



THE REPUBLIC OF UGANDA

# STATE OF UGANDA POPULATION REPORT 2018



**GOOD GOVERNANCE; A PREREQUISITE TO HARNESS THE  
DEMOGRAPHIC DIVIDEND FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT**





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# STATE OF UGANDA POPULATION REPORT 2018

**Good Governance; A prerequisite to harness the Demographic  
Dividend for Sustainable Development**



Computer Training in Primary and Secondary Schools

# Foreword

Good governance and accountability are essential for sustainable and inclusive economic growth. They ensure equitable allocation and distribution of public resources and efficient delivery of public services, which among other things creates a conducive environment for investment and growth especially if we are to harness the Demographic Dividend. The Government of Uganda acknowledges the magnitude and complexity of the development challenges faced in the country concerning the delivery of public services. We therefore need to adopt and prioritize governance as one of the most important component for social transformation for harnessing the demographic dividend.

Good governance and accountability can galvanise investor confidence, which can rekindle the socio-economic transformation of Uganda. This can be achieved by strengthening measures aimed at enhancing good governance and accountability, strengthening economic and corporate governance frameworks to instil confidence and trust among investors, re-enforcing public sector management for efficient delivery of services, empowering the population and strengthening the accountability institutions and systems.

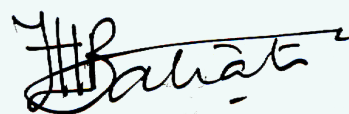
The Government therefore needs to strengthen the governance and accountability sector in order to address persistent development bottlenecks and harness the demographic dividend. Harnessing the demographic dividend will require better governance in the key sectors of health, education and the economy. The governance sought here aims at achieving the following: transparency and accountability, promoting the spirit of collective action, social inclusion, performance-based work culture and improved levels of public integrity for use of public resources in the delivery of services.

This report comes at the time when the population management discourse in Africa Sub-region is focusing on “Expansion and Scaling up of existing National Initiatives on population and development which focus on

the harnessing the Demographic Dividend and the Empowerment of population sub-groups such as the children, youth and women in the context of the 2013 Addis Ababa Declaration on Population and Development (AADPD) and African Agenda 2063.

In Uganda we need to take advantage of our population dynamics to accelerate socio-economic transformation by focusing on reducing the high infant, child and maternal mortality, high fertility and high dependency. For us to reap the benefits of demographic dividend, we need investments that will help to accelerate fertility and mortality decline, change the current unfavourable age structure and this must be accompanied by strategic investments in education and skills development, health, economic reforms that enhance job creation and improve governance and accountability measures at all levels as a pre-condition to harnessing the Demographic Dividend for Sustainable Development.

The State of Uganda Population Report, 2018 synthesizes the content of 2014 report by focusing on Governance as one of the drivers/wheels for harnessing the Demographic Dividend in Uganda. The report analyses the implications of Governance in development policies and programmes for the delivery of quality public services that would contribute to a demographic dividend and socio-economic transformation in Uganda. This report makes an analytical contribution to the implementation of Uganda’s national development strategy. The report is also intended for the wider audience, including policy and decision makers, opinion leaders, researchers, academia, Government and other stakeholders engaged in improving the quality of life of the people of Uganda.



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# List of Acronyms

AADPD	-	Addis Ababa Declaration on Population and Development
ACD	-	Anti Corruption Department
ADS	-	Alternative Distribution Strategy
AHSPR	-	Annual Health Sector Performance Report
AIDS	-	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
All	-	Africa Integrity Indicator
ASER	-	Annual Status of Education Report
BFP	-	Budget Framework Papers
BTTB	-	Background to the Budget
BTVET	-	Business, Technical, Vocational Education and Training
CBO	-	Community Based Organization
CHEWs	-	Community Health Extension Workers
CIP	-	Costed Implementation Plan
CLGA	-	Committee on Local Government Accounts
COSASE	-	Commissions, Statutory Authorities and State Enterprises
CPR	-	Contraceptive Prevalence Rate
CSO	-	Civil Society Organisations
CSS	-	Committee on Social Services
DD	-	Demographic Dividend
DFID	-	Department for International Development
DPAP	-	District Population Action Plan
DPP	-	Directorate of Public Prosecutions
DRC	-	Democratic Republic of Congo
DSW	-	German foundation for World Population
EABI	-	East African Bribery Index
EAC	-	East African Community
ECD	-	Early Childhood Development
EOC	-	Equal Opportunities Commission
EPR	-	Employment to Population Ratio
EPRC	-	Economic Policy Research Centre
ERCAS	-	European Research Centre for Anti-corruption and State Building
FDI	-	Foreign Direct Investment
FGM	-	Female Genital Mutilation
FP	-	Family Planning
FY	-	Financial Year
GAVI	-	Global Alliance for Vaccines and Immunization
GBV	-	Gender-Based Violence
GDI	-	Gender Development Index
GDP	-	Gross Domestic Product
GE	-	Gender and Equity
GER	-	Gross Enrolment Rate
GGGS	-	Global Gender Gap Score
GII	-	Gender Inequality Index
GIS	-	Geographic Information System
GNI	-	Gross National Income
GOU	-	Government of Uganda
GPI	-	Gender Parity Index
HDI	-	Human Development Index
HIV	-	Human Immuno Virus
HMC	-	Health Management Committee

HMIS	-	Health Management Information System
ICT	-	Information and Communications Technology
ICPD	-	International Conference on Population and Development
IHDI	-	Inequality in Human Development Index
IAG	-	Ibrahim Index of African Governance
IMR	-	Infant Mortality Rate
IPI	-	Index of Public Integrity
IUD	-	Intra-Uterine Device
JMS	-	Joint Medical Stores
LARC	-	Long Acting Reversible Contraceptives
LED	-	Local Economic Development
LFPR	-	Labour Force Participation Rate
LG	-	Local Government
MDA	-	Ministries, Departments and Agencies
MEMD	-	Ministry of Energy and Mineral Development
MGLSD	-	Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development
MH	-	Maternal Health
MMR	-	Maternal Mortality Ratio
MOES	-	Ministry of Education and Sports
MOFPED	-	Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development
MOH	-	Ministry of Health
MOOCs.	-	Massive Open Online Courses
MPS	-	Ministerial Policy Statements
MSU	-	Marie Stopes Uganda
MTEF	-	Medium Term Expenditure Framework
MTrac	-	Mobile Tracking
MUK	-	Makerere University Kampala
NBFP	-	National Budget Framework Papers
NCDC	-	National Curriculum Development Centre
NDP	-	National Development Plan
NGO	-	Non -governmental Organisation
NGPS	-	National Governance, Peace and Security Survey
NH	-	Newborn Health
NHA	-	National Health Account
NIRA	-	National Identification Registration Authority
NMS	-	National Medical Stores
NPA	-	National Planning Authority
NPC	-	National Population Council
NPHC	-	National Population and Housing Census
NRM	-	National Resistance Movement
NSDC	-	National Skill Development Corporation
NSDS	-	National Service Delivery Survey
OAG	-	Office of Auditor General
OBT	-	Output Budget Tool
OECD	-	Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development
OIG	-	Office of the Inspectorate of Government
OPM	-	Office of the Prime Minister
PAC	-	Public Accounts Committee
PACE	-	Programme for Accessible Health Communication and Education
PBB	-	Programme Based Budgeting
PEFA	-	Public Expenditure and Financial Accountability
PFM	-	Public Finance Management
PMA	-	Performance Monitoring and Accountability

PoA	-	Programme of Action
PPD	-	Partners in Population and Development
PPDA	-	Public Procurement and Disposal of Assets Authority
PRD	-	Peace, Recovery and Development
PRDP	-	Peace, Recovery and Development Plan
RDC	-	Resident District Commissioner
RH	-	Reproductive Health
RH	-	Reproductive Health
RHC	-	Research Health Commodity
RHU	-	Reproductive Health Uganda
RMNCAH	-	Reproductive, Maternal, Newborn Child and Adolescent Health
ROM	-	Results Oriented Management
SACMEQ	-	Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
SD	-	Sustainable Development
SDG	-	Sustainable Development Goal
SDM	-	Standard Day Method
SDP	-	Service Delivery Point
SMC	-	School Management Committees
SRHR	-	Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights
SRHR	-	Sexual Reproductive Health and Rights
SSA	-	Sub Saharan Africa
STDs	-	Sexually Transmitted Diseases
TFR	-	Total Fertility Rate
TVET	-	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UBOS	-	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UCC	-	Uganda Communications Commission
UDHS	-	Uganda Demographic Health Survey
UFMR	-	Under Five Mortality Rate
UFPC	-	Uganda Family Planning Consortium
Ushs	-	Uganda Shilling
UHMG	-	Uganda Health Marketing Group
UN	-	United Nations
UNDP	-	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	-	United Nations Population Fund
UNHS	-	Uganda National Household Survey
UNICEF	-	United Nations Children's Fund
UNRA	-	Uganda National Roads Authority
UNPS	-	Uganda National Panel Survey
UPE	-	Universal Primary Education
URSB	-	Uganda Registration Services Bureau
USAID	-	United States Agency for International Development
USD	-	United States Dollar
USDI	-	Uganda Service Delivery Indicator
USE	-	Universal Secondary Education
UWEP	-	Uganda Women Entrepreneurship Programme
UYVCF	-	Uganda Youth Venture Capital Fund
VHTs	-	Village Health Teams
WEF	-	World Economic Forum
WHO	-	World Health Organisation
YLP	-	Youth Livelihood Programme





*Source of the Nile Bridge*

# Chapter 1: **OVERVIEW**

## 1.1 Introduction`

Governance is broadly defined as the set of traditions and institutions by which authority in a country is exercised. This includes (i) the process by which governments are selected, monitored and replaced, (ii) the capacity of the government to effectively formulate and implement sound policies, and (iii) the respect of citizens and the state for the institutions that govern economic and social interactions among them.

Good governance and accountability are essential for sustainable and inclusive economic growth. They ensure equitable allocation and distribution of public resources and the efficient delivery of public services, which among other things creates a conducive environment for private sector investment and growth. Recognising the magnitude and complexity of the development challenges that Uganda faces, there is widespread consensus among development practitioners, financiers and scholars that the Government of Uganda needs to adopt and operationalize sound public administration institutions and practices.

According to the NDP II, economic development and transformation cannot thrive if citizens and investors have no confidence in the rule of law and the justice system. The rule of law regulates economic activity, defines and affirms rights and obligations therefore, clarifying for investors the laws and institutional environment for doing business.

Good governance provides a setting for the equitable distribution of benefits from economic growth. The Constitution requires that the State promotes balanced development for all regions of the country, between rural and urban areas. It also requires the State to take special measures to develop Uganda's least developed areas and to pay special attention to the problems of the marginalized<sup>1</sup>. More equal income distribution stimulates consumption by the majority of the population and therefore, raises productivity and results in sustainable growth.

The fight against corruption is particularly important with regard to the reduction of poverty and inequality. Corruption impacts the poorest sections of society disproportionately, and generally benefits those already in positions of power and authority. Without reducing corruption and improving accountability, all other development goals could be severely compromised, including the economic growth and infrastructure aspects of the NDP II. Governance comprises Public Sector Management, Public Administration, the Legislature and Accountability Sector (LAS), Justice Law and Order Sectors (JLOS), as well as Defence and Security.

**Table 1: The Worldwide Governance Indicators**

1.	<b>Regulatory quality:</b> Capturing perceptions of the ability of the government to formulate and implement sound policies and regulations that permit and promote private sector development.
2.	<b>Political stability and absence of violence:</b> Capturing perceptions of the likelihood that the government will be destabilised or overthrown by unconstitutional or violent means, including politically-motivated violence and terrorism.
3.	<b>Government effectiveness:</b> Capturing perceptions of the quality of public services, the quality of the civil service and the degree of its independence from political pressures, the quality of policy formulation and implementation, and the credibility of the Government's commitment to such policies.

<sup>1</sup> Uganda Constitution, Objective XII of the National Objectives and Directives Principles of State Policy

4.	<b>Voice and accountability:</b> Capturing perceptions of the extent to which a country's citizens are able to participate in selecting their government, as well as freedom of expression, freedom of association and a free media.
5.	<b>Rule of law:</b> Capturing perceptions of the extent to which agents have confidence in and abide by the rules of society, and in particular the quality of contract enforcement, property rights, the police, and the courts, as well as the likelihood of crime and violence
6	<b>Control of corruption:</b> Capturing perceptions of the extent to which public power is exercised for private gain, including both petty and grand forms of corruption, as well as "capture" of the state by elites and private interests.

Source: *Worldwide Governance Indicators*

## 1.2 The Demographic Dividend

Today, African leaders agree that Africa has a great opportunity to reap economic benefits from strategic investments made in the continent's current large youthful population. The "**demographic dividend**" is the accelerated economic growth that can result from improved reproductive health, a rapid decline in fertility, and the subsequent shift in population age structure. With more people in the labor force and fewer children to support, **a country has a window of opportunity**—but only if the right social and economic investments and policies are made in health, education, governance, and the economy.

To harness this dividend, Uganda needs to also invest in good governance and accountability. This year, the African Union's theme is "**Winning the Fight Against Corruption: A Sustainable Path to Africa's Transformation,**" an indication that African leaders are aware that corruption is a barrier to progress on the continent. However, this element is not receiving as much attention in demographic dividend conversations between experts and African policymakers.

## 1.3 Effective leadership in harnessing demographic dividend

Ugandan leaders have supported several policies and activities geared towards influencing economic growth through a change in Uganda's age structure typically brought on by a decline in fertility/family sizes and mortality rates and investment in education and economic growth, otherwise referred to as demographic dividend. However, some of the policy actions have been met with numerous challenges both at the strategic and operational level.

The NDP II affirms that, Uganda, although a low-income country can also benefit from the growth in the size of the global markets for food, natural resources and light manufactured goods by taking advantage of its demographic transition that is starting to take root, by increasing the volume, diversity and quality of goods produced in these categories. Although Uganda's population growth rate of 3.0 percent is projected to drop to 2.4 percent by the year 2040, the total population will increase to 61 million in 2040<sup>2</sup>. The decline in the size of the young population cohorts, due to declining fertility and the rise of the working age population cohorts, potentially present a demographic dividend for Uganda which, if properly harnessed, could propel the rate of economic growth.

<sup>2</sup> NPA – *Harnessing the Demographic Dividend, Accelerating socioeconomic transformation in Uganda*

## 1.4 Multi-sectoral leadership

Uganda's approach to leverage multi-sectoral participation to achieve the demographic dividend is guided by the Addis Ababa Declaration on Population and Development in Africa beyond 2014, under the theme "Harnessing the Demographic Dividend: The Future We Want for Africa" and within the recommendations of the ICPD@20 review report by UN (2014).

The ICPD@20 report demands for better leadership and greater innovation to address five (5) critical strategies:

1. Human rights and protection of all persons from discrimination and violence, in order that all persons have the opportunity to contribute to and benefit from development.
2. Investment in the capabilities and creativity of young people to assure future growth and innovation.
3. Strengthening of health systems to provide universal access to sexual and reproductive health to enable all women to thrive and all children to grow in a nurturing environment.
4. Build sustainable cities that enrich urban and rural lives alike, and
5. Transform the economy to be sustainable and ensure a common future of dignity and well-being for all people.

The implementation of strategies to attain the Demographic Dividend in Uganda is steered by a high-level multi-sectoral government committee led by the Minister of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (UNFPA 2016). In addition, the demographic dividend planning strategy is integrated into the National Development Plan (NDP) II and is mainstreamed into sectoral and sub-national development and budgeting frameworks (Ibid).

## 1.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, in the context of demographic dividend research, good governance is viewed as a crosscutting issue. This means that every sector critical for a demographic dividend—health, education, economic reforms, and job creation, has a governance component—as the government needs to ensure that for each of these sectors, the resources allocated for public service delivery are put into good use, the accountability mechanisms for public funds are robust, and corrupt officials standing in the way of progress are dealt with swiftly. Therefore, beyond making initial investments in family planning to facilitate fertility decline and a demographic transition, Uganda as a country should make good governance and accountability central to its strategies in the key sectors of health, education, and the economy.



## 1.6 Policy Recommendations

1. Strengthen the economic and corporate governance frameworks to instil confidence and trust among domestic and foreign investors;
2. Adhere to the rule of law in order to attract foreign and local investors and to empower the population to actively participate in development activities;
3. Reinforce public sector management for efficient delivery of public goods and services, and
4. Empower citizens, civil society, the media, and the private sector to fight and report corruption and strengthen anti-corruption institutions and systems to bring perpetrators to account.



*Local Leaders discussing of Development Programme Activities*

## Chapter 2: **EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP FOR ACHIEVING DEMOGRAPHIC DIVIDEND**

## 2.1 Introduction

Uganda's young population can be a valuable asset in driving the demographic dividend agenda. This will depend on the country's ability to implement a development program that recognises the importance of population dynamics in development.<sup>3</sup> In this regard, there is a need to deliberately change Uganda's age structure to transform the population to have more workers than dependent by reducing birth rates and investing in the health, skill, education and employment of the youthful population. The shift in the age structure could be a driving force to achieve the socio-economic transformation envisaged in the second National Development Plan, the Vision 2040 and Sustainable Development Goals (SDG).

However, such investments require effective leadership to position education, health, family planning and reproductive health programs as integral strategy to attain the demographic dividend. The danger of not integrating population concerns into economic and social planning and policy making lies in acceleration of fertility rates and family sizes; coupled with an increase in mortality rate. Consequently, the ratio of working age adults will significantly decline leading to high dependency ratio and competition for scarce resources thus endangering Uganda's economic growth and the harnessing of demographic dividend. Statistics from the 2014 National Population and Housing Census (UBOS 2016) point to the challenges and opportunities faced by the country. Uganda has one of the fastest growing and most youthful population in the world (persons below 18 years). In addition, Uganda has a slow but declining total fertility rate (5.4 children per woman), steadily declining infant mortality (43 per 1000 live births) and has a high age-dependency ratio (103 percent).

Effective leadership requires partnerships that build capacity in use of evidence in providing effective leadership. While the government of Uganda has made efforts to develop the capacity to use evidence in policymaking, there is a scope to deepen the capacity to generate, manage and analyze administrative data, surveys and censuses Uganda.

This chapter identifies spaces where leadership can be leveraged to encourage multi-sectoral participation and cooperation in development policy, enhance accountability systems for development, encourage evidence-based decision and build capacity to integrate population dynamics in development planning and economic growth.

This chapter integrates demographic, social and economic statistics of the interests to the DD to discuss how the Government can leverage the opportunities presented by population dynamics. The rest of the chapter analyses the concept of effective leadership in the context of Uganda and demographic dividend, examines the idea of multi-sectoral approach in terms of adequacy of institution to program and generate evidence for demographic dividend programming, knowledge required to support effective leadership, ways of enhancing institutional capacity, examines the modalities for leveraging partnership for evidence-based leadership and policy recommendations.

## 2.2 Effective leadership in harnessing demographic dividend

Ugandan leaders have supported several policies and activities geared towards influencing economic growth through a change in Uganda's age structure typically brought on by a decline in fertility and mortality rates and investment in education and economic growth. However, some of the policy actions have been met with numerous challenges both at the strategic and operational level. Sub section 2 evaluates the process and the outcome of government policies geared towards changing the structure of Uganda's population.

<sup>3</sup> *The demographic dividend refers to accelerated economic growth that arises when the birth rate declines rapidly and the ratio of working-age adults significantly increases relative to dependents (Bloom et al., 2003; Mason 2001)*

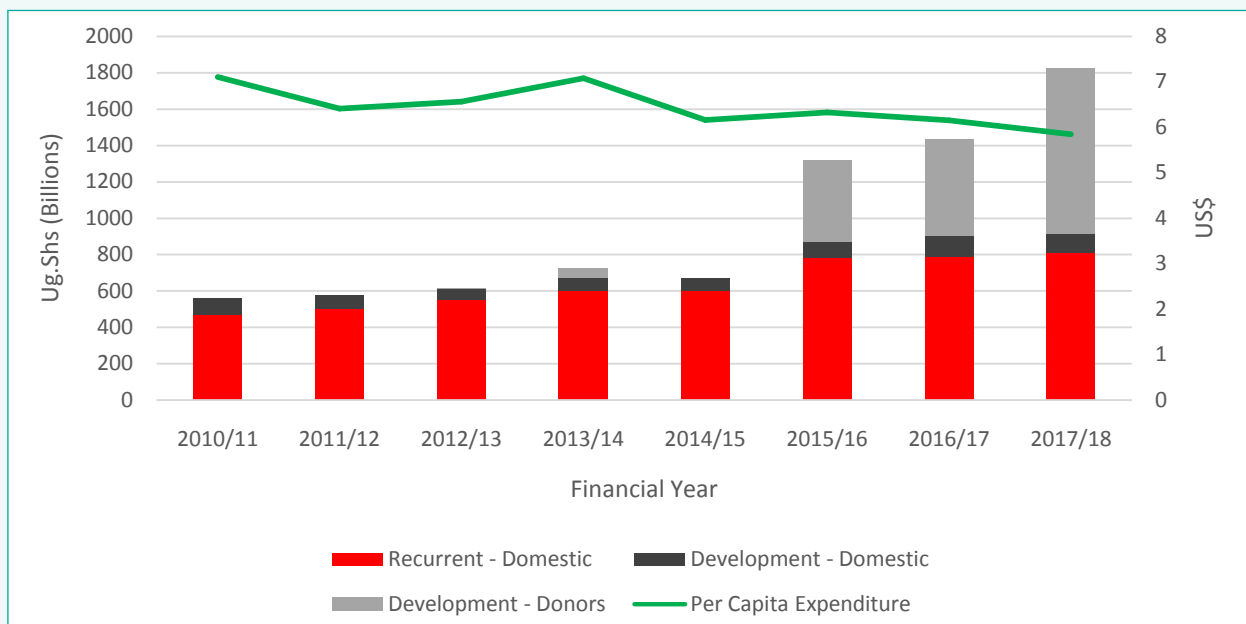
## 2.2.1 Decline in fertility rate

According to UBoS (2016) Uganda's population stood at 34.6 million and is projected to grow at an annual rate of 3 percent. This was as a result of high fertility of 5.8 children per woman. Unplanned population leads to competition for limited resources threatening economic prospect and the envisaged endowments of having a large youthful population. This calls for a deliberate effort to manage the family sizes at the household level. UNICEF (2014), Hollander (1998) and host of many other studies shows that savings from having a small/manageable family sizes enables parents to offer their children health and educational advantages, which generally raise quality of human capital and labour supply leading to economic growth.

In this respect, the leadership of Uganda, especially H.E. Yoweri Museveni, the President of Uganda have shown commitment to increasing access to family planning services by carrying out a bottleneck analysis of Reproductive, Maternal, Newborn Child and Adolescent Health (RMNCAH) and developed a draft RMNCAH catalytic plan. Uganda has also established a Reproductive Health (RH) budget line; developed a strategy for managing RH commodity security; prioritized RH in Government policy documents including the Vision 2040, the National Development Plan (NDP), the Health Sector Strategic and Investment Plan (HSSIP). Most importantly, Maternal and Newborn Health (MNH) continue to be the priority areas in the Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) since 2010/11 to date (2018/19).

However, there is a scope to increase on health expenditure, which directly impacts on expenditures on Reproductive Health (RH) and Family Planning (FP) (Lakuma and Lwanga 2017). While the nominal budget allocations to the health sector have increased from Ushs. 560 billion in FY 2010/11 to Ushs. 911 billion in FY 2018/19, it remains between 6 and 7 percent of total budget as shown in figure 2.1. This is 9 percentage points below the 15 percent of total budget threshold envisaged by the Abuja Declaration, which Uganda signed and ratified. The per-capita expenditure remain below US\$ 8 below the World Health Organization recommendation of US\$ 44 per person. In this regard, the gap in the health sector has largely been filled by development partners. Figure 2.1 shows that the proportion of aid to the health sector has increased from as small as Ushs. 100 billion in FY 2013/14 to account for half of the health sector expenditure of Ushs 1.8 trillion in FY 2017/ 18.

Figure 2.1: Nominal Uganda Health Budget Outturns



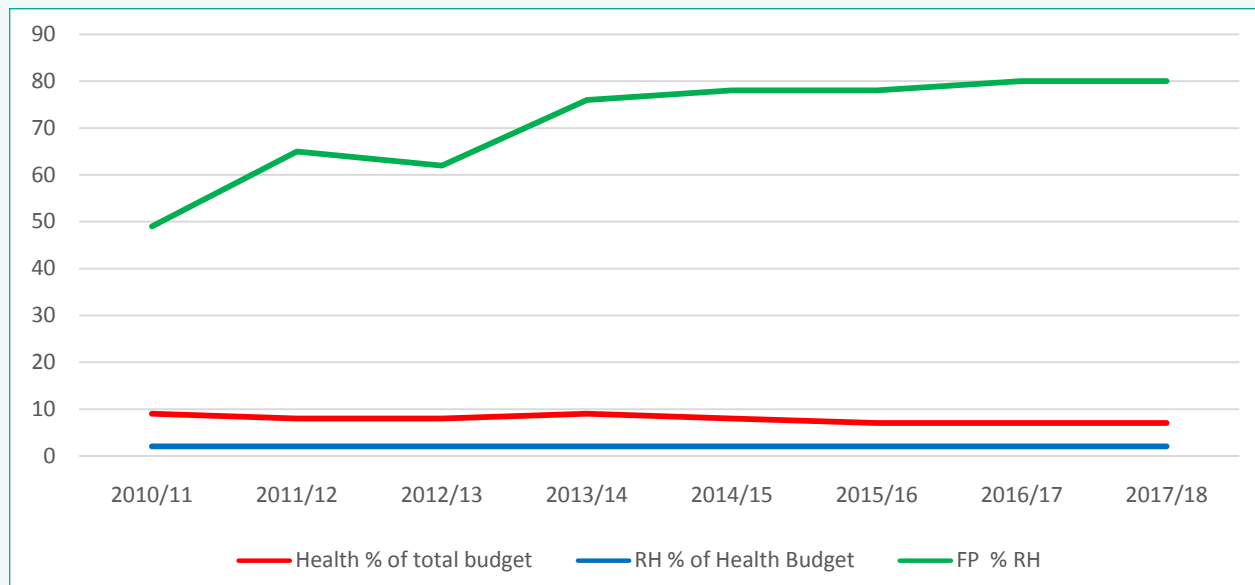
Source: Budget Frame Work Paper 2010/11 to 2017/18



In addition, the allocation to RH are not consistent with the political commitment.<sup>4</sup> While RH nominal budget increased by 62 percent, from Ushs. 11 billion in FY 2010/11 to Ushs. 18 billion in FY 2018/19, its' proportion relative to the annual budget stagnated at 2 percent in the year under review (figure 2.2). Nevertheless, FP share of RH budget consistently grown from 49 percent in FY 2010/11 to 80 percent in FY 2017/18.

