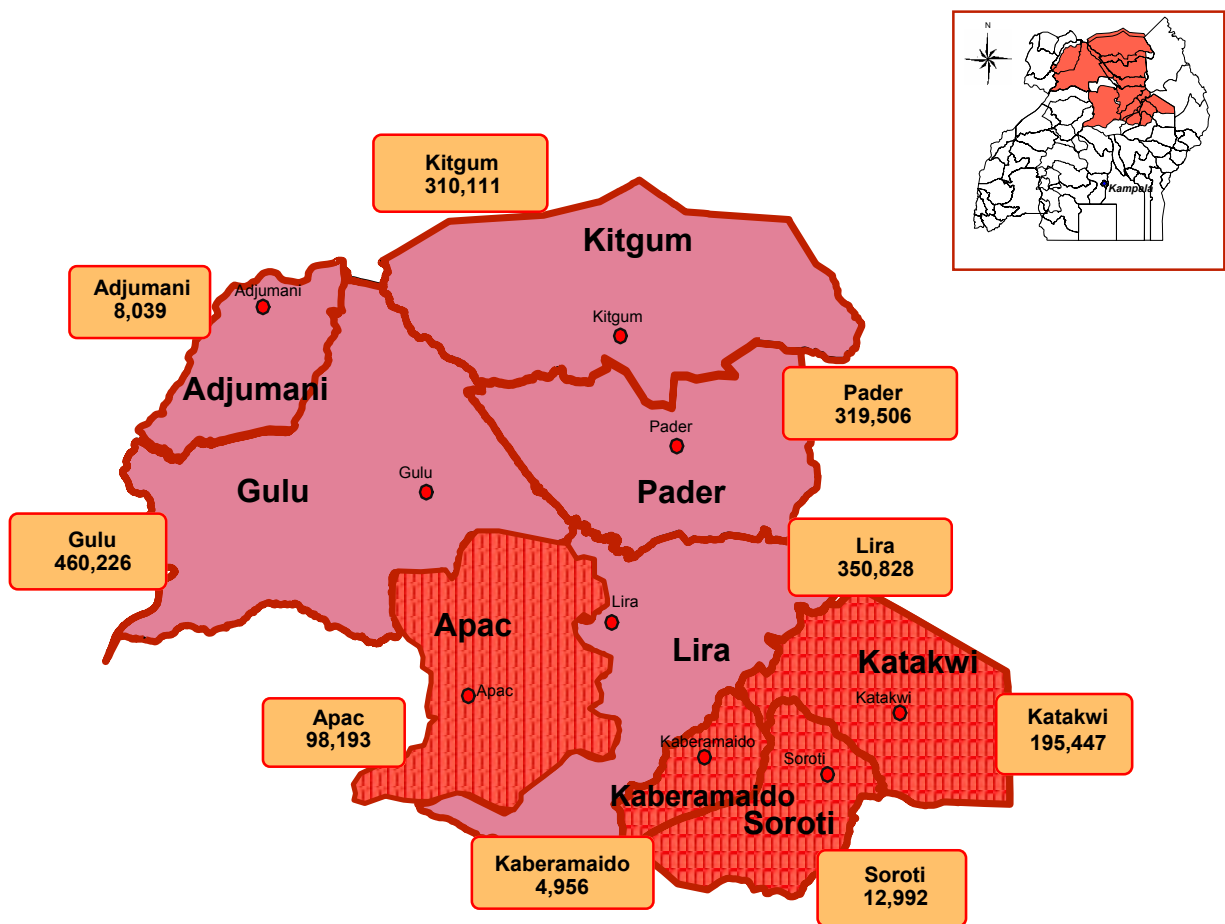
APPENDIX 1



OCHA - UGANDA

IDP Population in the conflict affected districts

1,760,298 as of July 2005



 IDPs numbers by WFP - 1,448,710

 IDPs numbers estimated - 311,588

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