The nominal increase in RH budget is owing to the increased RH commodity procurement since FY 2005/06. RH commodity include delivery kits, manual vacuum aspiration kits, gynecological gloves and misoprostol for prevention and treatment of post-delivery bleeding. The increase in RH commodity procurement is largely due to the FY 2010/11 policy shift that disbursed budget for RH commodities through the National Medical Stores instead of the Ministry of Health, which delayed fund leading to low budget absorption and, consequently, poor service delivery. The policy shift significantly increased RH budget absorption and given Government the stimulus to enhance resource allocation to the RH programs (DSW 2014). Initially the absorption capacity of RH budget was at 30 percent of budget (ibid).

**Figure 2.2: Percentage share Health, Reproductive Health (RH) and Family Planning (FP) (Nominal figures)**



Source: Budget Frame Work Paper 2010/11 to 2017/18

Given that local governments are the frontline of service delivery, it is prudent that resources mobilized by the central government trickle down to sub-national government where impact is significant. A review of RH and FP services at the district health facilities by DSW (2014) revealed that while condoms and midwives were available, adolescent RH and facilities to administer FP, MH, Malaria and HIV/AIDS services were not available in most of the districts in the sample. This is largely because budget allocation for FP programs in referral hospitals has stagnated at 1.5 percent relative to the total budget. DSW (2014) reveals that this could be due to new government objective of prioritizing emergency obstetric and newborn care at referral hospitals.

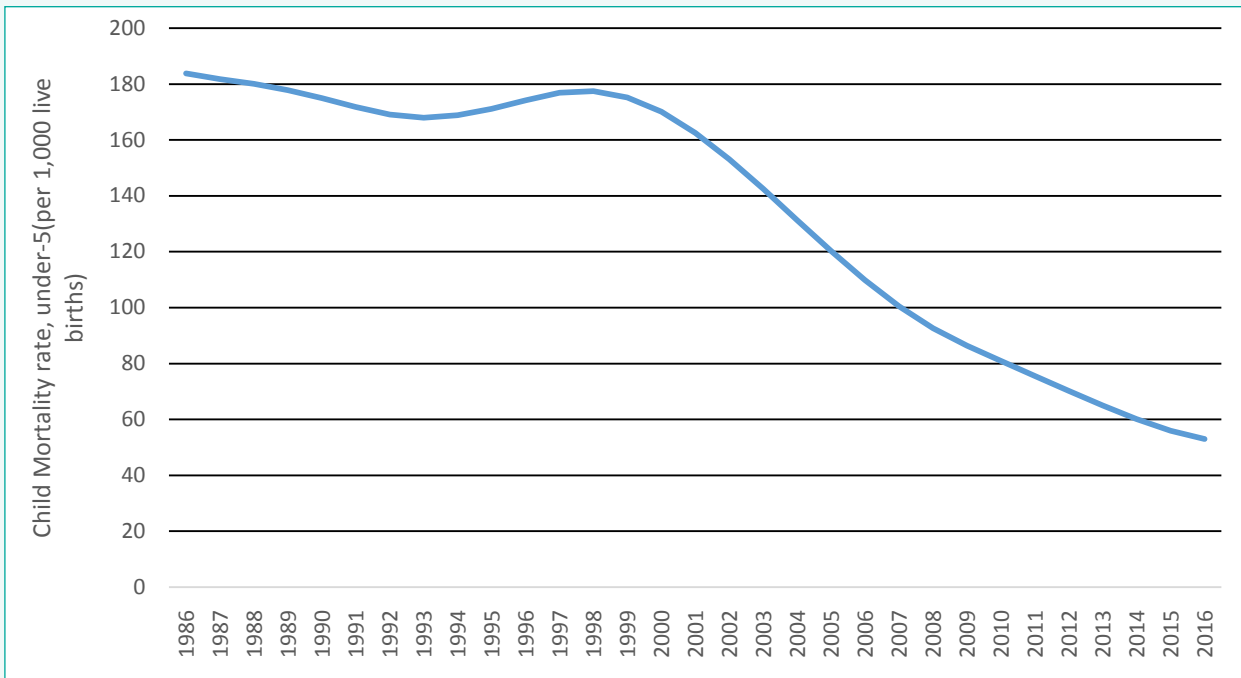
## 2.2.2 Decline in Child Mortality

In the past three decades, effective leadership has partially enabled Uganda to make substantial progress in reducing child mortality. The total number of under-five deaths dropped from 183 per 1,000 live births in 1986 to 64 per 1,000 live births in 2016 as shown in Figure 2.3. Despite this achievement, each year approximately 200,000 children under the age of five in Uganda die from

<sup>4</sup> RH includes FP, Adolescent RH, MH, NH, CH and RH cancer

illnesses such as diarrhea, pneumonia, and malaria, which are largely preventable or treatable, and from diseases that could be eliminated through the administration of timely vaccines.

**Figure 2.3: Child Mortality rate, under-5 (per 1,000 live births), 1986-2016**



Source: World Bank: World Development Indicators

If the current trends continue, Uganda will fall short of reaping the demographic dividend and the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) target on child survival. In this regard, many lives can be saved if leaders are committed to close the gaps in Uganda's health system and factor that foster vulnerability in children such as poverty, conflict and maternal health, age and education.

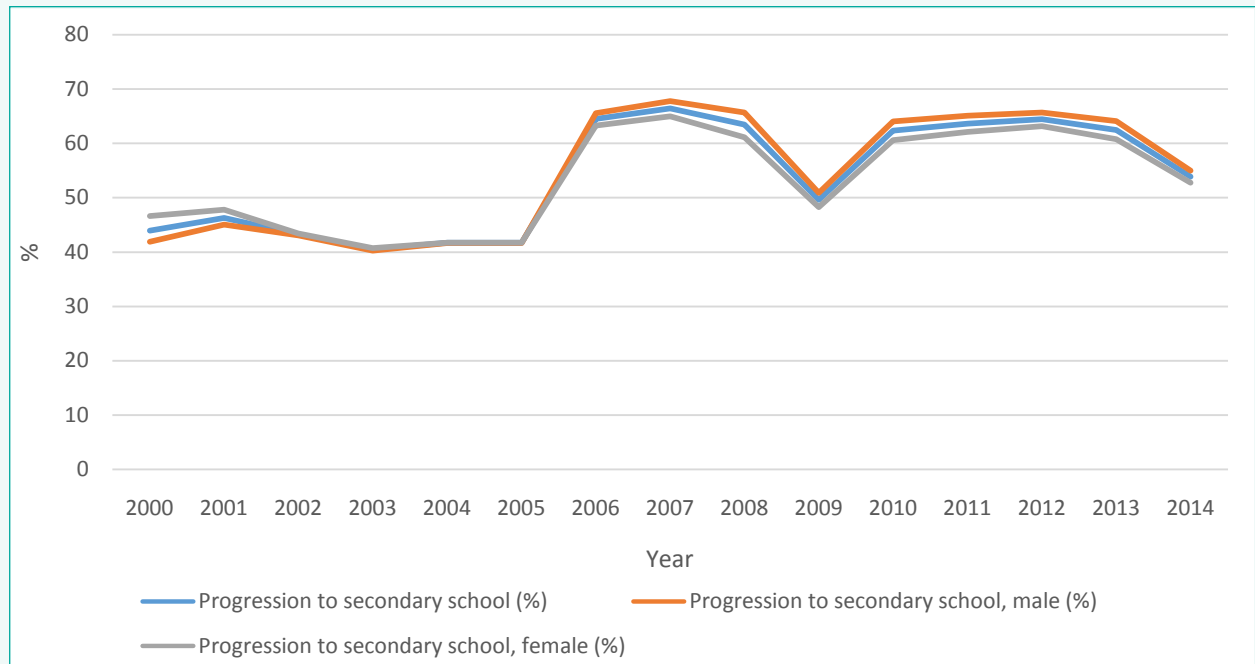
### 2.2.3 Universal Education

The Universal Primary Education (UPE) policy was launched in 1997. UPE was a program in the NRM manifesto of 1996. UPE aimed to provide universal primary education for all children. The UPE system has enabled 87 percent of the boys and girls of primary school going age (6-12 years) to attend school (UBOS 2016). Consequently, close to 58 percent of the population aged 6 years and above have attained primary education (UBOS 2016). There is almost balance between girls and boys who have completed primary education indicating that gender parity has been achieved at primary level.

While education is a right enshrined in the Constitution of the Republic of Uganda (1995), where articles 30 and 34 make provision for education as a human right, and basic education as an entitlement for all children, about 1 in every 10 children of primary school going age had never been to school (UBOS 2016). The UPE schools also lack funds and human resources, which affects the quality of UPE system. Consequently, learning levels are low, which threatens the achievement of the demographic dividend. Annual Status of Education Report (ASER) 2011, found nine out of 10 primary 3 students were unable to read a primary 2 story in English (grade 2 represents basic skills), and one in five were unable to recognize letters of the English alphabet. There are similar findings in reading and mathematics, only 10 percent of primary 6 students could read at the expected level (SACMEQ 2010). Inadequate literacy and numeracy coupled lack of school fees amongst other problems

meant that less than 45 percent of learners who started primary one proceed to secondary education before 2006 as shown in figure 2.4.

**Figure 2.4: Progression to Secondary Schools (%)**

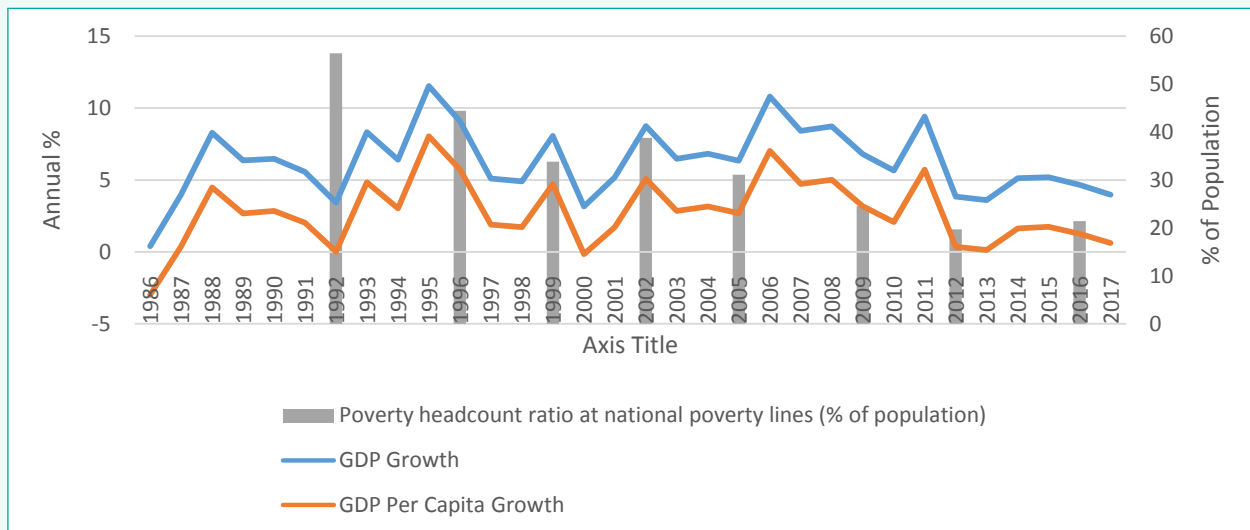


Source: World Bank: World Development Indicators

Due to low transition of children to higher levels, it required effective leadership to initiate the Universal Secondary Education (USE) Policy in 2007 to accommodate primary school graduates. This policy implementation made Uganda become the first country in sub-Saharan Africa to introduce USE. Figure 4 shows that after the USE policy in 2007, progression to secondary schools increased to 67 percent. However, the rate of transition has dropped gradually to 54 percent in 2014—more particularly in relation to the girl child. Up to 48 percent of girls who start primary one do not transition to secondary. Early marriage (31 percent) and pregnancy (21 percent) are the leading contributors to girl child drop out from primary school. In contrast, the top reason that boys drop out is lack of interest in schooling constitutes 42 percent (USAID, 2018). ASER (2011) also found out that high level of absenteeism among Head teachers (21 percent) and teachers (14 percent).

## 2.2.4 National Economy

The National Resistance Movement (NRM) led by President Yoweri Museveni initiated a raft of measures aimed at rationalizing the structure, size and efficiency of the economy and civil service. These reforms led to the creation of a robust formal governance system that shored up confidence in the public sector attracting investments that led to a sustained period of high growth and poverty reduction. Between 1987 and 2010, economic growth averaged 7 percent and poverty headcount ratio was more than halved from 56 percent in 1992 to 24.5 percent in 2009 as shown in figure 2.5.

**Figure 2.5: Economic Growth and Poverty Reduction in Uganda (%)**

Source: World Bank: World Development Indicators

However, Uganda's economy has grown at a slower pace recently, subsequently reducing its impact on poverty. Average annual growth was 4.5 percent in the five years to 2016 and poverty reduced much slower by 3.1 percentage point in the five years to 2016. The slowdown is ascribed to many things: first is climate change as Uganda continues to rely on rain fed agriculture, which threatens incomes of poor households as well as exports (Lakuma and Maweje 2016). Secondly, the increase in debt to 38 percent of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), coupled with a low tax collection of 14 percent of GDP, is exacerbated by poor implementation of public projects and delays in procurement, which prevent the productivity gains expected from enhanced infrastructure (Maweje and Munyambonera 2017). The increase in debt and acceleration in domestic arrears (2 percent of GDP) may also have an adverse impact on private investment and lead to increase in the cost of private sector credit (Lakuma and Lwanga 2017). Lastly, regional political instability, particularly in South Sudan and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), undermine exports. South Sudan and the DRC explain 40 percent and 20 percent of Uganda's export (Lakuma and Maweje 2016).

Despite of the vulnerabilities enumerated above, Uganda's growth prospects remain vibrant driven largely by growth in information and communications technology (ICT) services and the agricultural sector. The policy and legal frameworks continue to improve, notably through the Public Financial Management Act (2015) (Munyambonera and Lwanga 2015).

## 2.3 Effectiveness of Multi-sectoral Leadership

Uganda's approach to leverage multi-sectoral participation to achieve the demographic dividend is guided by the Addis Ababa Declaration on Population and Development in Africa beyond 2014, under the theme "Harnessing the Demographic Dividend: The Future We Want for Africa" and within the recommendations of the ICPD@20 review report by UN (2014).

The ICPD@20 report demands for better leadership and greater innovation to address five (5) critical strategies:

1. Human rights and protection of all persons from discrimination and violence, in order that all persons have the opportunity to contribute to and benefit from development;

2. Investment in the capabilities and creativity of young people to assure future growth and innovation;
3. Strengthening of health systems to provide universal access to sexual and reproductive health to enable all women to thrive and all children to grow in a nurturing environment;
4. Build sustainable cities that enrich urban and rural lives alike, and
5. Transform the economy to be sustainable and ensure a common future of dignity and well-being for all people.

The implementation of strategies to attain the demographic dividend in Uganda is steered by a high-level multi-sectoral government committee led by the Minister of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (UNFPA 2016). In addition, the demographic dividend planning strategy is integrated into the second National Development Plan (NDP II) and is mainstreamed into sectoral and sub-national development and budgeting frameworks as discussed in section 2.3.1 below.

### 2.3.1 Effectiveness of Government of Uganda institutions

For demographic dividend to take place the Government of Uganda needs to ensure that there are adequate institutions to carry out the planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of population and development activities. The ICPD@20 review report called on Governments to ensure adequate institutions to carry out the planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the demographic dividend strategies. Table 2 below examines a selection of Government Institutions established to address policy areas related to the above-mentioned 5 critical strategies. The policy areas relate to population dynamics and sustainable development; gender equality and women's empowerment; adolescents and youth; sexual and reproductive health and rights; and education.

**Table 2: Examples of Government Related Institution to address Demographic Dividend Issues**

Mandate of Institution	Name of Institution	Year of Est.
Population	National Population Council (NPC)	1988
	Ministry of Health	Colonial
	Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS)	1998
Sustained Economic Growth and Development	Ministry of Finance, Planning and Development (MOFPED)	Colonial/ 1991
	Economic Policy Research Centre (EPRC)	1993
	National Planning Authority(NPA)	2002
Adolescent and Youth Issues	Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development (MGLSD)	1995
	Ministry of Health (MOH)	Colonial
Gender equality and women's empowerment	Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development (MGLSD)	1995

Mandate of Institution	Name of Institution	Year of Est.
Education	Ministry of Education and sports (MOES)	Colonial
	Uganda National Examination Board	1983
	National Curriculum Development Centre	2008
	Uganda National Council of Higher Education	2001
	Higher Education Students' Financing Board	2014

On the first row of table 2, NPC and UBOS provides technical backstopping for evidence-based leadership in integrating population dynamics in Uganda's policy formulation. Meanwhile, MOH strengthens health systems to provide access to sexual and reproductive health. The second row, NPA integrates population dynamics in the planning frameworks to guide interventions geared toward achievement of the demographic dividend. The MOFPED coordinates the financing of the national economic development planning framework and ensure accountability and efficient allocation of resource. The MOFPED is also tasked with the role of transforming the economy for wellbeing of all Ugandans. The EPRC provide technical backstopping to enable NPA and MOFPED perform their functions in the development process effectively and efficiently. The third, fourth and last row are institutions tasked with Institutions (MOH, MGLSD, MOES) that investment in the health of the population and capabilities and creativity of young people to enable them to achieve their potential.

However, the effectiveness of the above-mentioned and other institutions have been affected by competition and duplication of roles, which has affected their effectiveness to deliver on their mandate (Lakuma et. al 2017a). The institutions are also incapacitated by inadequate budget and human resource. For example, in the health sector there is a total staffing gap of 30 percent (MOH 2015). Uganda's health system requires 360 more doctors, 3,362 nurses, and 1,454 midwives (MOH 2015). Another example is the insignificant job creation outcomes of the Youth Venture Capital Fund (UYVCF) worth Ushs. 25 billion (about US\$ 10 million) in 2011 and the 2013, Ushs. 265 billion (about US\$ 100 million) allocated to the Youth Livelihood Programme (YLP) for enterprise development, job creation and business skills training and development (Ahaibwe and Kasirye 2015). The fund was not only skewed towards urban and service enterprises, but also majority of the youth diverted the resources to other activities (Ahaibwe and Kasirye 2015).

## 2.4 Knowledge for Effective Leadership

Effective leadership demands statistics to monitor progress and to hold leaders accountable for their actions and achievements. Statistics on civil registration, census and household surveys amongst others enables the measurement of policy outcomes and their linkages and impact on people's livelihood. On this regard, Government of Uganda has invested significantly develop its statistical capacity on demography, public health, human rights, migration, economic growth, employment and climate change. This responsibility falls largely on Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), which is responsible for a wide array of data including censuses and surveys that enable the monitoring of Government programs (Lakuma et.al 2017a). The preceding subsections addresses issues arising out of the collection, management and use of statistical information the Government has invested in the recent past.

### 2.4.1 Civil Registration

Civil registration is the compulsory, permanent, continuous and universal recording of the occurrence and characteristics of vital events such as births, deaths, marriages, divorces and adoptions. Civil registration facilitates the documentary recognition of legal identity, family relationships, nationality and rights. Civil registration records, characterized by universal coverage and continuity, are a source of vital statistics, serving the planning and monitoring needs of almost all development sectors, including health.

The Constitution of the Republic of Uganda (1995) clearly mentions in article 18 that “The State shall register every birth, marriage and death occurring in Uganda”. However, only 21 percent of all births (38 percent urban and 28.7 percent rural) and very few deaths are reported nationally (UBOS 2011). This is below Sub-Saharan average where 43 percent of all births are registered. Nevertheless, this is an improvement from the 4 percent of all births reported at national level (11 percent urban and 3.4 percent rural) recorded in 2002 (UBOS 2002).

The challenge emanates from the general population in Uganda where there is limited demand for birth registration, limited relevance to the individual, duplication and multiplicity of registration agencies, the lengthy process of issuance of birth certificates, the fees involved in registration and the heavily centralized system of obtaining certificates (UNICEF et. al 2002).

Nevertheless, several national efforts spearheaded by Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Uganda Registration Service Bureau (URSB), National Identification Registration Authority (NIRA) and Development Partners have been made to register births as prescribed in the constitution to provide data at the most disaggregated level of government functioning. These efforts involves collection of statistical indicators; organizing registration by village, age group, profession, gender or other categories; and harnessing technology such as mobile telephone.

### 2.4.2 Population Censuses

Population census is the primary source of information on the size, distribution and characteristics of a country’s population and the basis for calculation, estimation and projection of a variety of indicators needed for policymaking, planning and leadership in all development sectors. Given that Uganda’s civil registration system is incomplete, population censuses, could provide needed statistics up to the village level.

However, due to financial constraints, Uganda has had only five censuses since independence in 1962: 1969, 1980, 1991, 2002 and 2014. This affects the quality of policies being implemented given that censuses cover a variety of topics on demographic characteristics such as age, sex, marital status, fertility and mortality, maternal mortality, death, labour force participation and occupation, migration, school attendance and educational attainment and disability status amongst others.

### 2.4.3 Surveys

UBOS has conducted several household surveys, which are a valuable resource for the demographic dividend planning, since 1998. The data provides critical population data in lieu of reliable registration and frequent census data. UBOS has conducted several waves of the Uganda National Panel Survey (UNPS), Uganda Demographic and Health Survey (UDHS) and Uganda National Household Survey (UNHS). These surveys have been a valuable source of regionally and internationally comparative data on fertility; maternal and child health; sexual, reproductive and gender outcomes; HIV behaviour and HIV knowledge among others. These data sets are disaggregated by relevant factors such as

age, sex, ethnicity, locality and wealth, in order to increase understanding of disparities in social development and enable policymakers to redress inequalities. However, a challenge remains in the use of the rich data set in the conduct of public policy. More often, the capacity of Government officials, local academics and NGOs to analyse and use the data for decision-making is lacking. Particularly notable has been the constraints in capacity for policy makers in Uganda to project and plan for youth employment (Ahaibwe and Kasirye 2015; Lakuma et. al. 2016). Nevertheless, Uganda has managed to utilize statistical data in programming the management of fertility rate and fertility rate dropped from 6.9 children per woman of reproductive age in 2001 to 5.4 children per woman of reproductive age in 2016 (UBOS 2016).

## 2.5 Capacity Strengthening for Effective Leadership

As earlier mentioned, Uganda is leveraging, with challenges, the knowledge sectors for evidence based decision-making (Lakuma et. al. 2016). Particularly, UBOS and EPRC were created to improve the capacity of leaders in Uganda to use quality statistics and analysis in planning and decision-making. The increased demands for improved statistics to monitor the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and an emerging culture of results-based management of international aid has intensified the need for evidence in decision making.

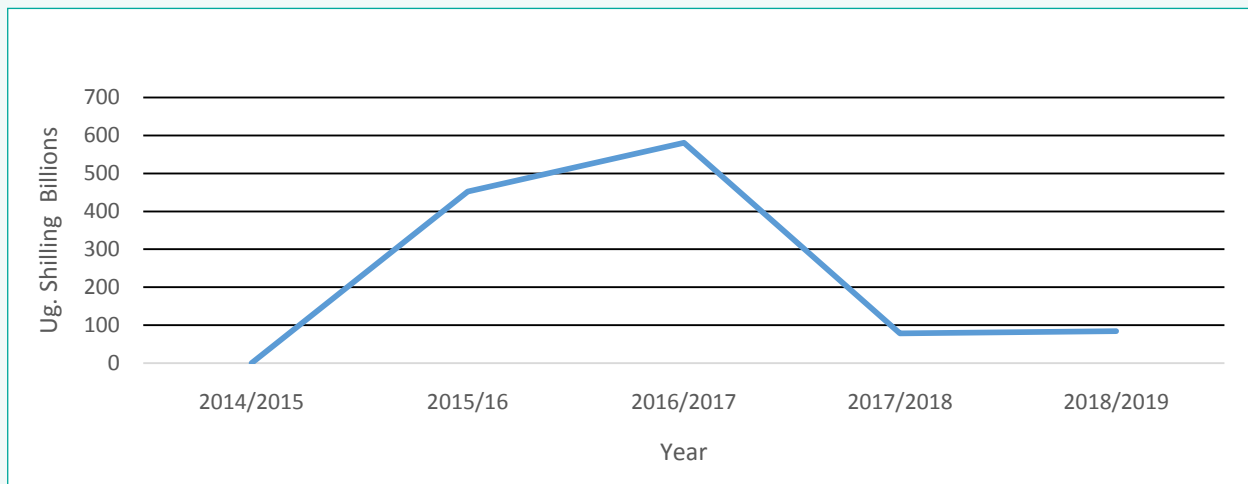
This demand has been supplemented by improvement of data availability including demographic and household surveys, service delivery surveys and living standard measurement study surveys, and the population censuses. Nevertheless, quality and coverage of baseline information are still a concern. For example, the measurement of migration remains inadequate.

## 2.6 Collaboration, Partnerships and Coherence in achieving the Demographic Dividend

International cooperation has proven essential for the implementation of the demographic dividend strategies in Uganda. Such collaboration may include local and international organizations and countries. The collaboration also include the leveraging of the influence of eminent persons. However, many collaboration have not been effective due to lack of coordination and coherence between national priorities and donor assistance, absence of local ownership, unnecessary conditionality, high transaction costs, absence of capacity development and technology/knowledge transfer, and poor aid exit strategies.

In addition, the quantity and source of aid has been changing in recent times. For example, figure 2.6 show the changing aid architecture among the traditional donors (United States of America, United Kingdom, European Union, Japan and the Nordic Countries amongst others) who support activities in the health sector. The absolute value of aid has been falling after a sharp rise in FY 2015/16 and FY 2016/17. The decrease is partially related to the financial crisis in the Eurozone and the perceptions of elevated corruption in Uganda, particularly after the alleged mismanagement of resources at the office of the Prime Minister and the Global Alliance for Vaccines and Immunization (GAVI) fund (DSW 2014). The emergence of new partners such as China also call for reconfiguration of tools to coordinate donor contributions in sectoral and national planning processes. Despite the challenges, partnerships with donors, non – Governmental organisations, eminent persons and civil society actors have been instrumental in moving the implementation of strategies necessary to for Uganda to harness the demographic dividend.



**Figure 2.6: Total Health Assistance 2014/15-2018/19 (Billions US\$)**

Source: Lakuma and Lwanga (2017)

## 2.7 Conclusions

This chapter examined how effective leadership in Uganda can be leveraged to population programs as an integral strategy to attain the demographic dividend through integration of population concerns into economic and social planning and policy making. The chapter established that effective leadership is a necessary condition to allocate resources that address the health and skill development programs. But effective leadership should be combined with global partnership to fill the resource and capacity gaps and to build more evidence-based decision making for demographic dividend programming.

## 2.8 Policy Recommendations

1. While the current trend of investing in health and reproductive health activities is promising, there is need to increase the health budget to converge to the Abuja Declaration of 15 percent of national GDP and WHO recommended Health per Capita expenditure US\$ 44.
2. The Government of Uganda should periodically monitor and evaluate policies, plans, strategies, programs and activities geared towards achieving the demographic dividend as an integral parts of sectoral, inter-sectoral and overall development planning and implementation process.
3. There is an urgent need to mainstream population dynamics in development planning, greater participation and cooperation in development policy, increased resource mobilization and increased accountability for human rights and development, and evidence-based, transparent, accountable and effective leadership.
4. The Governments of Uganda should enhance and strengthen its collaboration and cooperation, with the civil society and development partners with a view of fostering an enabling environment for implementation of demographic dividend programs.
5. Strengthen the capacity of UBOS, NPC, EPRC and other knowledge institutions on collection, analysis, dissemination and utilization of population and development data.
6. There is a need for stronger links between UBOS, NPC, EPRC and other Government institutions to use the censuses and surveys for evidence based decision making.

7. Given the importance of the statistics and existing budget constraints, Uganda needs to adopt alternative census methodologies and technologies to reduce on the costs and improve the quality and timeliness of data and diversify the methods of census dissemination away from paper publications to ensure wider readership.
8. UBOS also need to carry out of periodic situation assessments to allow leaders and citizens to determine present and future needs across different sectors and population groups.
9. Addressing increasing inequality in Uganda is imperative, to better target vulnerable populations and to ensure the benefits of development for all.
10. The Government of Uganda needs to strengthen the institutions identified to build the necessary capacity and sufficient coordination for effective integration of demographic dividend issues into development planning.

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*Parliament of Uganda and Electoral Commission Process for Local Council I Election*

# Chapter 3: **THE DEMOGRAPHIC DIVIDEND AND DECENTRALIZED GOVERNANCE IN UGANDA**

### 3.1 Introduction

The importance of demography lies in its invaluable contribution to enabling Governments and society better prepare and deal with issues and demands imposed by population growth, aging and migration. Demographic factors refer to socio-economic characteristics of a population, expressed in terms of growth rate, age, sex, education, income and employment levels. Changes in population dynamics occur slowly, can be significant for the nature and pace of socio-economic progress of society.

### 3.2 The Population Situation and Implication for Development

Uganda's population situation presents a mix of challenges as well as opportunities for socio-economic transformation of the country. Over the past three decades, child mortality has steadily declined from 61 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2006 to 22 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2016. While the total fertility rates have remained relatively high, at 5.4 children per woman (UDHS, 2016), as compared to the target of 5.1 children per woman by 2020. This has resulted in a rapid population growth, currently estimated at 39 million persons (UBOS, 2017) and about 52% of which comprises of children under the age of 15 years (POPSEC, 2013). The population of the youth, aged between 18-30 years stands at 23% (UBOS, 2016), a large proportion of which are unemployed and much more underemployed. In addition, Uganda's population is characterized by a high dependency ratio, estimated at 103 (UBOS, 2016), implying that for every 100 economically active persons, there are 103 dependents.

The population situation, as portrayed above, will have major implications for socio-economic transformation and development in Uganda. The high annual rate of population growth, estimated at 3.0% will not only stifle efforts to address the country's food and nutrition challenges, but also constrain development of savings, foreign exchange, and human resources. A rapid population growth, on account of high birth rates tends to depress savings per capita and retards growth of physical capital per worker. Population pressure can intensify forex constraints by imposing increased pressure on the balance of payment position of an economy; a rapid increase in school-age population places greater pressure on educational facilities and retards the quality of education. Similarly, a dense population aggravates the challenge of improving the health services. The larger population numbers will therefore militate against efforts to improve quality of the population as productive agents. Needless to say, the National Population Policy (2008) calls for a speedy demographic transition from high rates of child mortality and fertility to low child mortality and fertility rates so as to reduce on the dependency ratio and stimulate development.

### 3.3 Economic Outlook and Opportunities

Uganda's development trend since the mid 1980s reflects a pattern of steady economic growth and poverty reduction. The various socio-economic reform programmes that have been implemented over the last 25 years have enabled the country achieve average real GDP growth rate of 6.4% per annum (UBOS, 2018); increase in real output, now estimated to be three and half times greater than it was at the start of the 1990s; a six-fold rise in private investment; and increase in the exports of goods and services.

The obtaining favorable macro-economic environment, coupled with emerging opportunities, including the prospect of oil and other mineral resources; increasing foreign direct investment; the tourism potential; and growing regional integration therefore places the country on a sustained

growth trajectory, and heralds hope for the socio-economic transformation envisioned in the various strategic policy frameworks.

### 3.4 The Demographic Dividend and Avenue to It

The Demographic Dividend refers to accelerated economic growth that arises when the birth rate declines rapidly and the ratio of working-age adults significantly increases relative to dependents (Bloom et al, 2003; Mason 2001). A larger working-age population enables a country to increase GDP and raise incomes; workers are able save and invest since less of the income earned is spent on supporting a large non-working (child) population.

A report on **Harnessing the Demographic Dividend: Accelerating Socio-economic Transformation in Uganda, 2014** notes that population dynamics and economic opportunities can be turned into a valuable demographic dividend if it pursued a policy road map followed by the East Asian Tigers. That policy road map prioritized investment in family planning (FP), education, health, and export oriented economic reforms, all of which helped accelerate economic growth and job creation. The reforms that ought to be pursued to harness the demographic dividend can be categorized into five pillars/wheels, namely:<sup>5</sup>

- (a) Accelerating demographic transition through investments that facilitate rapid fertility decline, enhance child survival, and improve education and general empowerment of women.
- (b) Enhancing investments in high-level education to develop a well-educated, skilled and innovative labor force.
- (c) Enhancing investments in health to nurture a healthy and productive labor force.
- (d) Economic reforms to accelerate economic growth and job creation for the rapidly expanding labor force.
- (e) Fiscal policies and governance reforms to enhance savings, attract foreign direct investment (FDI), and ensure efficiency and accountability in the use of public resources.

The above policy pillars are mutually reinforcing, and should be concurrently pursued to propel the country towards economic prosperity that can result from the demographic dividend.

### 3.5 The Demographic Dividend Within the Context of Good Governance

#### 3.5.1 The Concept of Governance

Sound economic policy reforms and investment in education and health services in Uganda will not automatically translate into sustainable poverty reduction and socio-economic transformation, without a concerted effort to provide an enabling governance superstructure. Governance refers to political and institutional processes through which decisions are taken and implemented. Good governance has eight major characteristics, namely: participation, rule of law, transparency, accountability, responsiveness, consensus orientation, equity and inclusiveness, efficiency and effectiveness.

<sup>5</sup> *Harnessing the Demographic Dividend: Accelerating Socio-economic Transformation in Uganda, 2014*

Good governance relates to efficient, effective and accountable exercise of political, administrative and management authority to achieve society's objectives, including the welfare of the whole population, sustainable development, and personal freedom. It is therefore imperative that the centrality of good governance is upheld in efforts to harness the demographic dividend, because it provides that important context within which public policies and programmes are conceived and implemented.

### 3.5.2 Decentralized Governance in Uganda

Central to Uganda's governance landscape is the decentralization policy, which has devolved substantial powers, functions and responsibilities to local governments. Though not in itself a goal for poverty eradication, the decentralization policy provides a framework for improving efficiency and responsiveness of the public sector in terms of service delivery.

Uganda's decentralization reform was aimed at realization of the following objectives:

- (a) Transfer of *real* power to the Districts with the aim of reducing the load of work on remote and under-resourced central officials.
- (b) Bringing political and administrative control over services to the point where they are actually delivered, thereby improving accountability and effectiveness, and promoting people's feeling of "ownership" of programmes and projects executed in their Districts.
- (c) Freeing local managers from central constraints and enabling them to develop effective and sustainable organizational structures tailored to local circumstances in the long-term.
- (d) Improving financial accountability and responsibility by establishing a clear link between payment of taxes and provision of services they finance.
- (e) Improving the capacity of local authorities to plan, finance and manage the delivery of services to users.
- (f) Enhancing Local Economic Development (LED) in order to increase local incomes.

## 3.6 The Demographic Dividend Within the Context of the Decentralization System

### 3.6.1 Significance of Integrating Demographic Dividend in the Decentralization System

Attainment of the demographic dividend calls for adoption of economic and governance reforms aimed at increasing local savings and foreign direct investment that will stimulate local economic development. This will create high-quality jobs for the rapidly growing labour force and ensure equitable distribution of the resultant benefits from economic growth. Decentralization provides a governance framework required for balanced growth and development to flourish.

It should also be noted that Uganda's economy is predominantly rural, with more than 80% of its population and 95% of the poor living in rural areas. In 2014, agriculture accounted for 25% of Uganda's Gross Domestic Product (GDP), thus underscoring this sector's importance for economic development. Effective revitalization of "rural economies" to service the socio-economic needs of a vast majority of the population, of necessity calls for mechanisms for community participation in the

search for positive change. Decentralized governance provides a policy platform for this people-centred approach.

### 3.6.2 Realization of the Demographic Dividend through Decentralization

To provide for an appreciation of how decentralized governance can be an effective vehicle for harnessing the demographic dividend, it is important to illustrate how a local governance setting can effectively oil the identified wheels/pillars of the demographic dividend.

#### *(a) Decentralization and efforts to accelerate the Demographic Transition*

A history of population change and its linkages to economic development reveals that countries typically transition from high birth and death rates to low birth and death rates as they transform from pre-industrial economic systems to industrialized-urbanized economic structures, of the nature envisaged in Uganda's Vision 2040. Acceleration of the demographic transition calls for investments that facilitate rapid fertility decline, enhance child survival, improve education and promote general empowerment of women.

#### *(b) Decentralization and efforts to enhance Investment in High-Level Education*

Uganda's education system has over the decades undergone a series of reforms, aimed at ensuring that it meets challenges and requirements of a rapidly evolving labour market and continually globalizing world. In recent years, Uganda's education reform effort has seen the introduction of Universal Primary Education and Universal Secondary Education. Implementation of the UPE policy since 1997 has had two important effects on enrolments:<sup>6</sup>

- (i) It has increased enrolment of children from poor households and significantly reduced the poverty gap in terms of access to primary education; and
- (ii) The effect of increased enrolment was particularly beneficial for girls who saw a higher increase in enrolment relative to boys.

In spite of the commendable strides, attainment of the envisaged equity and quality in education has remained a challenge. Some of the key concerns have included high dropout rates, particularly by girls; high head teacher, teacher and pupil absenteeism estimated at 20 percent and limited community participation. Being a decentralized service, local authorities have a critical contribution to make in addressing systemic challenges in the delivery of education services.

Primary and Secondary Education being decentralized services, according to law, the community structures at the Sub-national government are well placed to monitor pupil attendance, ensure commitment to duty by teachers, check on the drop out rates by the School Management Committees and other similar vices on going in schools. Including monitoring resources spent by central Government in this sector.

#### *(c) Investment in Health, within a Decentralized Governance Context*

Uganda's National Health Policy is premised on a number of guiding principles<sup>7</sup>, including prioritization of Primary Health Care as a major strategy for delivery of health services in Uganda, based on the district health system, and recognizing the role of hospitals as an essential part in the national health system.

<sup>6</sup> Revised Education Sector Strategic Plan, 2007-2015, MoES.

<sup>7</sup> The Second National Health Policy, July 2010.



The priority areas in the national health policy include: strengthening health system in line with decentralization; re-conceptualizing and organizing supervision and monitoring of health systems at all levels; establishing a functional integration within the public and private sector; and addressing the human resource crisis. Decentralization is therefore a critical delivery vehicle for enhancing impact of investments in health, so as to nurture a healthy and productive labor force.

*(d) Reforms to accelerate Economic Growth and Job Creation*

In addition to their basic service delivery and administrative functions, as enshrined in the Local Governments Act of 1997, local governments have since 2006 been mandated to play an active role in wealth creation, and increasing citizens' income levels. To this end, Local Economic Development (LED) was adopted as the sixth objective of decentralization, and it introduces a paradigm shift in management of local government affairs from mere focus on administrative functions to facilitating investment and wealth creation.

The primary aims of LED are to:

- a) Increase business support by encouraging local investment centers;
- b) Enhance growth of the private sector investment in LGs; and
- c) Increase locally generated revenue in form of direct taxes and LG own revenue generating ventures.

It is anticipated that LED will ultimately yield reduction in poverty, improve people's incomes and livelihoods, and enhance improved service delivery, with increased local government revenues. These additional resources can be utilized to harness opportunities for the young population.



*Arua Sesame Project*



*Pine Apple Processing in Kayunga*

***Youth Vocational Training in Abim District Local Government in Partnership with private sector providers.*** Over 18 young men and women in the District became self-employed after acquiring vocational skills in bakery and confectionery, joinery and carpentry, building and brick laying, tailoring among others.



Support to youth in vocational skills in Abim District

*(e) Fiscal Policies and Governance Reforms*

Employment of fiscal policies and governance reforms as an avenue for delivering on the demographic dividend envisages that the reform efforts are capable of enhancing savings, attracting Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), and ensuring efficiency and accountability in the use of public resources.

Increasingly, countries are decentralizing administrative, fiscal and political functions from the central government to sub-national governance units, in the quest of greater democracy, efficient and effective delivery of public services. This is because subnational Governments are considered to be closer to the people than the central Governments, and have better information about the preferences of local populations than the central Government (Hayek 1945, Musgrave 1959).

Decentralized forms of governance are also acclaimed as a vehicle for promotion of transparency of government actions. Ease of access to information, which is the centerpiece of local governance, is critical for promotion of accountability by Governments to the citizens. Unless the public is informed about goods and services provided by the Government, how well they are provided, who the beneficiaries are, and how much they cost, it cannot demand effective government. Access to information, enables informed civic appraisal of Government's actions, enhances impact of public policies and programmes by creating pressure on Government to respond to citizens' preferences in decision making.

*(f) Human Capital Formation*

Underdeveloped economies usually have to contend with two diverse, and yet interrelated manpower problems; they lack critical skills needed to spur growth of the industrial sector, and have a surplus labour force. The existence of surplus labour is to a considerable extent due to a shortage of critical skills. Human capital formation seeks to solve these twin problems by creating necessary skills in humans as a productive resource, and providing them with gainful employment.

In order to accelerate development of human capital and a basis for harnessing the demographic dividend, therefore, a country will prioritize investment in health, nutrition, education and skills developments. According to T.W. Schultz, there are five ways of developing human capital:

- (a) Provision of health facilities which affect the life expectancy, strength, vigor, and vitality of the people;
- (b) Provision of on job training, which enhances the skill of the labor force;

- (c) Arranging education at the primary, secondary, and higher levels;
- (d) Study and extension programs for adults; and
- (e) Provision of adequate migration facilities for families to adjust to changing job opportunities. In Uganda's case, local governments have a critical role to play in the delivery of health and education services.

*(g) Decentralization and Access to Sexual and Reproductive Health Services*

Advancing sexual, reproductive health and rights, including increasing access to voluntary family planning services, can positively influence population dynamics and helps shape prospects for harnessing of the demographic dividend. When women and couples have the means to determine the number, spacing and timing of their children, families tend to be smaller, and is essential for women's health and wellbeing. This improves chances of breaking the poverty cycle, and by helping people to manage their fertility, addresses population dynamics and offers opportunities to advance the socio-economic and environmental dimensions of sustainable development.

In the case of Uganda, contraceptive prevalence rate (CPR) which refers to the percentage of women (usually measured for married women of ages 15-49 years) who are practicing, or whose sexual partners are practicing any form of contraception was reported to be 39% in 2016 (UDHS, 2016). To harness the demographic dividend, therefore, empowerment of women and universal access to sexual and reproductive health services, including family planning will be paramount. The local government system will have a vital role to play in this endeavour.



*A Health Centre in Luwero District*



A Water Kiosk in Amuria District

*(h) Demographic Dividend and Urbanization*

The conceptualization of urban areas in Uganda for statistical purposes has evolved over the years, and while earlier censuses treated any settlements with a population of more than 1,000 persons as urban areas. For the 2014 census, urban centers were those population centers that were legally gazetted as Town, Municipal, or City Councils. Since the inception of the decentralization policy, Uganda has witnessed a phenomenal growth in the total number of Urban Centers, from 67 in 1991 (1 City, 13 Municipalities, 33 Town Councils, 20 Town Boards/Townships) to 468 in 2018<sup>8</sup> (1 City, 41 Municipalities, and 222 Town Councils. Also there are additional 204 Town Councils gazetted in FY 2017/18 but not yet operational). In terms of urban population, there has been a corresponding increase from 1.7 million to about 7.4 million over the same period of time, and it is projected to hit a 21 million mark by 2040.

If well managed, this growth trajectory in urbanization heralds hope for Uganda's development aspirations. This is because urbanization is closely linked to modernization, industrialization, and the sociological process of rationalization. Urban metropolises have the potential to propel growth by attracting capital, spurring innovation and providing higher productivity jobs. Additionally, socio-economic services can be provided more cost-effectively, leading to increased access indices. Urban Authorities will therefore have a vital role to play in enabling the demographic dividend to be harnessed from the phenomenon of rapid urbanization.

<sup>8</sup> Ministry of Local Government Policy Statement for FY 2018/19.

### 3.7 Prospects for Implementing DD within the Decentralization System

#### *(a) Enabling Policy and Legal Framework*

Uganda's decentralized governance system is anchored on a robust policy and legislative framework. As stated above, the national commitment to decentralized governance in Uganda was maintained through the provisions of the 1995 Constitution, which spells out that the State "is to be guided by the principle of decentralization and devolution of governmental functions and powers" (Section II [iii]). The Local Governments Act, 1997 further elaborates the legislative framework for decentralization in Uganda, defines the structure of local governments and their powers and responsibilities.

The Second Schedule, Part 2 of the Local Government Act defines functions and services for which district councils are responsible, many of which are central to efforts towards harnessing of the demographic dividends.

#### *(b) The Legislative Powers of Local Governments*

The Local Government Act empowers local councils to enact bye-laws and ordinances, that are not inconsistent with the Constitution or any other law made by Parliament. The Ordinances made by the local councils may create offences and penalties. The legislative powers available to the local councils under the Local Government Act provides opportunity for enactment of bye-laws and Ordinances. Bye-laws are enacted at sub-county, town council, division, parishes and villages while ordinances are enacted at District and Municipal level on issues that may promote realization of the Demographic Dividend.

#### *(c) Financing arrangements for Decentralized Service Delivery*

Fiscal decentralization is one of the most fundamental facets of Uganda's decentralization policy, and it has undergone remarkable progress over the years. The Local Governments Act (Cap. 243) specifies sources of revenue available to Local Governments, and include revenues from devolved sources and central government grant transfers. The Act also spells out the borrowing powers of Local Governments. The intervening years have, at least in nominal terms, seen a steady rise in Central Government transfers from Ushs. 37 billion in FY 1993/4 to Ushs. 3,145.74 billion in FY 2018/19. The funds transferred to LGs comprise of Wage, Non wage, and Development grants, spent across various sectors in the LGs. The increased volume of transfers reflects sustained commitment by government to financing decentralized services and provides an opportunity for local governments to implement interventions that will deliver the demographic dividend.

#### *(d) Institutional Framework for Decentralized Governance and Service Delivery*

Of critical importance for effective local governance, efficient and sustainable delivery of decentralized services is adequacy of institutional capacity at local level. The Local Government Act prescribes the local government institutional set-up, including councils and their organs at various levels and their compositions. The Local Government Act also provides for recruitment of technical staff for various levels of local government. The existence of institutional structures at various local government levels provides opportunities for implementation of programmes at lower levels, aimed at harnessing the demographic dividend.

#### *(e) Favourable Economic Policy Environment*

Since the early 1990s, Uganda has implemented a coherent set of economic policy reforms, the basic thrust of which have emphasized maintenance of macroeconomic stability, an open trade regime, and liberalization of markets. The reform efforts have over the last 25 years delivered real GDP growth of an average of 6.7 percent per annum; increase in real output, which is now three and a half times greater than it was at the start of the 1990s; a six-fold rise in private investment and increase in the

exports of goods and services. The sustained strong economic performance of Uganda provides an excellent opportunity for harnessing of the demographic dividend.

### 3.8 Conclusion

Uganda's population dynamics and available economic opportunities can be transformed into a valuable demographic dividend if appropriate policy options are pursued. Beyond the need for sound economic policy reforms, investment in education and health, as the basis for harnessing of the demographic dividend. This chapter has discussed the primary role of good governance as an important component within which public policies and programmes are conceived and implemented. Central to Uganda's governance framework is the decentralization policy, which has devolved substantial powers, functions and responsibilities to sub-national governance units.

The chapter further explained the significance of integrating demographic dividend into Uganda's decentralization system, outlined mechanisms and opportunities for realization of the demographic dividend within the context of the Local Government system and recommended what needs to be done to make decentralization an effective vehicle for harnessing the demographic dividend.

### 3.9 Policy Recommendations

The following are the policy recommendations that could make Decentralization to harness the Demographic Dividend in Uganda;

1. Strengthen the capacity of LGs to integrate the Demographic Dividend priority interventions into Local Government Development/Investment plans and budgets based on analytical evidence.
2. Strengthen capacity of LGs to coordinate, monitor and report on progress in implementation of demographic dividend priority interventions at the LG level.
3. Promote advocacy campaigns, at district, municipality, sub-county, town council, and division level to include the political leaders, technical staff, religious and cultural leaders, NGOs and CBOs to raise awareness and increase understanding of the demographic dividend, with the aim of galvanizing support and ownership to ensure the successful implementation of the DD intervention.
4. Develop capacity of Local Government Councils to develop and enforce bye-laws and ordinances aimed at engaging youths in productive enterprises.
5. Review the LG Act to decentralise the youth skills development (BTJET), currently managed by Central Government and increase funding for and inspection of BTJET priorities.
6. Formulate and enforce bye laws and ordinances to enhance the reproductive rights of women and adolescent girls and their access to sexual and reproductive health education, information and services.
7. Central Government should provide technical and financial support to LGs to prioritize investments which ensure universal access to family planning services.

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*Symposium on health financing for Universal Health Coverage at Serena Hotel Kampala*



**Chapter 4: EMBRACING EQUITY  
AND INCLUSIVENESS IN  
HARNESSING DEMOGRAPHIC  
DIVIDEND**



## 4.1 Introduction

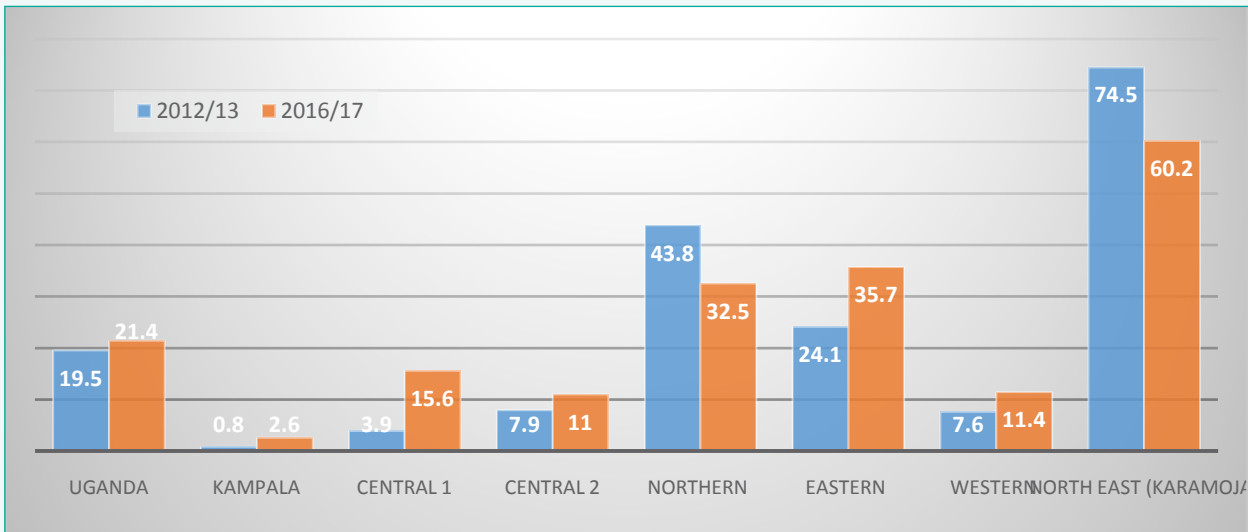
Globally, it is recognized that national development strategies must establish the goal of achieving economic growth that is both rapid and equitable across the population, in order to attain sustainable development. The reality is that demographic changes play a critical role in the development process and it is important that countries effectively manage these dynamics. Developing countries must ensure that development efforts promote shared prosperity and exploit demographic changes through greater investment in human capital to reap the dividend. To attain the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), countries must establish mechanisms that are vital in upholding ideals that seek to empower women and men, reduce inequities between and among populations and promote everyone's human rights.

Progress on the path of sustainable development requires full and equal participation of and leadership by women and girls. However, problems such as gender inequalities remain deeply entrenched in society, often to the disadvantage of women (WHO, 2018)<sup>9</sup>. To ensure equality and equity by 2030, countries must respond to the call to establish and implement interventions that can effectively address a number of Sustainable Development Goals, for example; the third goal - "Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages."; the fourth goal – which focuses on inclusion, equity, and quality pertaining to education; the fifth goal – which calls for gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls; the tenth goal – which calls for reduction in inequality within and among countries to empower and promote the inclusion of all; and the sixteenth goal – that calls for the promotion of peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development providing justice for all and building effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels. Therefore, in line with realizing equity, the Sustainable Development (SD) agenda emphasizes putting the furthest behind first, with particular emphasis on re-distribution.

Given Uganda's population age structure, by ensuring equity and inclusiveness, the country can harness the Demographic Dividend (DD) and make great strides towards sustainable development, particularly by targeting the young, most vulnerable and disadvantaged sections of the population. To reap the DD, the youth of the country has to be empowered to achieve their full potential and make meaningful contribution to the economy. However, Ugandan youth is not uniform, and it is a complex and dynamic section of the population that has multiple challenges. While a small section is able to pursue their aspirations, talents and needs, majority of the youth struggle with higher education, participation in the economy, unemployment and underemployment in the country.

Broadly, poverty and uneven development is a fundamental challenge Uganda faces. Recently there has been a rise in poverty level from 19.7% to 21.7% as shown in Figure 4.1. The Northern and Eastern regions have persistently lagged in terms of impoverishment overtime, with the Eastern region experiencing the highest poverty level in recent time. The problem of poverty in the country is exacerbated by inequality that remains a major concern (NDP II). Also, the economic growth achieved over the past decades has not been in position to address the challenge of unemployment especially among the youth and women, and yet leaving women and the youth behind slows down economic development (*ibid*). With the status quo of poverty and inequality; economic growth is expected to be hampered or slowed, health and social problems can be fueled, making it hard for DD to be realized. All these undermine inclusive and sustainable development.

9 <http://www.who.int/gender-equity-rights/news/ger-in-sdg/en/>. Accessed in August, 2018.

**Figure 4.1: Poverty trend (headcount, %) by region: 2012 - 2017**

Source: Author's computation using UBOS – UNHS data (2016/17)

Any country with a large population comprised of young people must invest in the youth in order to reap the DD by ensuring that the youth are actively involved in the economy with sustained and inclusive investments in their education, health, employment and empowerment.

This chapter presents key information on young people (including youth) and women, with emphasis on evidence that is critical for informing efforts aimed at achieving DD, equality and SD. It also explores the extent to which existing policy frameworks address equity and inclusiveness; as well as progress made in the country in terms of equity and inclusiveness; with the lens of driving the DD and progress towards SD. Overall, it provides information on Uganda's progress and identified gaps in relation to equity and inclusive parameters of development. The chapter profiles different parameters of diversity, equity and inclusiveness in relation to harnessing the DD - with special focus on young people, provides an overview on the status of income and human development inequality, discusses inclusive participation for DD and SD, provides relevant policies/interventions that address challenges related to inequality, inclusive participation and growth for development, efforts made in closing the gender gaps and policy implications.

## 4.2 Diversity, Equity and Inclusiveness for harnessing DD

### 4.2.1 Population, Youth and Gender Composition

According to recent estimates, Uganda's population is about 39 million people, of which 52% are female and 48% are male (UNHS, 2016/17). The sex ratio (proportion of males to females) is 95 - this measures the extent of equity between male and female in the population, and the ratio shows more females than males exist in the country (i.e. for every 100 women, there are 95 men), implying that for any development effort to realize results, women must not be left behind.

### 4.2.2 Special population categories that require investments for DD

The target population categories that must be invested in to reap the DD are presented in Table 3 below. Overall, the youth (aged 18 – 30) comprise about 21% of the population (about 8.2 million people), with majority (56%) being female. This is a special section of the population that can be exploited to spur development, if made to meaningfully participate in the economy. They have to

be well-educated, skilled, and healthy for productive involvement in the economy. The youth also need jobs, to improve their living conditions and ensure that they make worthwhile contribution to the development process.

The most fragile sections of the population that require ardent attention for investments in anticipation of DD are children aged 0-5 and adolescents who comprise 24% of the population. The children aged 0-5 years must be targeted by Government through Early Childhood Development (ECD) programmes and child healthcare interventions for their survival and development. Programmes for developing adolescents can be targeted through primary and secondary schools. Others are; primary school going age children, secondary school going age children, as well as children below 18 years who comprise 22%, 11%, and 55% of the population respectively.

**Table 3: Population composition by age group (%)**

Age group (category)	Population share (%)	Population size (million)	Share of male (%)	Share of female (%)
Children (0-5)	21.4	8.1	50.7	49.3
Primary school going age (6-12)	22.0	8.3	49.6	50.4
Secondary school going age (13-17)	11.4	4.3	51.3	48.7
Children below 18	54.7	20.6	50.4	49.6
Youths (18-30)	20.5	7.7	44.2	55.8
Adolescents (10-19)	23.6	8.9	50.5	49.5

Source: Author's compilation based on UBOS – UNHS (2016/17)

#### 4.2.3 Young people in Uganda – where are they, what characterizes them?

About 72% of young people or youth aged between 15 – 29 years<sup>10</sup> are resident in rural areas as shown in Appendix 1. There is a fairly balanced distribution of the young people across regions, and about 39% are married. Six percent never went to school (520,000 youths), and 51% leave school before graduation. The female young people are twice more likely not to go to school than their male counterpart. Females are also more likely to leave school before graduation (55%) than the males (47%). This has a serious implication on achieving the DD and SD. For DD and SD to be achieved, all the young people without sexual, racial, and regional discrimination should be enrolled for education and be kept in school up to the time they complete schooling.

#### 4.2.4 Schooling status of persons aged 3-5 years

Early Childhood Development (ECD) is an intervention area under the current National Development Plan (NDP II), aimed at attaining equitable access to relevant and quality pre-primary education and training. Access to ECD based on pre-primary attendance among persons aged 3-5 years is at 43% at national level, and majority of them 56% had never attended nursery or pre-primary schooling as shown in Table 4 below. The females currently attending pre-primary were more than males by about 3 percentage points. This status can be improved through scale up of ECD centers, taking regional balance into consideration, in order to achieve the aspirations under NDPII intervention area.

**Table 4: Schooling status of persons aged 3-5 years**

Gender	Currently attending	Never attended	Attended in the past
Female	45	54	0.5
Male	42	58	0.3
Uganda	43	56	0.4

Source: Author's compilation based on UBOS – UNHS (2016/17)

<sup>10</sup> Based on SWT survey definition by UBOS (2015)

#### 4.2.5 Detailed Educational Characteristics of Young People

Education of the young people is central in making progress towards DD and SD. When educated, the young people are in position to meaningfully contribute to economic development in a sustainable manner, given that they become; economically independent, capable of adapting to new and innovative production techniques, and education empowers them to become employable (UBOS, 2016). To improve access to primary and secondary education in an equitable way, the Government introduced the policies of Universal Primary Education (UPE) and Universal Secondary Education (USE) in 1997 and 2007 respectively. Despite UPE, a considerable fraction of young people do not complete primary education. Table 5 reveal that among young people out of school, 24% had completed primary education and 44 percent had incomplete primary. Those who completed either tertiary or vocational training comprised of only 8%. In terms of achievement by gender, males are more likely to attain higher education than their female counterparts with exception of primary. Young people from urban areas also achieve higher levels of education than those from rural areas. For example, urban young people are more than twice likely to attain vocational and tertiary education (14%) than rural young people (5%). More rural young people attain vocational education (4%) compared to tertiary education (1%), unlike in urban areas, where young people attain tertiary education (9%) more than vocational education (5%).

**Table 5: Completed Education level of Young People (%)**

Level of Education	Sex		Residence		Total
	Male	Female	Rural	Urban	
No education	7.1	10.6	11.6	3.1	9.2
Incomplete Primary	44.4	44.1	50.8	27.5	44.2
Primary	23.9	24.5	23.4	26.4	24.3
Secondary	16.2	13.3	8.9	28.7	14.5
Vocational	4.7	4.3	4.2	5.1	4.4
Tertiary	3.8	3.1	1.1	9.1	3.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: UBOS – SWT Survey (2016).

Educating the youth is paramount in their empowerment. For example, young persons who are more educated are more likely to access employment than the less-educated (UBOS, 2016)<sup>11</sup>. Also, skills training which is associated with vocational education provides young people with higher chances of employment (85%) - with only 6% categorized as inactive, compared to general tertiary education with a relatively lower proportion (81%) employed and higher proportion (8%) categorized as inactive (UBOS, 2016).

#### 4.2.6 Young People in School

As shown in Table 6, about 2.8 million young people (33%) out of the estimated 8.5 million were in school by 2015. The males in school are more than females by about 12 percentage points. There is almost a balance between rural and urban young people in school. However, the national proportion of students declined by about 7 percentage points to 33% between 2013 and 2015. Further evidence from UBOS (2016) show that most young people in school (87%) are studying general educational programmes compared to specialized fields such as engineering (1.6%) and health sciences (1.2%). Studying general programmes may not adequately prepare the youth to meet dynamic labour market requirements for skilled persons, and this might slow down progress towards harnessing DD. For some of the specialized field such as engineering, there are gender differentials in favour of male young people.

<sup>11</sup> 78% of the youth with incomplete primary /primary / secondary education are employed; while 85% and 81% of the youth with vocational and tertiary education are employed respectively.

**Table 6: Proportion of Young People (15-29 years) in School (2013 – 2015)**

Category	Gender/Residence	2013	2015
Sex	Male	45.9	40.1
	Female	33.7	27.6
Residence	Rural	39.6	33.7
	Urban	39.0	32.1
<b>All</b>		<b>39.5</b>	<b>33.3</b>

Source: UBOS – SWT survey (2016)

### 4.3 Status of Income Inequality, Inequality in Human Development, and Equal Opportunity

This section discusses inequality status based on income and inequality in human development, as well as the state of equal opportunity using selected indicators.

#### 4.3.1 Income inequality trend

Income inequality<sup>12</sup> is higher if Gini Coefficient is low and tends towards zero. A coefficient of 0 means there is no concentration in the distribution of income in the country which implies perfect equality, while 1 shows the highest level of income inequality. According to results from UNHS of FY 2016/17, Uganda's Gini Coefficient is 0.37, reflecting high income inequality as shown in Table 7. Although income inequality is high, there was a slight decrease in the Gini coefficient from about 0.4 in FY 2012/13 to 0.371 in FY 2016/17. Inequality reduced in all regions between FY 2012/13 and FY 2016/17 with exception of the Western region from 0.328 to 0.351. It is important to note that urban areas contribute most to income inequality, given the high Gini Coefficient associated with it. Efforts for reducing income inequality should thus pay particular attention to enhancement of income in rural areas.

**Table 7: Trend of Gini Coefficient, 2009/10 prices**

Location/Region	Gini Coefficient			
	2005/6	2009/10	2012/13	2016/17
Uganda	0.408	0.426	0.395	0.371
Rural	0.363	0.375	0.341	0.335
Urban	0.432	0.447	0.410	0.389
Central	0.417	0.451	0.392	0.379
Eastern	0.354	0.319	0.319	0.300
Northern	0.331	0.367	0.378	0.352
Western	0.342	0.375	0.328	0.351

<sup>12</sup> Measured by Gini Coefficient

Source: UBOS – UNHS (2016/17)

### 4.3.2 Inequality in Human Development

Table 8 below shows Uganda's human development indicators<sup>13</sup> as measured by the UNDP. Results show that human development suffers reversal due to inequality. In Uganda, the loss in human development is due to inequality is estimated at 30.9% higher than the loss in other countries within the region, for instance Tanzania. The elements of inequality that drives this loss in human development are inequality in income (27%) and inequality in education (29%). This implies that without the challenge of inequality, Uganda would have a higher human development status. Inequality therefore undermines progress in human development and achievement of SD.

**Table 8: Human Development Index (HDI) and Inequality adjusted Human Development Index (IHDI)**

Location	HDI value	IHDI value	Human inequality coefficient (%)	Loss in human development due to inequality (%)	GNI per capita (PPP US\$)	Inequality in education (%)	Inequality in income (%)
Uganda	0.493	0.341	30.8	30.9	1,670	29.4	27.3
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.531	0.355	32.1	32.2	3,383	34.0	27.4
Tanzania	0.523	0.396	25.4	25.4	2,467	28.5	22.7

Source: UNDP – 2016 Human Development Report

The Gender Development Index (GDI) is gender disaggregated HDI, defined as the ratio of the female to male HDI. It reflects gender inequalities in achievement based on three dimensions; health, education, and command over economic resources. As shown in Table 9, the GDI value in Uganda is less than 1 (0.878), which reflects human development in favour of the male. Disaggregated by gender, the HDI for male is 0.523, higher than that of female which is 0.459. The gender inequality is driven by inequality in health and education. Another driver is economic inequality, for example the male per capita Gross National Income of US\$ 2,075 almost doubles that of the female which is US\$ 1,266.

**Table 9: Gender Development Index**

Location	Life expectancy at birth		Expected years of schooling		Mean years of schooling		GNI per capita		HDI values		GDI value (Female -Male ratio)
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	
Uganda	61.1	57.3	9.9	10.1	4.5	6.8	1,266	2,075	0.459	0.523	0.878
Sub-Saharan Africa	60.2	57.6	9.1	10.3	4.5	6.3	2,637	4,165	0.488	0.557	0.877
Tanzania	66.9	64.1	8.3	9.3	5.4	6.2	2,359	2,576	0.512	0.546	0.937

Source: UNDP – 2016 Human Development Report

### 4.3.3 Gender Inequality in the context of Human Development Index

Gender inequality in human development can also be captured using the Gender Inequality Index (GII)<sup>14</sup>. The index measures gender-based inequalities using three dimensions of reproductive health (based on maternal mortality and adolescent births), empowerment (share of parliamentary seats

<sup>13</sup> The Human Development Index (HDI) – measures human development based on three dimensions (i.e. health, education, and command over economic resources) i.e. an average measure of basic human development achievements in a country. The Inequality-adjusted IHDI the HDI discounted for inequality. Loss in human development due to inequality is measured by the difference between HDI and IHDI, and can be expressed as a percentage. The loss in human development therefore increases as inequality in a country increases.

<sup>14</sup> A measure developed by the UNDP.

held by women and attainment in secondary and higher education by each gender), and economic activity (measured by labour market participation rate for men and women). According to Table 10 below, the GII for Uganda is high at 0.522, which implies that Uganda experiences a high loss in human development due to inequality between female and male achievements in the three GII dimensions. What explains the high GII include; poor reproductive health indicators, relatively low level of women empowerment including education as compared to men, and low level of female participation in the labour market.

**Table 10: Gender Inequality Index**

Location	GII value	Maternal Mortality Ratio	Adolescent Birth Rate (per 1,000 women aged 15-49)	Female seats in parliament (%)	Population with at least some secondary education (%)		Labour force participation rate	
					Female	Male	Female	Male
Uganda	0.522	343	111.9	35.0	25.9	32.1	82.3	87.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.52	551	103.0	23.3	25.3	33.9	64.9	76.1
Tanzania	0.544	398	118.6	36.0	10.1	15.3	74	83.3

Source: UNDP – 2016 Human Development Report

## 4.4 Equal Opportunity Status in Uganda

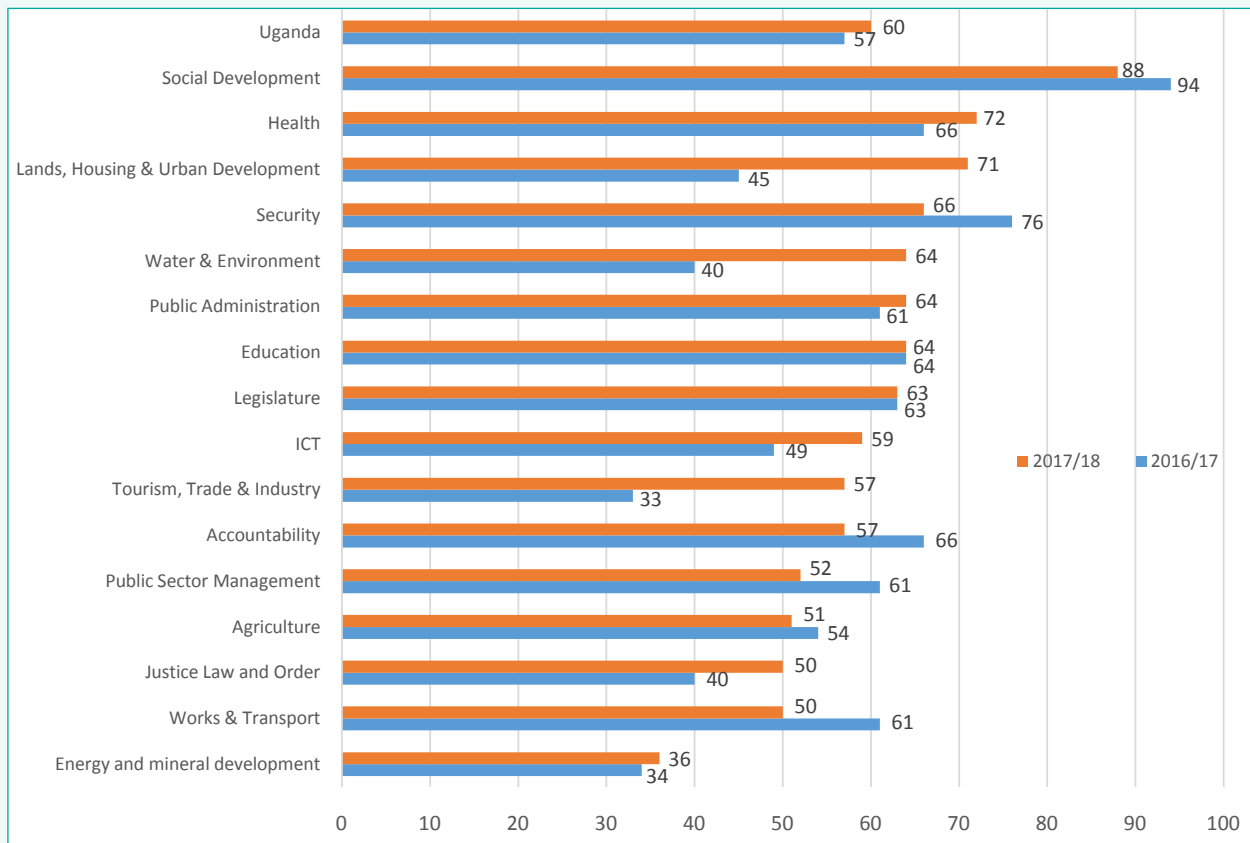
### 4.4.1 Compliance to Gender and Equity in Planning and Budgeting

Gender and equity in planning and budgeting is vital for championing sustainable and inclusive growth and development. The Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC) conducts analysis of gender and equity in planning and budgeting to assess if different needs and interests of women, men, youth, children, disadvantaged regions, rural poor, and other marginalized or vulnerable groups are accommodated and addressed in all National Budget Framework Papers (NBFP) and Ministerial Policy Statements (MPS). The assessment looks at the extent to which sector BFPs or MPSs are Gender and Equity (GE) responsive.

The overall national compliance to gender and equity requirements for FY 2017/18 is 60%. The areas with highest compliance are; responsiveness of sector specific objectives to G&E (85%) and sector contribution to inclusive growth (NDPII) (83%). The areas with lowest performance (below the pass mark of 50%) include; reflection of medium term GE outcome indicators 2017/18-2019/20 - i.e. commitment to GE outcome indicator in the medium term (49%), reflection of gender and equity indicators FY 2016/17 (47%), and fund utilization on G&E outputs for FY 2016/17 (41%).

The results disaggregated by sector are shown in Figure 4.2. The sectors with highest compliance to GE requirements are; Social Development (88%) and Health (72%). Sectors with least compliance are; Energy and Mineral Development (36%), Works and Transport (50%), and Justice, Law and Order (50%).

Results for compliance of MPS/votes show an overall decline from 53% in FY 2016/17 to 50% in FY 2017/18. The highest level of compliance is observed in; responsiveness of vote objective to G&E (74%), vote contribution to the sector development plan from a G&E perspective (68%), and responsiveness of vote programme outcome to G&E (61%). The least compliance is observed in; reflection of performance on G&E outcome indicators (5%) and reflection of funds utilized on G&E outputs (18%).

**Figure 4.2: Compliance to Gender and Equity requirements by Sector, %**

Source: Author's computation using data from EOC Gender & Equity assessment report for BFPs (2017/2018)

#### 4.4.2 State of Equal Opportunities in Health

The health of the youth and women is a critical part of human capital that has to be streamlined, by ensuring that the two population segments can access quality healthcare that they need at any time. This is crucial as the country strategizes to reap the DD and make progress towards SD. However, the youth face a myriad challenge in regard to healthcare. These include; limited access to basic and critical health services, limited access to income, high teenage pregnancy rates, maternal mortality, peer pressure and influence, and drug abuse among others (NDP II 2015/16-2019/20). All these expose the youth to a number of health risks such as Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STDs) and HIV/AIDS.

According to (UDHS, 2016), adolescent and youth friendly sexual and reproductive health service provision is still very low. Only 5% of public and private healthcare providers are providing the services. Unavailability of youth friendly services in health facilities negatively affects the health seeking behavior of youth.

Pertaining to women, UDHS, 2016 shows that close to 60% of women in reproductive age group report at least one problem in accessing healthcare for themselves. The problems are more striking in rural areas (64%) than urban areas (44%). The problems are also more prevalent among those in the poorest wealth quintile and in sub-regions such as Acholi, Lango, Karamoja, Teso and West Nile. The main challenges faced by women in accessing healthcare are problems related to getting money for treatment and distance to health facilities affecting 38% of women in reproductive age. These two challenges reflect lack of economic empowerment for the women to access healthcare, and difficulties with physical access to the healthcare that they need. These factors considerably contribute to poor health states of the women. For example, Uganda has one of the highest maternal



mortality ratio in Sub-Saharan Africa at 336 per 100,000 live births.

## 4.5 Inclusive participation for DD and SD: Policy Interventions and Status

Uganda's overarching planning and/or policy framework is the second National Development Plan (NDP II-2015/16-2019/20). The plan addresses issues of youth, women, inclusive participation, growth and equitable development. According to the NDP, gender equality and women empowerment is a prerequisite for accelerating socio-economic transformation. At least 50% of the population comprises women, and yet they continue to be left behind in the development process. This is a challenge that slows down economic and sustainable development.

In response to challenges related to gender inequality, the government has intervened to ensure that the country makes strides towards women empowerment and gender equality. For example, formulation of gender responsive policies and strategies, and institutionalizing gender planning at all level. However, challenges remain. Women are still highly constrained in terms of access to and control and ownership of productive resources (land, credit) and businesses (NDP II). There is also limited employment of women in skilled-based industries. These hamper women's income potential hence aggravating gender inequality. Other challenges faced by women include; suffering marginalization in regard to skills development, financial resource access, inheritance rights, and employment in non-agricultural jobs (*ibid*).

To ensure inclusive participation and growth, the following priority areas are prescribed in the NDP:

- (a) Investment in human capital development – under the components of education and skills development, health and nutrition. One key development strategy is the introduction of universal Early Childhood Development (ECD) and harnessing the demographic dividend. Young people are targeted for development under the ECD strategy by focusing on cognitive development of children, and establishing strong foundation for good health and education. To realize the DD, achievements must be built in ECD through improved school enrolment especially for the girl child, followed by fertility decline aimed at realizing a transformed age structure that comprises skilled youthful workforce.

In regard to the health sector, the plan envisions provision of accessible and quality healthcare to all the people of Uganda. The plan also puts focus on implementation of the Post 2015 Development agenda which prioritizes Universal Health Coverage with emphasis on population coverage, financial risk protection, and equity.

- (b) Pertaining to social sector development, the NDP II highlights key challenges including; continued exclusion of vulnerable and marginalized groups in the development process, increasing poverty and vulnerability. The plan's response to social sector development is to prioritize the following: promotion of decent employment and labour productivity, youth employment and participation, gender equality and women empowerment, and redressing imbalances and promoting equal opportunities for all. Specific interventions targeting capacity development for the youth include; provision of life skills and livelihood support; developing and adapting regulatory framework or policies for youth to have affirmative quota in all public institutions and business establishments; establishing national and regional framework to enhance youth participation in economic and social activities. The strategies that target gender equality and women empowerment include among others; mainstreaming gender and rights in policies, plans, and programmes in all sectors and local governments; strengthening

stakeholder capacity in social equity and human rights promotion, protection and reporting; and promotion of women economic empowerment through entrepreneurship, skills, incentive provision, and enhancing women's participation in decision making. The strategies to reduce imbalances and improve access to opportunities for all include; enhancing effective participation of marginalized groups in social, economic and political activities for sustainable and equitable development; mainstreaming equal opportunities and affirmative action in all policies, laws, plans, and programmes; and elimination of discrimination, marginalization and ensuring that everybody has equal opportunities to access goods and services.

- (c) Investment in young people and education: The plan sets out to implement targeted strategies according to different age groups of the young people who are key targets for development and achievement of the DD. Focus is on ECD and full cognitive development for children aged 0 – 5 years. For those aged 6 – 12 years, focus is on increasing enrolment, retention and completion of the primary schooling cycle with particular interventions for the girl child and implementation of the national strategy for girl's education. For the age group of 13 – 17 years, the plan focuses on ensuring that all children in this age are retained in school, particularly focusing on girls, until end of secondary education. For the girl child, this is part of the strategy to curtail early marriage and teenage pregnancies. Early marriage and teenage pregnancies are also expected to be reduced through providing adolescent reproductive health services in schools and training institutions, with incentives for conception delay. Some of the strategies include; youth capital funds, affirmative action for girls and female youth, and linking young skilled people to employers. Finally, for the young people in the age group of 18 – 24 years, focus is on gender responsive skills training programmes. One of the strategies is to establish a Skills Development Agency or Authority for coordinating the entire skills development agenda, which targets closing the gap between skills acquired in schools and what is required in the job market. Although the strategies prescribed in the NDP II are crucial for inclusive growth and development, implementation challenges may derail the plan.

Uganda also has the National Equal Opportunities Policy (2006) that aims at achieving the goal of providing avenues where individuals and group's potentials are put to maximum use by availing equal opportunities and affirmative action. Out of the five objectives outlined in the policy, two of them are critical in driving efforts towards realizing the DD and SD. These include empowering marginalized and vulnerable groups (e.g. youth and women) for their full participation in the development process; and guiding planning processes, affirmative action and implementation of programmes and allocation of resources to all stakeholders. The key strategy to achieve this is through mainstreaming equal opportunities and affirmative action into development policies, plans, and programmes in all sectors. However, for this strategy to be effectively implemented, the EOC should be made part of planning and development processes of the national budget and policy development.

Another effort by government towards driving the agenda for equity and inclusive development is the introduction of the Public Finance Management Act, 2015. The Act has provisions for implementation of gender and equity certificate. The ministry of finance in consultation with EOC is expected to issue a certificate that certifies that the National Budget Framework Paper and Ministerial Policy Statements (MPS) are gender and equity responsive, with concrete measures aimed at equalizing opportunities for women, men, persons with disabilities, and other marginalized groups. However, the challenge is ineffective implementation of the gender and equity responsive elements of the budgets and MPSs. Data on the status of equal opportunities reveal that most sectors commit to comply with the gender and equity requirements in their budgets and MPSs but when it comes to implementation, such commitments are not honored. For example, utilization of funds for gender and equity responsive activities is very low, and is one of the worst areas in terms of performance pertaining to compliance to the GE

requirements. Other Government interventions include development of the gender policy and social protection programme.

## 4.6 Inclusive Development: Youth Employment and Women Empowerment

Young people and the women are the most vulnerable sections of the population. They are faced with several challenges that undermine their potential and realization of the DD, equality or equity, and SD of the country. For example, there is a surge in youth with insufficient skills (MFPED, 2018 – BTTB FY 2018/19) – this phenomenon makes it extremely hard for the country to achieve the DD. Consequently, it is important that Government devises effective strategies to enhance the capacity of young people to harness their potential, increase self-employment, productivity and competitiveness.

In response to the challenges that youth and women face, the Government in recent time devised some initiatives to ensure their inclusive participation and development. These include among others;

- (a) National Youth Policy:** The policy targets to empower the youth in terms of capacity building through training and skills development, enterprise development, youth participation, and gender equality among others. It focuses on enabling the youth to develop social, economic, cultural and political skills in order to enhance their participation in the development process. Although this policy exists, its results are yet to be seen, given surge in unskilled youth which undermines their competitiveness and absorption in the labour market.
- (b) Youth Livelihood Programme (YLP):** This initiative commenced in the FY 2013/14. It aimed at improving youth's skills development and empowering the youth for business start-ups through provision of interest free loans under revolving fund scheme. The programme comprises of components for skills development, livelihood support, and institutional support. The main projects funded under YLP are in the agriculture, trade and industry sectors. The programme covers 112 districts, and has been extended to 4 new districts that were created in the FY 2016/17. Of the programme beneficiaries, 55% and 45% are male and female respectively (MFPED, 2018)<sup>15</sup>. Youth school-drop outs constitute 38% of the beneficiaries. So far, the programme has supported 14,195 youth groups with total disbursements to the tune of Ushs. 106.87 billion shillings. This has benefited 175,341 youths, comprising 79,749 female and 95,592 male youths. Although targeted youths are reaping some livelihood gains from the programme, loan recovery is not up-to-date. For example by May 2018, only 67% of the total Ushs. 25.847 billion shillings that was due for repayment had been recovered from the youth groups. It is important to note that a critical challenge in operationalization of the YLP is related to budget allocation vi-sa-vis actual disbursements. Budget allocations have notably improved, for example from an average of Ushs. 28.5 billion shillings in the FY 2013/14 - FY 2015/16 period to an average annual allocation of Ushs. 69 billion shillings<sup>16</sup>. However, the commitment in budget allocation is not fully honored in terms of disbursements. For instance, out of the Ushs. 227.1 billion budgeted for YLP between FY 2013/14 and FY 2017/18, only Ushs. 116.1 billion shillings were disbursed by May 2018<sup>17</sup>. Such a shortfall is likely to hamper effective implementation, which is a risk to achieving youth empowerment.
- (c) Women Empowerment:** Over the years, Government has laid down a number of strategies and programmes that aim at empowering women. Through different initiatives, Government

<sup>15</sup> Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development - MFPED. (2018). *Background to the budget FY 2018/19*.

<sup>16</sup> MoFPED 2018 (Budget website).

<sup>17</sup> Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development (MoGLSD), 2018. *Youth Livelihood Programme Statistical Update, May 2018. Kampala, Uganda*.

aims at sustaining and protecting the rights of women to ensure that they are economically and financially viable. The initiatives are designed to address issues related to; maternal health, child marriages, teenage pregnancies, Gender-Based Violence (GBV), and Female Genital Mutilation (FGM). One of the key initiatives is the Uganda Women Entrepreneurship Programme (UWEP), which began in FY 2015/16, with expected financing of Ushs. 585 billion shillings. The main UWEP components are capacity and skills development, and the women enterprise fund. The fund targets provision of affordable credit to women groups for enterprise development based on revolving fund. Here, women groups are facilitated with bankable proposals to allow them access interest free loans. The enterprises funded include; agricultural production enterprises as well as value addition and marketing. Others include; agro-processing, leather work, trading, crafts and shoe making, bakery/cookery, and transport services among others.

Through UWEP, a total of 44,570 women have been supported under 3,499 projects valued at Ushs. 18.48 billion shillings. UWEP is operated using a revolving fund model, which is aimed at boosting women's entrepreneurial initiatives and enabling women participation in productive activities. By February 2018, 50% of the revolving fund had been recovered out of the Ushs. 3.081 billion shillings expected to be recovered.

Despite Government response through policies including plans and strategies, challenges of inequality that are a threat to DD and SD persist. There is slow progress in terms of youth and women empowerment, and generally, reduction of inequality is modest. Government planning framework such as the national budget is yet to prove effective delivery of gender sensitive and inclusive development. Accordingly, Uganda still has an uphill task to tackle inequality, inclusiveness, and participation of the youth and women to achieve the DD, inclusive growth and sustainable development.

## 4.7 Labour market Participation and Indicators

This sub-section discusses labour market participation in the economy with focus on the youth and gender dynamics. Participation is discussed mainly based on labour market parameters. Table 11 below shows that the working population is 83% and 76% of male and female respectively. Out of the male and female population, those who are employed constitute 56% and 40% respectively. More than half of the working female are not considered as employed – i.e. do not work for pay. This is a potential driver of gender inequality in earnings. Rural people face a similar problem - majority (83%) are in working category but less than half are in the category of employed persons. By region, the least employed are in Western and Eastern regions, with only 21% and 23% employed respectively<sup>18</sup>.

**Table 11: Population of working Age, Working and employed Persons**

Gender/Residence	# of working age	Working	Employment
Uganda	19,103,879	15,052,558 (78.8)	9,070,504 (47.5)
Urban	5,294,799	3,657,943 (69)	3,081,669 (58.2)
Rural	13,791,764	11,394,615 (82.6)	5,980,566 (43.4)
Male	8,956,181	7,396,740 (82.5)	5,042,675 (56.3)
Female	10,130,382	7,655,818 (75.5)	4,019,560 (39.7)

Source: Compiled from UBOS – UNHS (2016/17). Figures in parentheses are percentages out of working age population

<sup>18</sup> Based on statistics from UBOS – UNHS 2016/17.

#### 4.7.1 General Labour Force Participation Rate and Unemployment

The employment to population ratio (EPR) is an indicator of the extent to which the economy is utilizing its key productive labour resources. As shown in Table 12, the youth aged 14 to 24 years are least utilized than the older population. They also have the highest unemployment rate compared to the rest of the age groups. The females suffer more unemployment than their male counterparts - the unemployment rate for female more than doubles that of the male. The evidence show that the males are more active or involved in the labour market than the females. This is reflected in the Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR) of 46% and 60% for female and male respectively. Sub-regions with the least LFPR are Bukedi (25.4%) and Elgon (34.2%), and expectedly, the highest LFPR is observed in the central region (Kampala – 78%, Central 1 – 71%, and Central 2 – 67%)<sup>19</sup>.

**Table 12: General LFPR, unemployment (%)**

Gender/Age Group/Residence	LFPR	EPR	Unemployment rate %
Uganda	52.3	47.5	9.2
Male	60	-	6
Female	46	-	13
14 – 17 years	18.9	16.2	14.3
15 – 24 years	40.7	33.8	16.8
18 – 30 years	58.1	50.3	13.3
31 – 64 years	60.3	57.4	4.8
60+ years	43.3	40.3	6.9
Urban	52	-	14
Rural	46	-	6

Source: Compiled using UBOS – UNHS statistics (2016/2017)

#### 4.7.2 Status in employment by gender, age and residence

As shown in Table 13, 38% of persons in employment are in paid employment. Out of these, 30% are paid employee (not casual labourer in agriculture) and 8% were paid employee (casual labourer in agriculture). Males are more likely to be in paid employment (46%) than female (28%). Urban residents are also more likely to be in paid employment (51%) than rural residents (31%). The employed workforce who are own account workers or contributing family workers are in vulnerable employment<sup>20</sup> that is characterized by inadequate earnings, low productivity and hard conditions of work that undermine worker's fundamental rights. Overall, 61% of the persons in employment are in vulnerable employment. The females are more likely to be in vulnerable employment (71%), as well as rural residents (68%). The most affected sub-regions in terms of employment vulnerability are; West Nile, Acholi, Teso, Busoga, Central 2, and Lango.

**Table 13: Employment Status**

Gender/Age Group	Paid employee (not casual labourer in agriculture)	Paid employee (casual labourer in agriculture)	Self-employed	Contributing family members	Others
Uganda	30.1	8.0	54.3	6.9	0.6
Male	36.2	9.8	49.3	4.3	0.5
Female	22.4	5.9	60.5	10.3	0.9
Urban	48.3	3.0	43.0	5.2	0.5
Rural	20.7	10.7	60.2	7.8	0.7
14-17	17.5	9.7	40.3	30.4	2.2

<sup>19</sup> Based on statistics from UBOS – UNHS 2016/17.

<sup>20</sup> Based on ILO definition. Also read UBOS (2016) - vulnerable employment is defined as being employed as own-account workers and contributing family workers.



Gender/Age Group	Paid employee (not casual labourer in agriculture)	Paid employee (casual labourer in agriculture)	Self-employed	Contributing family members	Others
15-24	34.6	9.1	41.3	13.9	1.1
18-30	36.8	8.1	46.5	8.0	0.7
31-59	26.4	7.7	62.1	3.4	0.4
60-64	15.6	11.0	69.9	3.1	0.4

Source: UBOS – UNHS (2016/17)

#### 4.7.3 Differences in Monthly Earnings for Persons in Paid Employment

Overall median wage is Ushs. 168,000. Earnings in the Eastern and Northern region were the lowest in 2012/13, but this has improved between FY 2012/13 and FY 2016/17, and the least wage is observed in Western region. There are wage differentials by gender – in favour of the male. Appendix 2 shows that females earn less than their male counterpart. Furthermore, those working in public sector earn more than private sector employees. Wage differentials in private sector employment for male and female is wider than that in the public sector. Further statistics from the UDHS, 2016 shows that existence of inequality and inequity in terms of earnings that is biased against women – employed men are more likely to be paid in cash only (58%) than employed women (48%). Accordingly, the potential drivers of wage differentials are; sector of employment (public or private), most women not working for pay as compared to men, and vulnerability in employment among others. Other factors responsible for wage differentials are related to education and skills level (UBOS, 2017).

#### 4.7.4 Youth Participation in the labour Market

Table 14 below shows that Employment to Population Ratio (EPR) of the young people (youth) is 65 percent, an increase by 2 percentage points between 2013 and 2015. This indicator measures the degree to which the economy is using its key productive labor resource. The table shows that young male labour resource is more utilized (69%) than female (61%). Similarly, the male young people are more active in the labour market than the female, as reflected by the male labour force participation rate of 73% for male, compared to 66% for female young people. The results also show that rural labour resource is more utilized than urban labour resource, and the rural young people of working age participate more actively in the labour market than those in urban areas.

**Table 14: Key labour market Indicators of young People by Sex, 2013 - 2015 (%)**

Category	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	Total
Employment to Population Ratio - 2013	65.2	61.1	56.4	65.4	63.1
Labour Force Participation Rate - 2013	68.3	65.2	68.5	66.6	66.6
Employment to Population Ratio - 2015	69.1	60.8	60.1	66.2	64.5
Labour Force Participation Rate - 2015	73.1	65.6	66.7	69.9	69.0

Source: UBOS – SWT survey (2016).

Further information in Appendix 3 shows that more young male people (69%) compared to female (61%) are in employment. Overall unemployment among the young people is 5%, with no much difference between the male and female. However, the urban young people are more unemployed (7%) than their rural counterparts (4%). Economically inactive young people constitute about 31% of the young people, and the female are more inactive (34%) than their male counterparts (27%). After relaxing the definition of unemployment, the unemployed young people increased by almost

threefold. This suggests that a considerable number of young people are available for work but are inactive in job search.

#### 4.7.5 Which Sectors do the Working Young People Participate in Employment?

Agriculture is the main sector that employs young people (57%), followed by trade (14%) and manufacturing (6%) as shown in Table 15. Unlike in manufacturing, agriculture and trade employ more female than male young people. For both trade and manufacturing, most of the employed young people are in urban areas, unlike agriculture where majority of the employed young people are in rural areas as expected. It is therefore important to identify which particular value chains in agriculture are absorbing the youth for employment such that such value chains are strengthened in order to empower the youth and gainfully engage them in economic activities.

**Table 15: Distribution of Young People in Employment by Sector and Sex, 2015 (%)**

Sector	Male	Female	Rural	Urban	Total
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	53.3	60.9	70.9	18.2	57.2
Trade	12.7	16.0	9.4	28.7	14.4
Manufacturing	6.8	4.5	5.0	7.3	5.6
Transport and storage	9.2	0.4	3.1	9.2	4.7
Construction	7.5	0.3	3.0	5.9	3.8
Education	2.4	4.3	2.3	6.4	3.4
Other service activities	2.0	3.8	1.7	6.4	2.9
Activities of household employers	0.7	4.3	1.1	6.6	2.6
Hotels, restaurant eating places	0.9	2.0	1.0	2.9	1.5
Others	4.2	3.6	2.5	8.5	4.2
All (%)	100	100	100	100	100
Total number ('000)	2,662	2,828	4,066	1,424	5,490

Source: UBOS – SWT survey (2016).

In terms of youth employment by main sector, agriculture still employs the largest proportion of the youth (57%), although this declined from 60% over the reviewed period (2013-2015) as shown in Table 16. This is followed by the service sector (32%), which has more female youth employed (33%) than the males (31%). Industries employ the least (only 11%) – but if industries are further developed with strong forward and backward linkages, it will go a long way in absorbing the youth in employment.

**Table 16: Employed young People by Main Economic Activity and Gender (%)**

Sector	2013			2015		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Agriculture	56.8	63.7	60.3	53.3	60.9	57.2
Industry	12.9	4.4	8.6	15.9	6.1	10.8
Services	30.4	31.9	31.1	30.9	33.0	32.0
All	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: UBOS – SWT survey (2016).

#### 4.7.6 Status of Young Ugandans in Employment

Majority (43%) of the young employed persons are own account workers, and about equal portions of the young employed comprising 28% and 25% are contributing family workers and wage/salaried

workers respectively (refer to Appendix 4). About 4% of the young people are employers. Urban young people are more likely to be in wage employment (48%) than those in rural areas (17%), but those in rural areas are more likely to be contributing family workers (33%) than their urban counterparts (13%). More than seven out of ten young workers are in self-employment. Male young workers are less likely to be in self-employment (68%) than their female counterparts (82%). Those with higher educational attainment (e.g. tertiary and vocational education) are as well more likely to be in wage employment than the young workers with lower education or skills levels. In terms of regions, the shares of young working Ugandans in Northern and Eastern Uganda in paid employment are less than those in the rest of the regions.

Majority of young Ugandan workers (71%) are engaged in vulnerable employment. The female young persons, young persons in rural areas, and those from Northern and Eastern regions are more likely to be in vulnerable employment than the rest as shown in Appendix 4. The findings also show that attainment of a higher level of education enables young persons to escape vulnerable employment, as reflected by the lower share of the young employed persons with higher levels of education compared to those with lower educational level.

#### 4.7.7 Earnings of Young Workers in Paid Employment

In terms of earnings, young wage or salaried workers earn about Ushs. 217,000 per month on average (UBOS, 2016). The female young workers earn Ushs. 158,000, less than the males (Ushs. 249,000). Young workers with higher education level (e.g. tertiary) earn more than those with no education by more than threefold. This reflects high returns to investment in education of the young people, which is critical for achievement of the DD and SD. However, it is important that skilling the youth is taken into account when investing in their education. In the job market, gender inequality in earnings should be addressed to favour both the female and male young people.

#### 4.7.8 Labour Underutilization of Young People; Unemployment Among young People

Labour underutilization has three major components<sup>21</sup> – labour slack, skills related, and wage related. Evidence show that labour underutilization of young persons aged 15-29 years is 33% (refer to Appendix 5). The biggest component of underutilization is labour slack (26%). The female young persons are more likely to be underutilized (36%) than the males (30%). Young people in time-related under-employment comprises 17% - this is high, but the indicator only captures problems related to insufficient volume of work but does not look at problems related to type of work one actually performs. Young persons who are marginally attached to the labour force are more likely to be found in urban areas (13%) than rural areas (9%).

Using senior four as minimum level of education to qualify to be in skill related inadequate employment, results show that 4% of the young people are associated with skill-related under-employment. This comprises young people not classified as time-related under-employed and whose levels of education are higher than the educational level required in their current main jobs. Wage related under-employment is more pronounced in urban areas compared to rural areas, averaged at 8% nationally.

21 *The first is labour slack (including unemployment, time-related underemployment and the marginally attached). Alternatively, labour slack is when people with skills that would make them useful workers are available but are not working currently, OR skilled people working in jobs that do not use their skills. Second is skills related, and last is wage related inadequate employment. Time-related under-employment is a situation where the actual hours worked is insufficient in relation to an alternative employment situation in which the person is willing and available to engage (16th International Conference of Labour Statisticians 1998).*



#### 4.7.9 Unemployment among Young People

The young people (15-29 years) who are unemployed comprises all those who during the reference period were; (a) without work, that, are not in paid employment or self-employment during a reference period which was four weeks in our case; (b) currently available for work, that is, are available for paid employment or self-employment during the reference period, and; (c) seeking work, that is, had taken specific steps in the four weeks prior to the survey to seek paid employment or self-employment. Those who meet all the three criteria are unemployed by the strict definition. In the relaxed definition of unemployment, a person without work and available to work (relaxing the job-seeking criterion of item c above) is included (UBOS, 2016).

Based on the strict definition, overall youth unemployment rate is reported at 6.5 percent (5.5 percent for men and 7.4 percent for women) as shown in Appendix 6. Slight differences were observed by residence where the urban population had a rate of 10 percent compared to the rural population that registered a rate of 5 percent. Results show that unemployment rate amongst young people with vocational and tertiary education was 10 percent and 12 percent respectively, compared to 5 percent for young people with primary education. This may be attributed to mismatch between skills obtained through the education system and labour market demand, especially due to increasing educational and skill requirements. It is also possible that young people with higher education level tend to be choosy in accepting jobs. The implication is that even if young people with higher education remain in short supply, unemployment and underemployment of the educated can still persist. This calls for the need to tailor education and training of young people to dynamic needs of the job market.

#### 4.7.10 Idle youth (neither in employment nor education or training)

The results in Table 17 show that out of the 8.5 million young people aged 15-29, about 1.2 million (14 percent) were idle - neither in employment nor education/training. The proportion for idle female youth was almost three times higher than that of the male counterparts. There also exist variations in this indicator by residence - the proportion was higher for youths in urban areas (17%) compared to those in rural areas (12%). The share of idle youth increased from 12% in 2013 to 14% in 2015. The idlest youth are female (19%), those resident in urban areas (17%), Northern (17%) and Central (16%) regions.

The young people who are neither in employment nor in education/training are captured as idle youth. This represents non-utilized labour potential of the youthful population. It includes young people who are unemployed as well as those who are inactive for reasons other than participation in education<sup>22</sup>. Existence of idle youth is a serious challenge in the journey towards harnessing DD and attaining SD that government has to deal with head-on, by ensuring that the youthful population is productively utilized in the economy.

**Table 17: Proportion of Idle Youth, (%)**

Parameter	2013	2015
<b>Sex</b>		
Male	7.1	6.9
Female	16.9	19.0
<b>Residence</b>		
Urban	16.5	16.9
Rural	10.7	12.3
<b>Region</b>		

<sup>22</sup> Thus it includes discouraged workers and persons who are inactive for other reasons such as disability or engagement in household duties.

Parameter	2013	2015
Central	16.1	15.9
Eastern	14.8	11.1
Northern	13.9	16.5
Western	5.3	8.8
All (%)	12.2	13.5
Total number ('000)	1,060	1,152

Source: UBOS – SWT survey (2016)

## 4.8 Gender Equality and Closing the Gender Gap

This section presents gender equality status based on gender equality indices and it also identifies key drivers of gender inequality that need to be addressed in order to reduce gender gaps.

### 4.8.1 Gender Imbalances in Primary and Secondary Education

The Gender Parity Index (GPI) measures gender imbalances in education participation or availability of learning opportunities to women compared to that of men, as well as women empowerment. There is equality between female and male if GPI is unity. Inequality is in favour of female (if  $GPI > 1$ ), and if it's less than 1, there is inequality in favour of men.

**Table 18: Gender Parity Index**

Year	Gender Parity Index (GPI)	
	Primary	Secondary
2009/10	0.97	0.83
2012/13	0.96	0.89
2016/17	0.99	0.95

Source: Compiled using UBOS – UNHS (2016/17)

Table 18 shows that gender imbalances in both primary and secondary education are in favour of males. However, between 2009 and 2017, the imbalance is reducing and tending towards parity, especially in primary education. This may be associated with the Government policy on UPE that has been implemented for a relatively longer time period compared to the USE policy.

### 4.8.2 Primary and Secondary School Enrolment rates

The overall Gross Enrolment Rate (GER)<sup>23</sup> for primary is 117%, with girls at a slightly lower rate (116%) compared to boys (118%) as shown in Appendix 7. Overall, the primary NER<sup>24</sup> is 80%, with female at a higher rate (80%) compared to male (78%). The NER for urban areas (primary) is higher than that of rural areas by about 5 percentage points. Secondary NER is only 28%, implying that most young people are more likely to drop out of school before reaching secondary education. NER (secondary) for urban areas is also higher than that of rural areas, by about 15 percentage points. Unless this phenomenon is reversed, progress towards DD and SD will be hampered. Cost of education or lack of funding and lack of interest in education by the pupils are the major reasons for which young people (aged 6-24 years) who having attended school in the past leave school. Peculiar to the female young persons is leaving school due to pregnancy. These are challenges in the education system that young people face, and policy makers must devise strategies to address them in order

<sup>23</sup> GER is above 100% due to schooling at age that is above the official age.

<sup>24</sup> Net Enrolment Rate (NER) is the proportion of children of official primary school age out of total children of the official school age population.

to empower the young people, maximize their potential, and make progress towards realizing the DD.

Regionally, Karamoja has the lowest primary and secondary school enrolment rates compared to the rest of the regions. However, secondary school enrolment is also low in West Nile, Acholi, Lango, and Bukedi sub-regions. It is also worth noting that severely affected PRDP<sup>25</sup> regions and mountainous areas are characterized by low primary and secondary school enrolment (NER).

In terms of gender parity, the areas with least GPI (in disfavor of female) for secondary school enrolment are severely affected PRD districts, and particularly Acholi, Karamoja, and West Nile sub-regions.

## 4.9 Global Gender Gap Indicators – what is Uganda’s status?

Uganda’s overall Global Gender Gap Score (GGGS) for 2017 is 0.721, which makes the country to be in the 45<sup>th</sup> position out of 144 countries in the world (WEF, 2017). A score of zero implies complete gender imparity and one means gender parity. Although this is an improvement as compared to the score of 2016 as presented in Table 19. Uganda still has gender gaps to close in order to move towards gender parity.

The drivers of the current level of score which reflect the areas where Uganda is performing relatively better in terms of gender equality are captured in the score card for Uganda in Appendix 8. These include the following: under economic participation and opportunity, the only area where Uganda has made relatively good progress is in terms of female labour force participation where Uganda is close to parity (with a high score of 0.946). Under education, Uganda has made good strides in terms of enrollment in primary and secondary education where the country has achieved parity for primary and is close to parity with a score of 0.917 for secondary respectively. The country should maintain successes registered and address existing gaps to promote gender equality and realization of SD.

The specific areas that present serious gender equality challenges or gaps that require urgent interventions to address are also shown in Appendix 8. These are discussed below, by dimension;

Economic participation and opportunity – there are significant gender gaps in terms of earned income and or wage inequality, and inequality related to having professional and technical jobs/employment, as well as women’s participation as legislators, senior officials and managers. In regard to the dimension of educational attainment, the most substantial gender gaps are reflected in terms of enrolment in tertiary education and literacy rate. The last gap is related to political empowerment, where women are relatively disadvantaged in terms of representation in parliament and ministerial positions among others.

**Table 19: Indicators for Global Gender Gap Score (GGGS)**

Country	2016		2017	
	GGG Score	GGGS Rank	GGG Score	GGGS Rank
Uganda	0.680	47	0.721	45
Kenya	0.649	73	0.694	76
Tanzania	0.704	24	0.700	68
Rwanda				

Source: World Economic Forum - WEF (2017). Rank is out of 144 countries; score lies between 0 and 1; 0=imparity and 1=parity

25 Peace, Recovery and Development Programme.

## 4.10 Conclusion

A large proportion of young people (more than 50%) leave secondary school before graduation, and a considerable number (520,000) never went to school. The female young persons are more likely to leave school before graduation than the male. The NER for secondary is only 28%, which confirms that most young people are more likely to drop out of school before reaching secondary education. Rural areas have the least secondary NER compared to urban areas (less by 15%). With this phenomenon, progress towards harnessing DD and attaining SD will be hampered. Cost of education or lack of funding and lack of interest in education by the pupils are the major reasons for which young people leave school. Pregnancy is also making young female people to drop out of school. Karamoja has the lowest primary and secondary school enrolment rate, followed by severely affected PRDP regions and mountainous areas. Secondary school enrolment (NER) is also low in West Nile, Acholi, Lango, and Bukedi sub-regions. The least gender parity index for secondary school enrolment is observed in severely affected PRD districts, and particularly Acholi, Karamoja, and West Nile sub-regions.

### 4.10.1 Emerging Equity and Inclusiveness Issues

- (a) Besides increase in poverty and differences in poverty levels across regions, income inequality exists and this aggravates the problem of disparities in income or welfare distribution. Urban areas contribute most to income inequality, given the associated high Gini Coefficient.
- (b) Gender inequality has persisted, and the most striking driver is economic inequality, for example, the male per capita Gross National Income almost doubles that of the female – on average, females earn less than their male counterparts. The gaps are wider in the private than public sector employment. Gender gaps are also driven by inequality in health and education.
- (c) Concerning health, the youth encounter several challenges related to healthcare. These include; limited access to basic and critical health services, limited access to income, high teenage pregnancy rates, high maternal mortality, peer pressure and influence, and drug abuse which expose them to health risks. Considering women alone, the major constraints preventing them from accessing healthcare are; difficulty in getting money for treatment and distance to health facilities.
- (d) The idle youth presents a substantial hurdle for achievement of the DD. There are about 1.2 million idle youth. They are neither in employment nor education. Between 2013 and 2015, the share of idle youth increased from 12% to 14%. The proportion for idle female youth is almost three times higher than that of the male. Urban areas also have more idle youth (17%) than rural areas (12%). Existence and increase of idle youth, which represents non-utilized labour potential of the youthful population is a serious threat to the DD and goal of SD, which calls for the need for interventions to ensure that the youthful population is productively utilized in the economy.
- (e) Pertaining to compliance to gender and equity in planning and budgeting, overall national compliance rate is 60%. The areas with highest compliance are; responsiveness of sector specific objectives to GE (85%), and sector contribution to inclusive growth (83%). The areas with lowest performance include; commitment to GE outcome indicator in the medium term (49%), reflection of gender & equity indicators FY 2016/17 (47%), and fund utilization on GE outputs (41%). For compliance of MPS/votes, overall national performance declined from 53% in FY 2016/17 to 50% in FY 2017/18. The highest level of compliance is observed in; responsiveness of vote objective to G&E (74%), vote contribution to the sector development plan from a GE perspective (68%), and responsiveness of vote programme outcome to GE (61%).

The least compliance is observed in; reflection of performance on GE outcome indicators (5%) and reflection of funds utilized on GE outputs (18%). These results suggest that most sectors and/or MDAs commit to comply with the gender and equity requirements in their budgets and MPS. However, the commitments are not honored or accorded due consideration during implementation, given that utilization of funds for gender and equity responsive activities is very low, and is one of the worst areas in terms of performance pertaining to compliance to the GE requirements.

- (f) The National Equal Opportunities Policy aims at achieving the goal of providing avenues where individuals and group's potentials are put to maximum use by availing equal opportunities and affirmative action. The critical aspect of the policy for DD and SD is the emphasis on empowering marginalized and vulnerable groups for their full participation in the development process; and guiding planning processes, affirmative action and implementation of programmes and allocation of resources. The key strategy to achieve this, which is a challenge in itself is mainstreaming equal opportunities and affirmative action into development policies, plans, and programmes in all sectors.

## 4.11 Policy Recommendations

1. There is need for Government to pay particular tension to sub regions lagging behind in terms of net enrolment in secondary schools, school drop outs and pregnancy challenges faced by young people (e.g. Karamoja, West Nile, Acholi, Lango, Bukedi, and severely affected PRDP districts). Interventions should emphasize putting and retaining young people in schools, especially focusing the girl child. Initiatives to finance education for the poor is critical, and increased dissemination of sexual and reproductive health information in schools is important for retaining young people especially the girl child in schools.
2. Efforts for reducing income inequality should pay particular attention to enhancement of income in rural areas (including lagging and highly impoverished regions) through programmes targeting rural wealth creation and/or economic empowerment.
3. To curb gender inequality, policy interventions should address or bolster programmes for economic empowerment of women – intensify programmes such as UWEP with effective implementation, and affirmative action. Also improve labour market participation of the women and equitably distribute earnings from employment between men and women. Further, particular interventions should put emphasis on addressing wage differentials in private sector employment for male and female, to reduce the gender disparities that exists in earnings in private sector employment.
4. Improve access to and quality of healthcare for the youth and women. This can be done through among others; integrating youth friendly services in both public and private health facilities, which is expected to improve health seeking behavior among the youth, and addressing the major constraints that prevent women from accessing healthcare – for example difficulties in getting money for treatment (through economic empowerment) and physical access to health facilities.
5. Address the problem of idle youth in the economy to accelerate the DD process. This can be done by devising interventions to curb the problem of idle youth or strengthening programmes aimed at youth empowerment, for example the Youth Livelihood Programme, or revisiting the Youth Venture Capital.

6. Government should devise mechanisms for effective enforcement of the Public Finance Management Act, 2015, which requires sectors and/or votes to address gender and equity issues in their Ministerial Policy Statements (MPS) and votes. Continuous engagement of sectors with lowest compliance by the EOC is also important, in addition to more trainings and awareness creation on GE responsive planning and budgeting.

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*The Auditor General Mr. John F. S. Muwanga presents OAG Performance Reports to the Rt. Hon. Rebecca A. Kadaga, the Speaker of the Parliament of Uganda*

## Chapter 5: **ACCOUNTABILITY AND TRANSPARENCY FOR GOOD GOVERNANCE**

## 5.1 Introduction

Transparency and accountability—both tenets of good governance are prerequisites to harnessing the Demographic Dividend (DD) for sustainable and inclusive growth. Accountability relates to holding duty bearers responsible for their actions while transparency ensures that information that can be used to measure the authorities' performance and to guard against any possible misuse of powers is available. Without transparency and accountability, trust will be lacking between a government and citizens. The result would be social instability and an environment that is conducive for economic growth (Carstens 2005). With transparent, effective, accountable and responsive institutions or power holders coupled with an empowered citizenry, Uganda will have a high chance of achieving the DD.

In the DD framework, good governance is viewed as a cross cutting issue. This means that every sector critical for a demographic dividend – health, education and the economy (economic reforms and job creation) should have a good governance component. Good governance should, among other things, achieve transparency and accountability for decisions, indecisions, actions and inactions and for prudent use of resources in the delivery of policy objectives (UNFPA et al, 2016). Transparent and accountable institutions are more effective at delivering crucial social services such as education and health care and they ensure equitable allocation and distribution of public resources. This, among other things, creates an enabling environment for private sector investment and growth to thrive (UNFPA et al, 2016).

But why is accountability and transparency important, what form does it take, accountability of whom and for whom? What is its role in propelling the harnessing of DD? How is Uganda fairing as far as accountability and transparency is concerned? How does it affect the DD enhancing sectors of education, health and economy? These are questions that are very pertinent as far as the DD debate is concerned will introduce the concepts of accountability and transparency and why they are important. This chapter therefore will present a brief background, the status of transparency, accountability and corruption and how they impact on the key pillars of the DD framework; highlights the role of different actors in improving transparency and accountability and provide recommendations on how to improve accountability and transparency with a view of harnessing the DD.

## 5.2 Background

The need for transparency and accountability is especially true in a country like Uganda where public sector corruption<sup>26</sup> is a major public concern. About 88 percent of Ugandans think corruption is a serious problem in the country (UBoS 2018) and it is estimated that Uganda loses up to US\$ 300 million a year due to corruption (World Bank 2005). Subsequently, transparency and accountability mechanisms are crucial in the fight against corruption and abuse of public offices for private gain. In the second National Development Plan (NDP II), Uganda identified good governance as one of the development strategies to be pursued to realize social economic transformation. It hopes to realize this goal through promotion of transparency and accountability, rule of law, government effectiveness and regulatory quality, effective citizen participation in development processes to mention but a few (GoU 2015). In addition, Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 16 – target 6 calls on countries to develop accountable and transparent institutions at all levels<sup>27</sup>.

26 Corruption is defined as the abuse of entrusted power for private gain

27 <https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/development-agenda/>

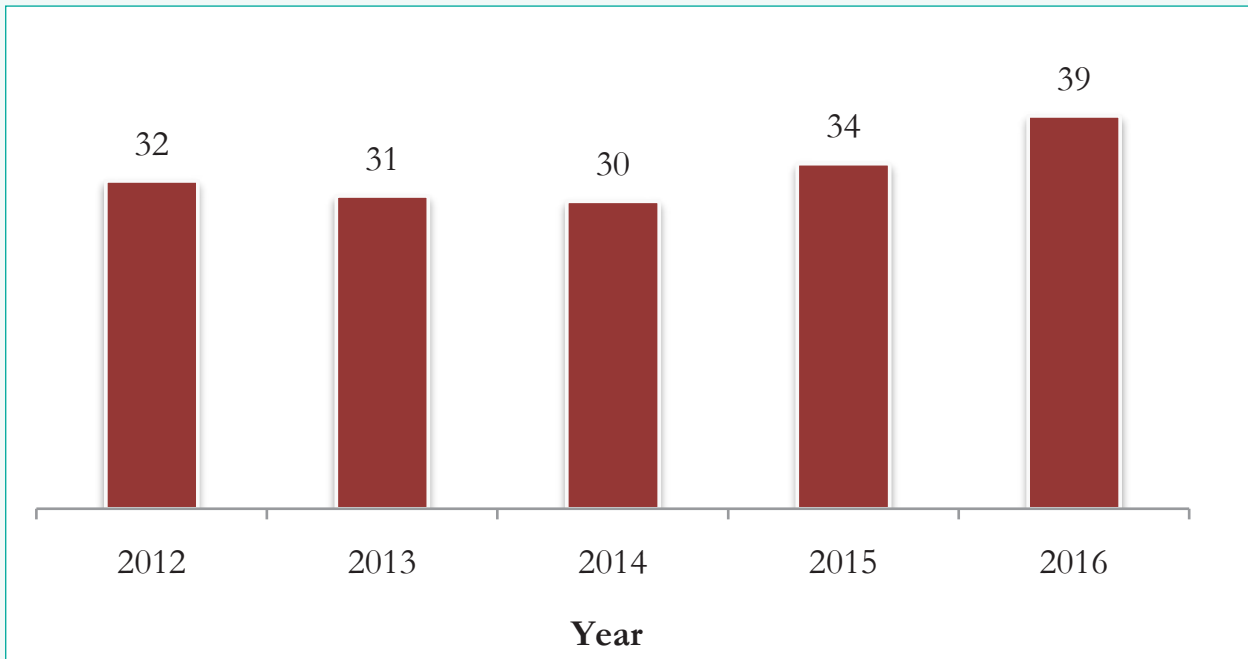


### 5.3 Transparency, Accountability and Corruption in Uganda: A Situational Analysis

Using eight indicators of accountability as computed by the 2017 Mo Ibrahim Index of African Governance (IIAG), this section provides a snapshot on the status of accountability in Uganda. The 8 indicators of accountability analysed are: 1) access to information; 2) online public services; 3) public sector accountability and transparency; 4) accountability of public officials; 5) corruption in government and public officials; 6) corruption and bureaucracy; 7) diversion of public funds; and 8) corruption investigation.

Uganda's overall accountability score based on the 8 indicators has generally been weak – with an average score of 33 out of 100 between 2012 and 2016 as shown in Figure 5.1. Uganda's average score lags behind that of neighboring countries such as Rwanda's 67 and Kenya's 43 during the same period. Despite the weak performance, Uganda is showing signs of improvement; its score on accountability improved from 30 in 2014 to 39 in 2016.

**Figure 5.1: Overall Accountability Index (score out of 100)**



Source: Mo Ibrahim Index of African Governance, 2017

Further inquiry into the eight accountability indicators shows that the modest improvement that has been registered over time is attributed more to transparency/access to information indicators rather than accountability and corruption related indicators. The proceeding paragraphs provide detailed information on the extent of accountability and transparency using IIAG's eight indicators as earlier introduced.

### 5.4 Transparency/access to Information

Transparency refers to being open to people with events and information regarding development. Access to information in Uganda is enshrined in Article 41 of the Constitution, Access to Information Act of 2005 and the Access to Information Regulations of 2011. Based on these frameworks, every citizen has a right to access information and records in the possession of the State or any public

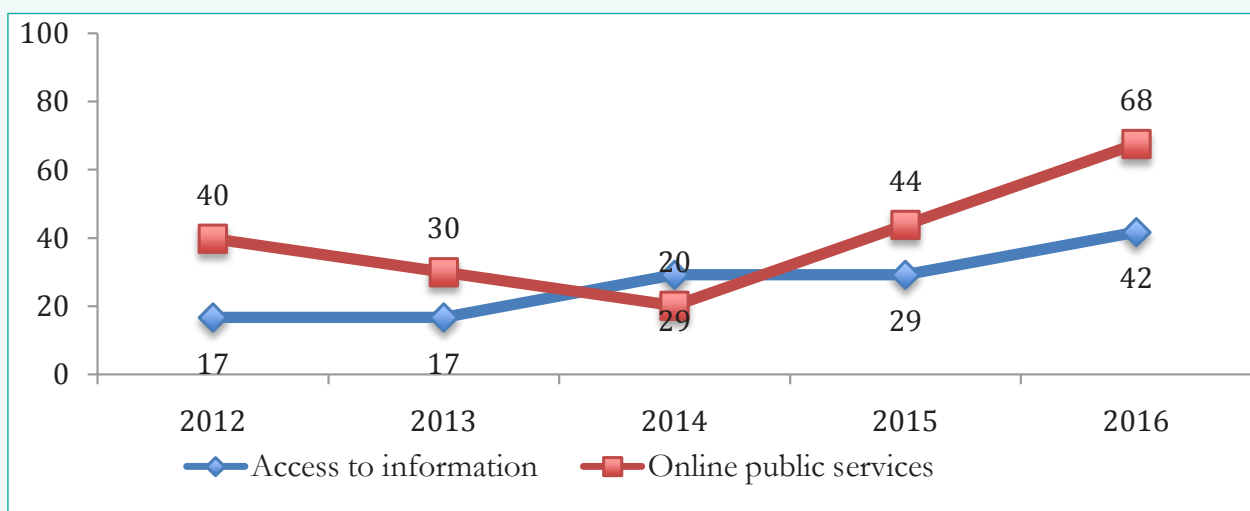
body, except where the release of information is likely to prejudice the security and sovereignty of the State or interfere with the right to privacy of any other person (GoU 2005; GoU 2011). The Access to Information Act applies to all information and records of Government Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs), Local Governments (LGs), Statutory Corporations and Bodies, Commissions and other Government organs, unless specifically exempted by the Act (GoU 2005).

Transparency ensures that information that can be used to measure the authorities' performance and to guard against any possible misuse of powers is available. Transparency is not an end in itself but a powerful tool to improve accountability. It is a necessary but not sufficient condition for accountability (OECD 2008). Hence, the information provided should be comprehensive, easy to understand and usable for accountability purposes. Without public access to records of governance and other information, public resources may be squandered and mismanaged (USAID 2013). However it should be noted that access to information is not enough to improve accountability, there must be a reasonable chance that the information will actually reach the public (publicity) and can be used for sanctioning bad behavior (Naurin 2007).

Using select indicators of 'access to information' and existence of 'online public services' as proxies for transparency, this sub-section provides an indication on the extent of transparency in Uganda. The 'access to information' indicator captures the extent to which public and legislative records are accessible while the 'online public services' indicator assesses the use of Information, Communication and Technology (ICT) by the Government to deliver public services at national level. It assesses the technical features of national websites as well as e-government policies and strategies applied in general and by specific sectors for delivery of services.

Uganda's score on access to information shows improvement over time although the score remains below average. Uganda's score improved from a score of 17 out of 100 in 2013 to 42 out of 100 in 2016 as shown in Figure 5.2. The second indicator on online public services has registered the highest improvement over the 5-year period having increased from 30 in 2013 to 68 in 2016. This finding is not surprising since almost all Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) have adopted websites as a way of sharing information with the public.

**Figure 5.2: Extent of Transparency (score out of 100)**



Source: Mo Ibrahim Index of African Governance, 2017

To further unpack the degree of transparency and the extent to which government openly shares information with the public, the 2017 Afrobarometer survey interrogated the likelihood of getting budget related information from select public institutions (e.g. local school and district planning

office) and information on business registration. The majority (60% for urban and 51% for rural) of the respondents thought it was unlikely that they would get information on school budgets and how funds were utilized. An equally high proportion (58%) of respondents thought it was unlikely that they would get information on district development plans and budgets from the district planning office if they requested for it. On the contrary, non-budget information seems to be easier to get; 58 percent of respondents thought that the district community development officer would easily share information on how to register a business in a community (refer to Table 20).

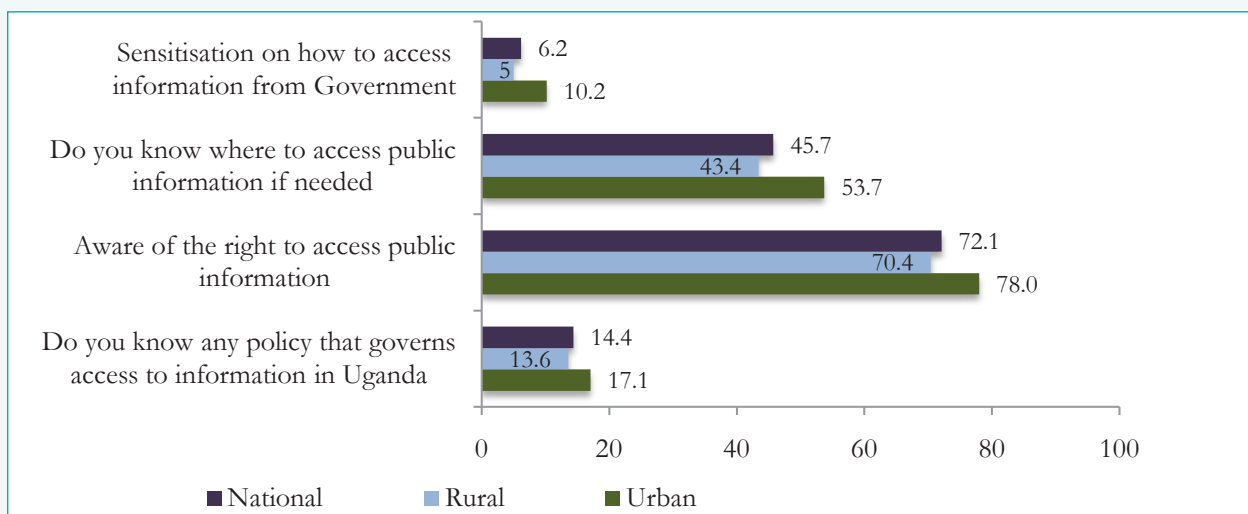
**Table 20: Likelihood of Accessing Information from Schools and District Officials (%)**

Parameters	Residence	Not likely	Likely	Don't know
Local School to find out what the schools budget is and how funds have been utilised	Urban	60	33	6
	Rural	51	44	5
	Total	54	41	5
If you went to District Planning Office to find out about the district development plans and budgets	Urban	55	35	9
	Rural	59	28	13
	Total	58	30	12
District community development office to find out how to register a business in your community	Urban	24	66	9
	Rural	34	55	11
	Total	31	58	10

Source: Afrobarometer2017

The negative perception of citizens regarding the openness of public institutions could be partly linked to the limited awareness of rights and policies related to access to information. Based on the 2014 National Baseline Governance survey (UBoS, 2014), 72 percent of respondents reported to be aware of their right to access public information with awareness being higher among the urban dwellers at 78 percent compared to 70.4 percent for rural dwellers. Surprisingly, only a meager 14 percent know of any policy that gives them a right to access information and less than half (45.7%) actually know where to access public information if needed. This could be attributed to the low sensitization from Government; only 6 percent of the respondents reported to have ever been sensitized on how to access public information (refer to figure 5.3).

**Figure 5.3: Proportion of Respondents that are Aware of their Rights to Access Public Information (%)**



Source: UBoS, National Baseline Governance Survey 2014

Concerning the source of information, over 87 percent of the respondent's use radios as a source of information, followed by word of mouth (59%), newspapers (25%), television (18%) and mobile phones (16%). Only four percent used Internet in accessing information (UBoS, 2014). Radio stations

were identified as the easiest source of information since they host district leaders who inform their constituents on various programs being implemented by Government. Information can only be of use if it is comprehensive and of good quality. Basing on their personal assessment, respondents of the 2014 National Baseline Governance Survey were asked to rate the quality of information provided by the Government. Overall, about 64 percent of the respondents rated the information provided by the Government to be good, 20 percent rated it as fair and 5 percent felt the information provided by the Government was poor. Box 2 below shows the role of information in improving accountability.

**Box 1: The Power of Information: Newspaper Campaign to reduce capture of Public Funds**

*An evaluation of a newspaper campaign in Uganda that aimed at reducing capture of public funds by providing schools (parents) with systematic information to monitor local officials' handling of a large education grant programme showed positive results.*

*Findings:*

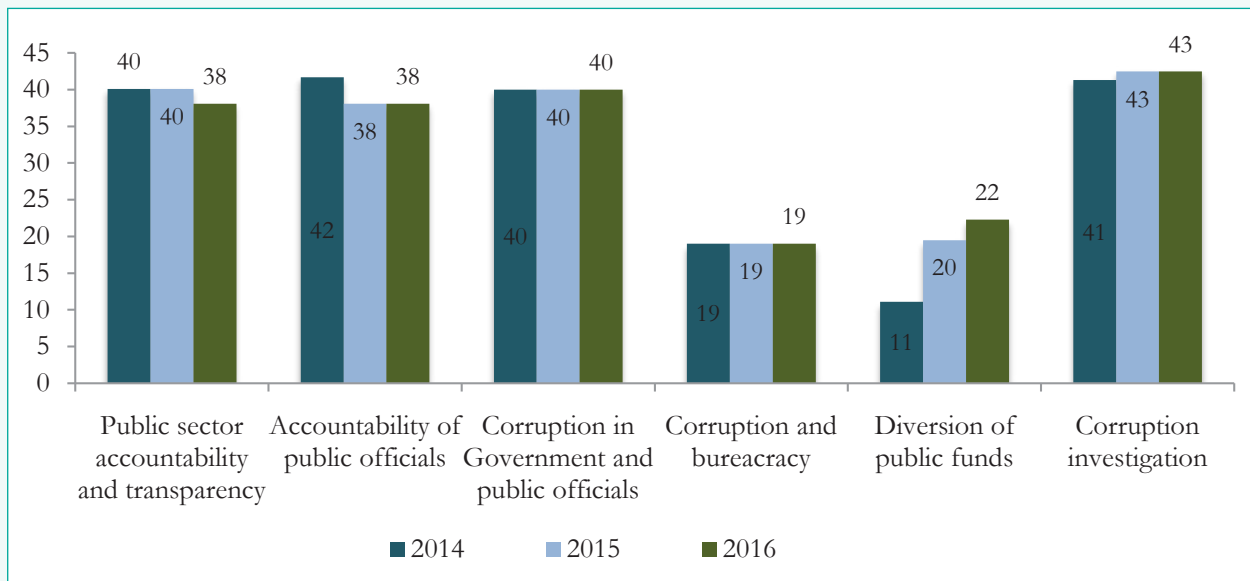
- *Governance innovations can be an effective way to improve education outcomes*
- *Public access to information was a powerful deterrent to the capture of public funds*
- *Reduction in the capture of public funds had a positive effect on school enrollment and learning outcomes*

*Source: Reinikka and Svensson 2011*

## 5.5 Accountability

Accountability refers to the processes, norms and structures that require powerful actors (governors) to answer for their actions to another actor (the governed), and/or suffer some sanction if the performance is judged to be below the relevant standard (DFID 2008). It has two distinct stages – answerability and enforceability. Answerability refers to the obligation of the Government, its agencies and public officials to provide information about their decisions and actions and to justify them to the public and the institutions of accountability tasked with providing oversight. Enforcement suggests that the public or the institution responsible for accountability can sanction the offending party or remedy the contravening behavior. In short, those entrusted with power have an obligation to be socially and fiscally responsible (DFID 2008).

This sub-section provides an indication on the extent of accountability in Uganda using 6 indicators. These are: public sector accountability and transparency; accountability of public officials; corruption in Government and public officials; corruption and bureaucracy; diversion of public funds; and corruption investigation. Uganda's average performance across the 6 indicators has been generally weak with an average score of 33 out of 100 between years 2014-2016 as shown in Figure 5.4.

**Figure 5.4: Performance of selected accountability indicators (out of 100)**

Source: *Mo Ibrahim Index of African Governance, 2017*

This indicator on public sector accountability and transparency captures the extent of executive corruption and the extent to which the executive and public employees can be held to account by the electorate, legislative and judiciary (Ibrahim Index of African Governance, 2017). Uganda's score on this indicator has been weak with an average score of 39 out of 100. The performance on the 'accountability of public officials' indicator as measured by the extent of accountability of public officials and degree to which there are penalties if they abuse their positions, mirrors that of the previous indicator and is equally weak with an average score of 39. This may be interpreted to mean that often times, public officials who abuse their positions are neither punished nor penalized for wrongdoing.

The indicator on corruption in Government officials assesses the level of vested interests/cronyism and corruption in the public and/or private sectors. The vested interests/cronyism element measures whether public contracts, and appointments and promotions to key Government and private sector jobs, are awarded based on merit or connections/political affiliations. It also captures whether key individuals have an undue or distorting influence over appointments or contracts, and whether enforcement agencies exist and are independent. The corruption element of this indicator assesses the perception or degree to which public officials are involved in corrupt practices, such as misuse of public office for private benefit, accepting bribes, and dispensing favours and patronage and private gain (Ibrahim Index of African Governance 2017). The score on this indicator is below average (40 out of 100) and remained unchanged between 2014 and 2016. Relatedly, the score on extent of 'diversion of public funds' to companies, individuals or groups due to corruption remains unacceptably high. As per the 2017 Ibrahim Index of African Governance, Uganda's score ranged between 11 and 22 out of 100 for the 2014-2016 period.

The low ranking may be explained by the high incidence of corruption in Uganda as evidenced from cases of grand corruption involving high-level officials and huge sums of money to petty or bureaucratic corruption. According to a 2014 report by the Office of the Inspectorate of Government (OIG), the total value of small-scale bribes paid to public officials amounts to an average of Ushs. 166 billion per year (OIG, 2014). Also, since 2012, a large number of high profile corruption cases involving high-ranking public official shave come to light; at one point, some of these widely published cases led to cuts in foreign aid. Examples of grand corruption cases include the embezzlement of funds to a value of Ushs. 5 billion intended for the purchase of bicycles for local officials in 2011; of

Ushs. 205 billion through the national identity card system scam in 2011; of Ushs. 58 billion lost in the OPM in 2012; and loss of Ushs. 4 trillion (between 2008-2015) to shoddy and substandard works at Uganda National Roads Authority (UNRA) among others.

There is a broad consensus that excessive administrative requirements create incentives and opportunities for bribery. As such the indicator on corruption and bureaucracy assesses the intrusiveness of bureaucracy and the amount of red tape likely to be encountered, as well as the likelihood of encountering corrupt public officials and other groups. Uganda's performance has remained dismal with a score of 19 out of 100. This implies that citizen and business owners encounter corruption during the multiple procedures, for example in registering businesses and paying taxes to mention but a few.

Regarding enforcement, we use an indicator on corruption investigation; it captures the extent to which allegations of corruption in the public sector and the executive are investigated by an independent body, and extent to which the public are satisfied with how the Government is handling fighting corruption. Like other indicators, Uganda's performance is lackluster, having barely improved from 41 in 2014 to 43 in 2015 and 2016. If reports of corrupt practices are not investigated appropriately and if those found to be involved in such practices do not face administrative or judicial sanctions, the strong legal framework implemented to fight corruption serves little purpose (OIG, 2014).

## 5.6 Effect of Weak Accountability on the DD Agenda in Uganda

As seen in the preceding section, the level of accountability in Uganda is weak with an average score of 33 out of 100 (IIAG 2017). Weak accountability and transparency affects service delivery and can impede the achievement of the DD. Service delivery outcomes are not only a result of resources spent but also the nature of accountability relationships between the actors in the service delivery chain (Kimenyi 2013). The pervasiveness of corruption subsequently denies Ugandans the quality service delivery articulated in the country's development plan and various strategies.

Corruption serves as a disincentive for firms to invest, and with investment kept below potential, and economic growth is also kept below potential. Moreover, bribery acts as an added tax on the poor as they try to access basic social services such as education and health. Charging of illegal fees to already poor citizens means that those who cannot afford the fees are excluded from accessing these services. Consequently, the sick may not access care and children whose parents cannot afford will be excluded from school. As far as the economy is concerned, small firms are more likely to pay bribes than established ones; the cost to enterprises of regulatory burden is also greater for smaller firms (Anderson 2003). Yet, to achieve the DD, there should be steady progress in expanding access to social sectors of education and health and strategic investments and reforms in the economy.

### Effect of bribery and quiet corruption on DD enhancing sectors

In an effort to improve access to health services and efficiency in utilization, Uganda abolished user fees at public health facilities in 2001. Despite this, users still incur healthcare expenses in the form of under the table (bribes) payments. Data from Afro-barometer shows that the proportion of Ugandans who reported making unsanctioned payments in exchange for health services decreased from 25 percent in 2015 to 19 percent in 2017 (Afrobarometer 2017). Despite the reduction, the highest percentage of respondents reported to have paid bribes to health and police workers 43% and 40% respectively (UBoS 2018). Informal payments for care reduce access to services by making care less affordable, especially for the poor. To put this into perspective, we illustrate (refer to Box 2) the impact of impact of bribery on maternal and infant mortality; reducing infant and child mortality is a crucial first step to achieving a demographic transition.

**Box 2: Effect of bribery: Sylvia Nalubowa's death could have been prevented***By Grace Kalibara*

*When I think of maternal mortality issues in Uganda, the case of Sylvia Nalubowa comes to mind. She died during labour at Mityana Hospital in September 2009. Nalubowa experienced complications during her seventh pregnancy. When her labour pains started, she went to Maanyi Health Centre II, a Government health facility about three miles from her home. Her mother-in-law, Rhoda Settenda, who accompanied her, says she delivered the first twin, Babirye, a few minutes after she arrived at Maanyi. The delivery of the second baby proved difficult and the mother was referred to Mityana Hospital, about 12 miles away.*

*A midwife demanded for Ushs. 50,000 from Nalubowa before she would call a doctor to attend to her. Nalubowa did not have the money. They had used their available cash to buy gloves, a polythene sheet and other requirements, which she used at Maanyi. That night, she pleaded with the midwives to help them. She said her brother would settle everything in the morning or if he didn't, she promised to sell her goat and pay the money if they could be kind enough to call the doctor that night. But her pleas fell on deaf ears. Her cries started fading and her sobs became faint as she gasped for air. She died that night, along with her unborn second twin.*

*Source: Inspectorate of Government 2014 (originally from New Vision Newspaper July 15, 2014)*

Similar to the health sector, the introduction of Universal Primary Education (UPE) in 1997 resulted in the elimination of school fees in public primary schools (with the exception of some urban public primary schools). Identifying and eliminating corruption in the education sector is essential to ensuring that learning opportunities are not undermined. Although some people continue to pay bribes as they try to access education services, per Afrobarometer survey, this number has been decreasing over time declining from 23 percent in 2015 to 8 percent in 2017 (Afrobarometer 2017). While this is welcome trend, the aim should be to have zero bribery experiences while accessing public services given the adverse effect it has on learning outcomes which are key to realizing the DD.

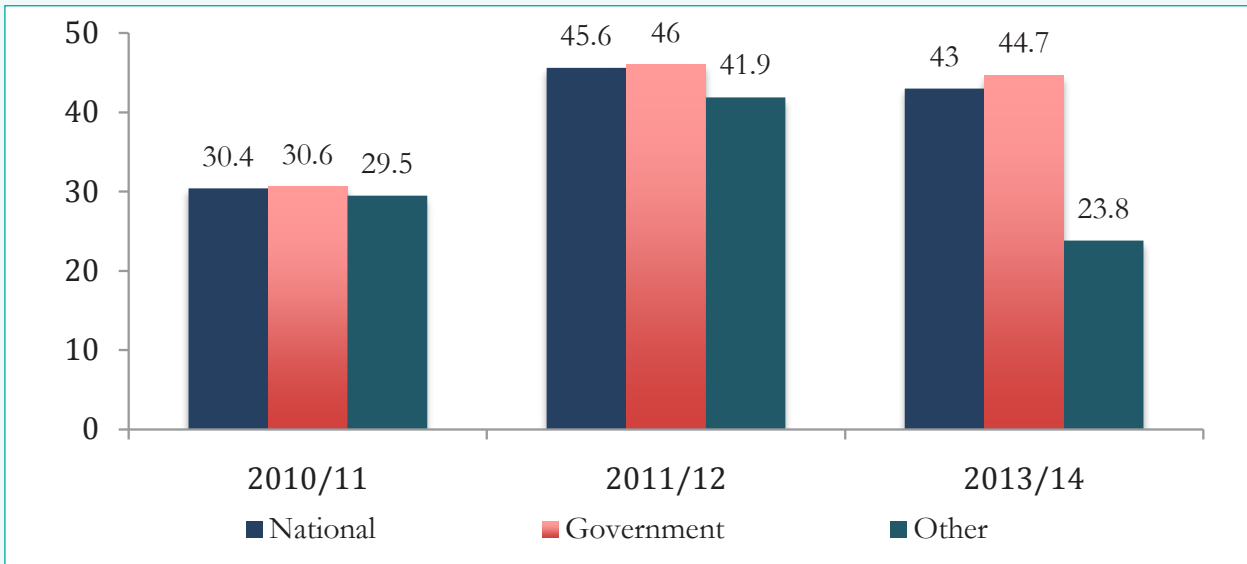
An inquiry into why citizens continue to pay bribes for services that are expected to be free seems to suggest that bribes have become part and parcel of citizen's interactions with service providers. About 54 percent of the 2017 East African Bribery Index (EABI) survey respondents reported to have paid a bribe because it 'was the only way to access a service', indicating that bribes are increasingly becoming a requirement for access to services (Transparency International 2017). In conclusion, non-official payments for services are not merely co-payments but they deter the poor from seeking the needed services.

The other challenge that DD enhancing sectors are grappling with is the issue of quiet corruption. Quiet corruption refers to incidents and situations where public servants fail to deliver services or inputs that have been paid for by the Government (World Bank 2010). The most prominent examples relate to the regular absence (without cause) of public service providers thereby rendering certain services unavailable. For example, although teachers in public schools and doctors in public health facilities are recruited to provide services to citizens, they may be absent from work often and even when present, they may not deliver the service as expected (Kimenyi, 2013). This may subsequently lead to service delivery failures and also hamper efforts towards attaining the DD. Quiet corruption, is disproportionately injurious to the poor who tend to have fewer choices. Unlike outright bribery and grand corruption, quiet corruption tends to receive less attention, as a certain level of public official absenteeism becomes the norm. As such, measures to curb the practice and other forms of quiet corruption have only recently entered the anti-corruption fold.

Absenteeism of health workers remains a challenge especially in Government-aided facilities. In FY

2013/14, the absenteeism rate was estimated at about 44.7 percent implying that, at any one time, less than half of the health workers are available to attend to patients. This inevitably has negative effects on the level of service delivery. In the other facilities (private), although initially on the rise, absenteeism substantially reduced from 42 percent in FY 2011/12 to 24 percent in FY 2013/14 (refer to figure 5.5).

**Figure 5.5: Absenteeism of Health Workers (%)**



Source: Computations from Uganda National Panel Survey data(2010-2014)

In response to the high levels of absenteeism, the Ministry of Health (MoH) has introduced a number of interventions to curb the vice. Box 3 details some of the interventions introduced by MoH to curb the high levels of absenteeism.

**Box 3: Ministry of Health interventions to curb absenteeism**

*The Ministry of Health (MoH) has rolled out the SMS-based “mTRAC” platform across all districts and health facilities in the country. This system enables health workers, the community and any individual to report any issues concerning health service delivery by sending an anonymous free short message using any mobile network to the MoH for follow-up action. The issues may include, stock-outs of essential medicines in facilities, absenteeism of health workers, closure of health facilities during working hours, misconduct of health workers among others.*

*The MoH, through its Health Management Information System (HMIS), has developed duty rosters, which are placed at various departments in the health facilities so that the workers can sign in and out. These registers indicate which employees are present/absent from the health facility.*

Source: MoH, Health Sector Development Plan 2015-2019 and IG 2014

In the education sector, absenteeism of teachers is on a downward trend but still warrants attention; the absenteeism rate stood at 11 percent in 2015, compared to 24 percent in 2013 (National Service Delivery Survey (NSDS) 2015 and Uganda Service Delivery Survey (USDS) 2013). This is in part attributable to the reduction of ‘ghost’ teachers who by default were always absent. There has also been an increase in the supervision and monitoring by district school inspectors, which has increased oversight of teachers’ attendance. Despite the reduction in rates of absenteeism, more needs to be done to ensure that the trend is maintained.



## 5.7 The Role of different Actors in improving Transparency and Accountability

As per the Constitution of Uganda, all public offices are held in trust for the people of Uganda (refer to Box 4). Consequently, some assurance must then be provided to the delegators – that is the society at large – that this transfer of power is not only effective but also not abused. Hence, formal and informal mechanisms of transparency and accountability are paramount in encouraging Government officials to act in the public interest.

Accountability may be horizontal or vertical. Horizontal accountability is embodied in the checks and balances internal to a state. It is carried out by state institutions and agencies, which are designed to oversee and sanction other state institutions (DFID 2008). In Uganda, these institutions include the Office of Auditor General (OAG) the Parliament, OIG, Judiciary, law enforcement agencies such as the police among others. Vertical/social accountability is embodied in mechanisms used by citizens and other non-state actors to hold public officers to account. These may include elections, direct civic engagement, lobbying and mass mobilisation. Social accountability mechanisms enable citizens, civil society organisations and communities to hold Government officials and service providers accountable (ibid). Examples of social accountability mechanisms include: participatory planning and budgeting, public expenditure tracking, citizen monitoring of service delivery, lobbying and advocacy campaigns.

### Box 4: The Constitution calls for “Accountability” from Public Officers

- *All public offices shall be held in trust for the people.*
- *All persons placed in positions of leadership and responsibility shall in their work, be answerable to the people.*
- *All lawful measures shall be taken to expose, combat and eradicate corruption and abuse or misuses of power by those holding political and public offices.*

*Source: Constitution of Uganda: National objective and the Directive Principle of State Policy No. 26*

## 5.8 Key Actors in the Accountability chain

Over the recent past, a number of legal, institutional and operational reforms have been undertaken to enhance accountability systems, strengthen the oversight functions and streamline public financial management processes. Some of the key ones include the: The Constitution of Uganda 1995, The Budget Act 2001, the Inspectorate of Government Act 2002, the Leadership Code Act 2002, the Public Procurement and Disposal of Public Assets Act 2003 (revised), Access to Information Act (2005), National Audit Act 2008, the Anti-Corruption Act 2009, Whistle-blowers Protection Act 2010 and the Public Finance and Management Act (2015). Also, article 17 (i) of the Constitution makes it the duty of every citizen of Uganda to combat corruption and the misuse or wastage of public funds. Moreover the vision of the accountability sector through their strategic investment plan 2014-2019 is “to ensure transparency and accountability in public service delivery”.

Fittingly, the institutions that are mandated with implementing the aforementioned laws and policies are key drivers of transparency and accountability by the nature of their mandates. They include Office of the Auditor General (OAG), Public Procurement and Disposal of Assets Authority (PPDA), OIG, Parliament, Police, Directorate of Public Prosecutions (DPP), the different commissions (e.g. public service commission, education service commission, judiciary (e.g. anti corruption court). The citizens, civil society organizations, media all have a role to play in demanding for accountability.

By and large, interventionist policies that are employed in the DD enhancing sectors of education, health and economy to promote transparency and accountability are off shoots of the overall national and legal framework discussed above. They include providers of services: organizational providers (Ministry of Health, Ministry of Education and Sports) and frontline professionals such as doctors, teachers). Table 21 below underscores the key actors in the accountability chain.

**Table 21: Key actors for driving transparency and accountability**

Type	Institution	Role
Horizontal accountability	Ministry of Finance and Economic Development	Heads the accountability sector in Uganda by providing strategic direction to the sector, guide policy formulation for the sector, promote high standards of accountability, sector coordination etc
	Office of the Auditor General	As the supreme auditing institution, the OAG is mandated to oversee the management of public finances and promote good governance through public sector transparency and accountability
	Parliament	Through its committees like the public accounts committee, the Public Accounts Committee (PAC); Committee on Local Government Accounts (CLGA); Committee on Commissions, Statutory Authorities and State Enterprises (COSASE); and Committee on Social Services (CSS), the parliament is mandated to scrutinize external audit reports and ensure proper management of public funds.
	Office of the Inspectorate of Government	It is core anti-corruption agency in Uganda. The IG's office has a mandate to investigate cases of corruption and to arrest and prosecute those involved. As the country's ombudsman, it is responsible for the enforcement of the Leadership Code of Conduct
	Police and Directorate of Public prosecutions	The Anti-Corruption Department of Police is responsible for investigation of corruption involving public officials. The Economic Crimes Department investigates corruption involving private individuals and companies.
	Directorate of Public Prosecutions	The DPP prosecutes criminal cases including corruption cases
	Judiciary (Anti corruption court)	This is a specialized anti-corruption court (ACD) division of the Uganda High Court. Its creation was to speed up the resolution of corruption cases
	Service commissions (e.g. Public service commission, education and health Service commissions etc.)	The different service commissions have the power to appoint persons to hold or act in any office, including the power to confirm appointments, exercise disciplinary control over persons holding or acting in any such office and remove those persons from office.
Providers of services(e.g line ministries) and frontline professionals such as doctors, teachers)	Mandated to provide services in their respective jurisdictions	

V e r t i c a l Accountability	Citizens	Article 17 (i) of the Constitution makes it the duty of every citizen of Uganda to combat corruption and the misuse or wastage of public funds.
	Civil Society Organizations (CSOs)	CSOs may act as powerful watchdogs by empowering citizens to hold public officials to account
	Media	As a primary source of public information, the media can enhance accountability through investigating and reporting on information that holds government accountable to the public.

Source: Authors compilation from literature

### 5.8.1 Horizontal Accountability

Effective monitoring and oversight of public institutions is essential to break the circle of impunity, ensure that acts of misconduct are adequately detected and punished, and make corruption a high-risk or low-reward activity. Mechanisms designed to promote horizontal accountability typically include checks and balances on public agencies provided by institutions such as supreme audit institutions, as well as anti-corruption and law enforcement agencies (Chene 2015). But how effective are the existing state oversight mechanisms in Uganda? This sub-section delves into the effectiveness of the external audit function, legislative/parliamentary oversight, and the sanctions/enforcement function of the accountability chain.

#### (a) External Audit

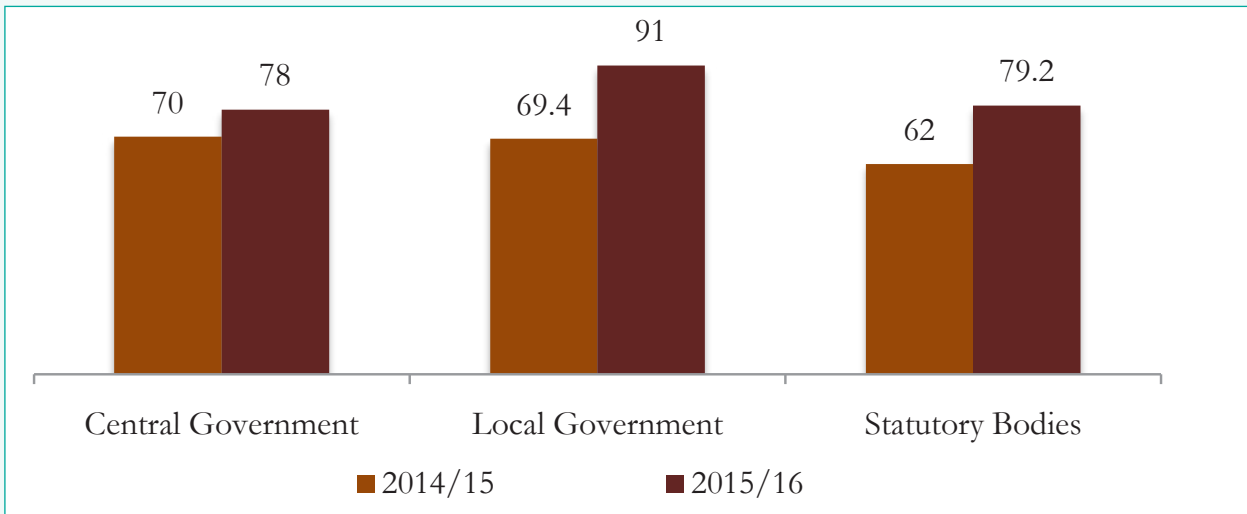
External audit is one way of ensuring that Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) adhere to Public Finance Management (PFM) rules. Robust PFM systems act as strong preventative measures against misuse of public resources thereby minimizing the occurrence of corruption. The OAG routinely undertakes audits for all central government units, as well as statutory corporations and local government. As per the 2016 PEFA assessment, the OAG scored highly (A) for indicators on audit coverage and standards and being independent; a B score was awarded for “submission of audit reports to the legislature. The worst score of ‘D’ was awarded as indicating limited follow-up of audit findings. Limited follow up of audit findings undercuts the purpose of carrying out the audits, if no follow up is taken on the findings.

Table 22: External Audit Performance

Assessment Criteria	2016
Audit coverage and standards	A
Submission of audit reports to the legislature	B
External audit follow up	D
Supreme audit institution independence	A

Source: Performance Indicator 30, PEFA 2017

At the MDA level, there has been an improvement across the spectrum with a higher proportion of LGs, CGs and statutory authorities receiving clean audits in FY 2014/15 compared with FY 2013/14 (refer to Figure 5.6). This implies that more and more public institutions are increasingly providing financial statements that contain no material misstatements or errors, which is a welcome development. However, about 20 percent of statutory bodies, 22 percent of Central Government Institutions and 10 percent of LG's received qualified opinions, implying that there were misstatements in the entities' financial statements, possibly indicating financial mismanagement and/or corruption.

**Figure 5.6: Share of Audited entities that received a Clean Audit Certificate (%)**

Source: Office of the Auditor General (OAG), 2016

Implementation of OAG audit recommendations: The purpose of audits is to improve financial management practices at the various levels and ensure value for money. To achieve this objective, at the end of each audit of an entity, the OAG discusses with the relevant Accounting Officer the response to the audit management letter and follow up actions/recommendations are agreed upon. OAG routinely reviews the implementation status of the recommendations for the previous year at the beginning of each annual audit. Data from OAG reveals that only a handful of recommendations are implemented by the concerned entities. For example, only about 25 percent of the 2013/14 recommendations issued by the OAG had been implemented at the beginning of the audit cycle for 2014/15. The weak implementation of the recommendations is an indication of the laxity of accounting officers.

### (b) Legislative/Parliamentary Oversight

Legislative scrutiny of external audit reports is a critical process aimed at ensuring proper management of public funds. This may be achieved by examining external audit reports in a timely manner, holding hearings on critical findings, and issuing recommended actions for executive implementation. In Uganda, the Parliament<sup>28</sup> is a central actor for ensuring that the Executive is taking aggressive action to promote accountability, and enforce anti-corruption laws. Findings from the 2016 PEFA assessment (refer to Table 23) show that parliamentary committees do scrutinize audit reports, but with a time lag leading to back logs. In-depth hearings of key findings of audit reports take place occasionally, covering a few audited entities which received a qualified, adverse or disclaimer opinion. On a good note, there is transparency during the scrutiny of audit reports; accountability committees hold hearings openly and transparently at committee level and during plenary debates with live coverage by various media houses. Beyond the scrutiny and in-depth hearings, there is a weak link on oversight at the end of the oversight/scrutiny cycle (GoU 2017). In conclusion, while the quality of external audit is high, legislative scrutiny and follow-up but accountability committees at parliament needs improvement. For the external audit to yield results, the whole accountability cycle should be completed because any breakdown in the process may lead to limited success as far as tasking the Government to fully account for mismanagement of public expenditure is concerned.

28 This role is played by the Public Accounts Committee (PAC), Local Government Accounts Committee (LGAC), and the Committee on Commissions, Statutory Authorities and State Enterprises (COSASE)

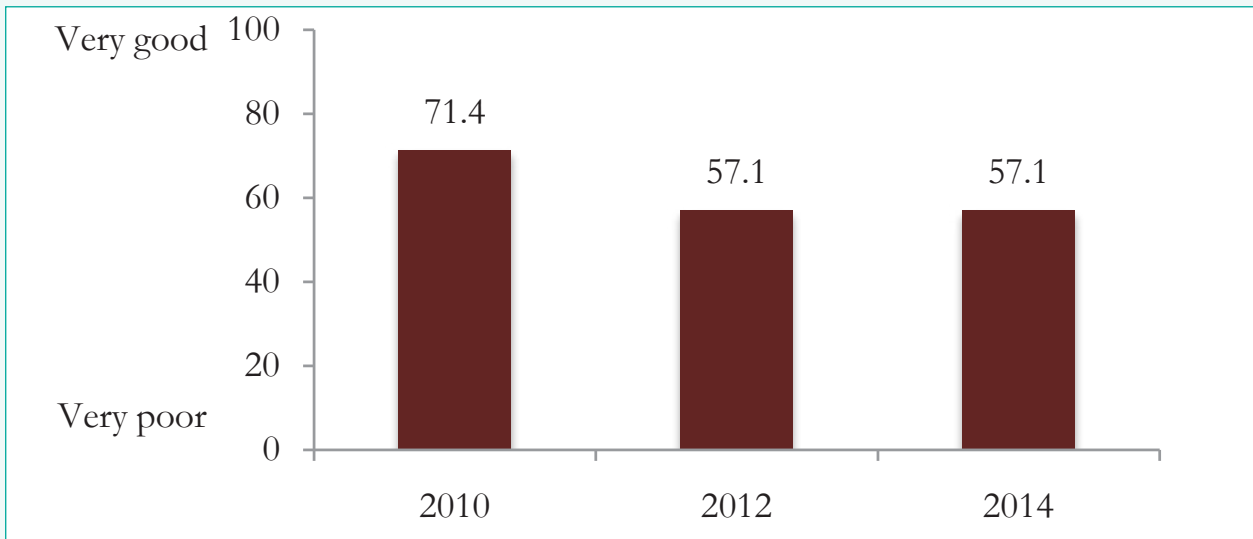
**Table 23: Legislative scrutiny of Audit Reports**

Assessment Criteria	2016 Score
Timing of audit report scrutiny	D
Hearings of audit findings	C
Recommendations on audit by the legislature	C
Transparency of legislative scrutiny of audit reports	B

Source: Performance Indicator 31, PEFA 2017

### (c) Sanctions and Enforcement

Prosecution of abuse of office: This indicator assesses the extent to which public office holders who abuse their positions are prosecuted or penalised. It assesses whether public servants and politicians are held accountable through legal prosecution and public contempt when they break the law and engage in corrupt practices. It shows how the state and society hold public servants and politicians accountable, whether conflicts of interest are sanctioned, and to what extent the rule of law is undermined by political corruption. Using data from the 2015 IAG, figure 5.7 shows the extent of prosecution for abuse across time.

**Figure 5.7: Prosecution of Abuse Of Office**

Source: Mo Ibrahim Index of African Governance, 2015

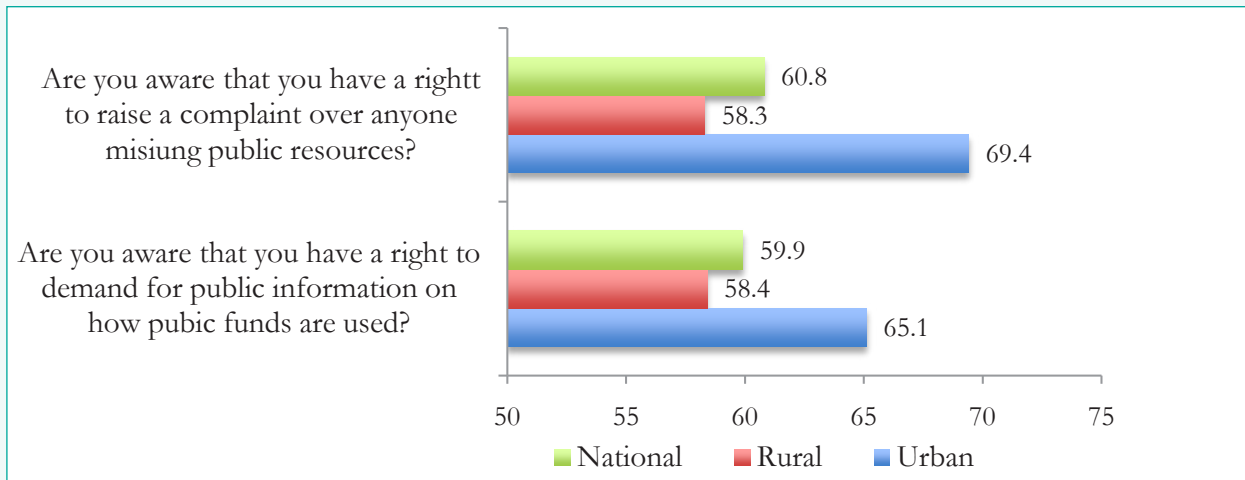
Uganda's score has deteriorated over time from 71.4 to 57.1; a higher score (towards 100) implies existence of good practices while a low score (towards 0) implies poor practices.

### 5.8.2 Vertical/social accountability

Citizens, Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) and the media have a role in enhancing accountability. Article 17 (i) of the Constitution makes it the duty of every citizen of Uganda to combat corruption and the misuse or wastage of public funds. Citizens have the power to demand for accountability from MDAs and LGs; they can report misconduct of public officers and also act as witnesses in corruption cases before the courts of law. However there is limited awareness of rights to demand for accountability among the citizenry. Findings from the 2017 National Governance, Peace and Security survey reveal that about six in every ten Ugandans (60%) are aware that they have a right to demand for information on how public funds are utilized. The proportion is slightly higher among urban dwellers (65.1%) compared with their rural counterparts (58.4%). Similarly, about the same

proportion reported to be aware of their rights to raise a complaint over any one misusing public resources (refer to Figure 5.8).

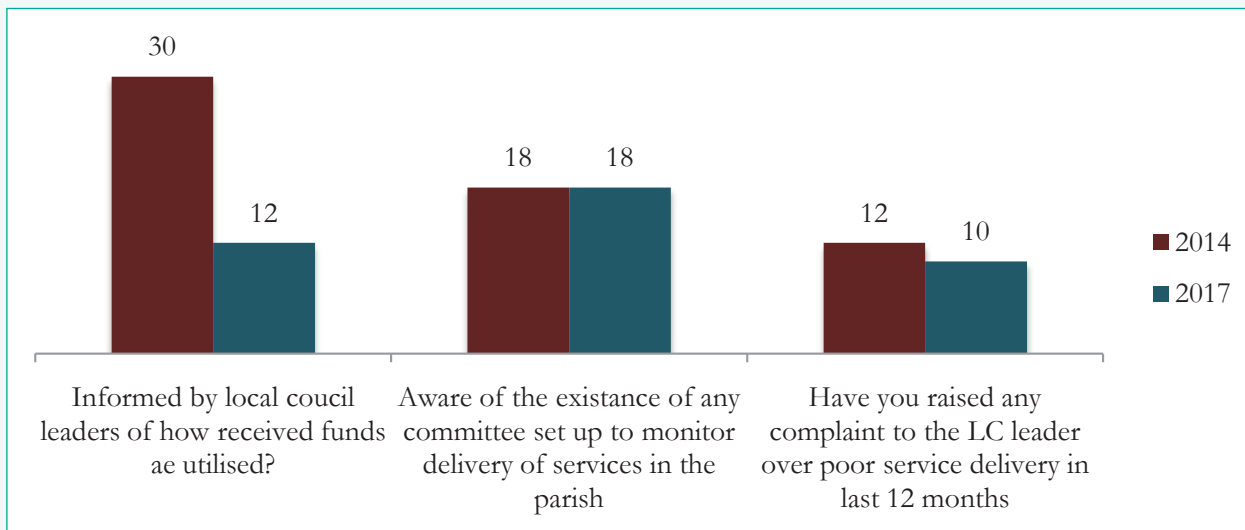
**Figure 5.8: Proportion of Citizens who aware of Accountability Related Rights (%)**



Source: 2017 National Governance, Peace and Security survey, UBoS2018

The 2017 NGPS findings further reveal low and declining levels of awareness and empowerment among the public to monitor utilization of public funds for service delivery. Only 12 percent of respondents reported to have been informed by local leaders of how funds were utilized; down from 30 percent in 2014. Moreover only 18 percent of respondents are aware of any committee set up to monitor delivery of services in their parish. Due to probably low levels of awareness and empowerment, only 1 in 10 people (10%) reported to have raised complaints to the LC leader over poor service delivery in the 12 months preceding the survey (refer to Figure 5.9).

**Figure 5.9: Proportion of population informed of how funds are utilised, committees to monitor service delivery and raising to complaints related to service delivery (%)**



Source: 2017 National Governance, Peace and Security Survey, UBoS 2018

To increase community based monitoring and accountability, the Government introduced Barazas in 2009. Barazas are community-based performance monitoring programs in the LGs. They act as an empowerment tool to enhance citizens’ involvement in monitoring and holding the Government accountable for service delivery in relation to resources spent. In addition, Barazas are a public information sharing mechanism; they provide an opportunity for citizens to ask questions to their leaders

and deliberate among themselves, ultimately contributing to effective monitoring, accountability and transparency among all stakeholders. In addition, they provide a platform to influence Government development programs. The Barazas are meant to be held biannually in each sub county under the chairmanship of the Resident District Commissioners (RDCs).

CSOs can also act as powerful watchdogs by demanding accountability of Government directly or indirectly by empowering citizens to hold public officials to account. They may do so through by accessing, interpreting, and distributing information to multiple stakeholders in usable and accessible formats; by supporting and encouraging formal oversight actors to demand accountability (such as legislatures, auditors, judiciaries); and by supporting and encouraging other actors to demand accountability (such as executive insiders, political parties, donors). They may conduct advocacy and public awareness and whistle blowing.

Finally, the media may play an investigative, monitorial, collaborative and facilitative role to promote transparency and accountability. Sustained investigative reporting on corruption and other forms of wrong doing can help build a culture of accountability in Government. Being one of the primary sources of public information, the media must have access to information, and must be encouraged to investigate and report on information, which holds Government accountable to the public. This kind of free reporting empowers the citizenry with information; encourages public debate on corruption and holding the Government and decision makers accountable. Based on the 2017 Index of Public Integrity (IPI) conducted by the European Research Centre for anti-corruption and State Building (ERCAS), Uganda's score<sup>29</sup> on press freedom is 4.6 and is generally at par with ratings in other EAC countries (Kenya and Tanzania) except Rwanda that has a dismal performance of 1.9. The score for all East African Community (EAC) countries is below the SSA average of 5.7. In congruence, Uganda scores poorly (25 out of 100) regarding the 2018 Africa Integrity Indicator (AII) on prior Government restraint (pre-publication censoring) and Government's promotion of media's self-censorship (Global Integrity 2018). This means that although there is some degree of press freedom in Uganda, more can be done to allow the media investigate, publish and debate corruption and accountability issues in the DD enhancing sectors of health, education and the economy.

## 5.9 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed a number of indicators using multiple sources of data to shed light on the extent of transparency and accountability in Uganda. While some areas reveal strong performance – particularly those related to the legal and regulatory framework– other areas indicate weak performance of Government, in particular, limited access to public information, weak implementation of recommendations made by oversight agencies, low public demand for accountability, citizen bribery and ineffective enforcement/sanctioning of the regime.

## 5.10 Policy Recommendations

1. Strengthen internal and external systems for transparency and accountability: Effective monitoring and oversight of public institutions is essential to break the circle of impunity, ensure that acts of misconduct are adequately detected and punished, and make corruption a high- risk or low-reward activity. Although the auditor general produces audit reports timely, the level of legislative scrutiny of the reports by accountability committees is not timely. There is an excessive backlog of reports pending consideration and even those that are considered and adopted by parliament, treasury memoranda which details Government status on the implementation of the PAC recommendations are not routinely issued and audited by the

<sup>29</sup> The score ranges between 1 and 10 and a higher value represents better performance

Auditor General. Also, the respective Government institutions rarely implement the OAG's recommendations.

2. Improve citizens' access to information: Public access to information is a powerful deterrent to the capture of public funds. Information may be used to measure the authorities' performance and to guard against any possible misuse of power. Without public access to records of Governance and other information, public resources may be squandered and mismanaged. While some improvement has been noted over time, more can be done. Information related to budgets and government programs should be widely disseminated through major media channels ranging from websites, radios, televisions, community meetings to mention but a few.
3. Encourage public dialogue and inquiry into the issue of accountability: Evidence shows that although there is some degree of awareness concerning citizen rights to demand for accountability, the actual involvement of citizens in demanding accountability remains limited. There is a need to promote social accountability programs to enable the public to monitor Government programs. Also, ensure dissemination of simplified versions of information and legislations on transparency and accountability.
4. Curb corruption in social sectors: While absenteeism and bribery are on a declining trend, these forms of corruption still exist and they mainly affect the poor and marginalized sections of society. These corrupt practices have long-term negative effects on the socioeconomic development of the country and on achieving the demographic dividend. There is a need for civic education to empower citizens, civil societies and the media to play an active role in the fight against corruption through reporting such bribery experiences to the relevant anti corruption authorities for sanctioning.
5. Make engagement in corruption risky through effective sanctioning of corrupt practices. While Uganda has implemented a range of measures to improve accountability and fight corruption, these measures have been at best only partially effective. Although culprits are increasingly being prosecuted in the courts of law at times resulting into convictions, recovery of ill-gotten assets from these perpetrators remains weak. It is thus imperative that institutions with the mandate to freeze and confiscate assets take on this role expeditiously. Only then will corruption and misappropriation of funds be looked at as a risky venture.

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*Isimba Hydro Power Project in Kayunga District*



**Chapter 6: RETHINKING SERVICE DELIVERY AS A PATHWAY FOR DEMOGRAPHIC DIVIDEND**

## 6.1 Introduction

The Demographic Dividend is an evidence-based economic development phenomenon whereby dividends result from an increase in working age population and a significant fall in birth rates or declining dependent/workforce ratios. Service delivery on the other hand, is the act of providing services such as health care, education, sanitation, infrastructure, among others to the citizens. To benefit from demographic dividend for sustainable development, there is need to change the population age structure to a more working age groups. The increase in the working age group will reduce on the dependence in the country. This should be followed by investing in education, health, infrastructure, economy and good governance. To achieve this there is need for the availability of high quality public services which can mainly be achieved through innovative approaches to both service design and delivery. Another way to improve public service performance and ultimately contribute to effective and sustainable service delivery and eventually sustainable development is through good governance practices. Empowering public institutions is also another pathway of improving service delivery. This chapter explores how service delivery can be a pathway for harnessing the demographic dividend.

## 6.2 Innovating Public Service Delivery for Harnessing Demographic Dividend

Benefiting from demographic dividend for sustainable development needs the availability of high quality and enough public services, which can mainly be achieved through innovative approaches to both service design and delivery. Innovation in public-service delivery is about getting the most out of the available resources at lower costs. Effective public service delivery requires innovations in provision and improving access to all citizens. The focus is on improving people's quality of life rather than the service itself. This section draws directly on the experience and lessons from local and international perspective in innovating the design and delivery of public services. The local and international best practices described below provide useful lessons needed for innovating public service delivery in Uganda.

Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs), are now being adopted widely around the world and available for unlimited participation with typically free and open access for everyone with a computer with internet access anywhere in the world (UN,2015). The National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC) of Uganda has developed software where they will upload harmonized good learning materials for the primary and secondary curricula on a tablet to ease understanding of the syllabus and enable learners to explore at their convenience. The students will have self-assessments before they proceed to another topic. The technology they have termed Virtual Learn is loaded with simulations and animation, which can be manipulated, and permits performance tracking by schools and parents and can be accessed on mobile devices and android. The software is both an online and off-line system where learning materials are uploaded in the software on a tablet<sup>30</sup>.

While access to education in Uganda has improved significantly in the last two decades, school curricula have changed little since the colonial era. Technical and vocational education and training (TVET) programmes have also suffered from neglect. Today, these initiatives are marked by outdated courses and learning methods that fail to prepare young people for the demands of the current job market in Uganda. There is also a deficiency in critical practical and “soft” skills, such as communication, teamwork and problem solving in the formal education system in Uganda. It is these skills that enable young people to become adaptable and lifelong learners. In 2007, the Government of Uganda developed and implemented a nationwide new curriculum for primary

30 *Daily Monitor, Aug 1, 2018*

schools, called 'thematic curriculum'. However, issues that range from heavy load of the curriculum to lack of teaching and learning materials, from large classes to inadequate teacher training remain. Secondary curriculum review started in 2008. In the early stages of the review, NCDC met resistance from religious leaders among others for not including religious studies among the selected subjects. The Government suspended in 2016 the implementation of the revised lower secondary curriculum up to 2019, saying the majority of the stakeholders had not understood the changes.

The incidence of skills mismatch in Uganda is very high, standing at 73%<sup>31</sup>. The system does not exactly produce the appropriately skilled workforce that Uganda requires to increase income, employment and productivity. The Ministry of Education and Sports is currently implementing the "Skilling Uganda" Strategic Plan (2012- 2021) that focuses on improving the quality of skills development at a training institution level and making it more responsive to labour market needs. A recent consultative meeting agreed on the institutional framework for skilling Uganda by creating the TVET council that will determine the hands-on skills required for the various fields like agriculture, manufacturing and oil and gas. Uganda could learn from successful stories of Germany and India. To harness the demographic dividend, the Indian Government linked up with the private sector to form the National Skill Development Corporation (NSDC) as a public-private partnership. The NSDC's goal is to foster the private sector's delivery of quality vocational training. Germany also came up with an innovative way of providing practical education known as the dual vocational training system and has been largely successful. The dual system integrates work-based and school-based learning to prepare apprentices for a successful transition to full-time employment (Hoeckel & Robert, 2010). It is only in Germany where youth unemployment is low compared to other countries and this is attributed to their dual education system.

Research evidence indicates that there may be high returns from using radio education, particularly in remote rural areas where other pedagogical inputs (including motivated teachers) are lacking (Bates, 1982). Radio education is used in many countries such as India, Singapore, China, Indonesia, Thailand, etc (Galda, 1984). Experts in subjects prepare lessons for broadcast. Methods such as discussions, dramatization, and special audio effects to make learning more interesting to children are used. Radio education is also used in India, for rural development (Long, 1984); in Swaziland and Egypt, for public health purposes (Byram & Kidd, 1983; Abdulla, 2004); in Mali, for literacy training (Ouane, 1982); in Nigeria, for management courses for the agriculture sector (Shears, 1984); in Kenya, in support of correspondence courses (Kinyanjui, 1973); in Philippine, for nutrition education (Cooke & Romweber, 1977); in Guatemala, to promote changes in farming practices and to improve production (Ray, 1978); in South Korea, Brazil and Tanzania, in support of family planning (Park, 1967; La Ferrara et al, 2012; Rogers et al, 1999); in South Africa targeting issues like HIV/AIDs, alcohol abuse and crime (Ramafoko et al, 2012), among others.

Community health approaches have enabled some countries such as Brazil, Iran and Cuba to achieve health outcome gains in a short period. One of Brazil's poorest states, Ceara reduced infant mortality dramatically from 100 per 1,000 live birth in 1988s to 25 per 1000 live births in 2001 by recruiting, training, and deploying community health agents<sup>32</sup>. Cuba has managed to maintain an infant mortality rate at least as low as that of developed countries by requiring all new medical school graduates to serve for one year in rural areas<sup>33</sup>. Iran managed to staff their 16,340 rural health houses, by female and male health workers selected and locally trained from the villages where they were to be stationed<sup>34</sup>. The Ministry of Health in Uganda is creating a new paid cadre of providers called community health extension workers (CHEWs), who will work with and supervise existing village health teams (VHTs) and other types of volunteer health workers. The Government of Uganda will begin recruiting and training approximately 1,500 CHEWs from 13 districts in the next few months,

31 *Uganda Labour Market Profile 2016, the Danish Trade Council for International Development and Cooperation.*

32 *World Development Report, 2004*

33 *World Development Report, 2004*

34 *Mehryar, Aghajanian, and Ahmadnia, 2000*

and expects to train 15,000 over the next five years<sup>35</sup>.

Mexico designed an appropriate and accessible public services of copyright system that provides safety and certainty to creators so that they can retain ownership of, and benefit financially from, their work. Mexico's National Copyright Institute, INDAUTOR, registers more than 55,000 annual creations which makes it the main copyright office among the seven most important in the world. The registration work done at INDAUTOR has a great impact on citizens as it is focused directly on the authorship, creative, scientific, artistic, and education communities in the radio, television, cinematographic, phonographic and editorial industries, among others. In order to reduce the burden of copyright registration and provide an efficient service to users, INDAUTOR undertook a complete re-engineering of the work registration process, resulting in the creation and implementation of the Express Autor project designed to grant the Work Registration Certificate on the day it is requested, faster than anywhere in the world, thereby significantly reducing the administrative burden both on users and on government as the service provider (UN, 2015).

Kazakhstan has used the case of a combined public service delivery called "One Stop Shops". Several public services are provided in a single building rather than different Government offices in a business-like style of service delivery and in a modern physical environment. The service integration policy is an attempt of Kazakhstani Government to improve the quality of public services and reduce corruption. Some positive progress in improving the accessibility of public services has been noted (Saltanat Janenova & Pan Suk Kim, 2016). The above experiences and lessons from local and international perspective in innovating the design and delivery of public services show that innovative approaches can be adopted to improve public services delivery for sustainable development.

### 6.3 Sustainable Service Delivery and Good Governance

There is a general consensus that good governance practices improve public service performance and ultimately contribute to effective and sustainable service delivery and eventually sustainable development. Good governance is when governance is considerate, efficient, transparent, accountable, and embraces diverse views and opinions before political and administrative decisions are taken. The principles of good governance include "openness, transparency, accountability to democratic institutions, fairness and equity in dealings with citizens, including mechanisms for consultation and participation, efficient and effective services, clear and transparent applicable laws and regulations, consistency and coherence in policy formation, and high standards of ethical behavior" (United Nations, 2006). The link between governance and service delivery was highlighted in the World Bank's 2004 World Development Report, which focused on accountability structures and processes (World Bank, 2004).

Good governance practices are central to public service performance and service delivery to society. However, good governance practices are only possible if there are in place recognized legal frameworks to regulate the activities and behaviors of public administrators. Uganda has developed and put in place the necessary institutional and strategic frameworks for public participation, democratization, accountability and transparency and has put in place most of these elements of governance. These include the Anti-corruption division of the High Court, Office of the Inspectorate of Government, Office of the Auditor General, the Public Procurement and Disposal of Public Assets Authority, and the Department of Ethics and Integrity. Other processes include: the National Anti-corruption Strategy, the Leadership Code, the Client Charter, and Whistle Blowing.

The Government of Uganda have also put in place the Constitution in 1995, Local Government Act in 1997, and Ant-Corruption Act in 2009 which are critical foundations in ensuring good governance

<sup>35</sup> <https://www.intrahealth.org/>

practices and eventually equitable delivery of services to society. Local Governments Act was enacted to consolidate and streamline in accordance with the Constitution to give effect to the decentralization and devolution of functions, powers and services to provide for decentralization at all levels of local governments to ensure good governance and democratic participation in, and control of decision making by people. Since Local Governments are permanent public institutions, they provide institutional infrastructure for sustainable service delivery.

Putting in place these governance frameworks and institutions has culminated into improved government accountability, transparency, citizen's participation and responsiveness. However, the Government is still struggling with the delivery of quality services to the citizens.

Democratic principles and citizen participation have continued to deepen. For example, Uganda's Community Advocacy Forum (Baraza) – town hall style meetings held twice a year – were launched in 2009 and provide a platform for citizens to participate in the planning and monitoring of public services delivered at the Local Government Level. The Baraza initiative's aims were to (1) strengthen governance and downward accountability within the public sector, and (2) ensure adequate space for ordinary citizens to participate in planning and monitoring of Government services in their local communities. Their focus is on key sectors including agriculture, education, water and sanitation, health, and roads. Evidence show that Baraza's have empowered citizens to know their rights through the upward and downward accountability which has led to a big cross-section of the population (91%) to get knowledgeable of their right to demand for local public services (IFPRI, 2015). Baraza's have become highly empowering in terms of availing the otherwise inaccessible information to the citizens, whereby the "black box" of the incomplete services has been put to disclosure.

Uganda improved in the Open Budget Index from 32 out of 100 in 2006 to 62 out of 100 in 2017, which was substantially higher than the global average score of 45<sup>36</sup>. Institutions to monitor and audit public resources are increasingly able to obtain comprehensive information. The current macro-economic policy framework prioritizes efficiency and effectiveness in service delivery to achieve results as well as transparency and accountability in the use of available resources. These policies among others include Results Oriented Management (ROM); performance contracts for Ministry Permanent Secretaries/Accounting officers and the adoption of Budget Framework Papers (BFP) and Ministerial Policy Statements (MPSs) which oblige all sectors to clearly articulate objectives, targets, outputs and outcomes. In order to strengthen the link between Government's strategic objectives, budget allocations and service delivery outcomes/results, Government has, embarked on implementation of the Programme Based Budgeting (PBB) in a phased manner starting with the Central Government Votes in FY 2017/18. The Programme Based Budgeting System (PBB) which replaces the OBT will be used as a tool for budget preparation and reporting. The Budget Monitoring and Accountability Unit was established in 2008/09 to scrutinize the outputs delivered by Government agencies and demonstrate to all stakeholders how public funds are being used.

## 6.4 Empowering Institutions and Improving Service Delivery

This section examine how and whether legal frameworks for decentralization empower Local Governments with the responsibilities of allocation of public resources, integrated participatory planning and budgeting, local resource mobilization and investment management within their areas of jurisdiction. It also explores how to empower these Local Governments with the objective of improving service delivery.

Uganda embraced the decentralization process in 1992. The legal frameworks for the decentralized system of governance is contained in the Constitution of Uganda 1995, Articles 176–207 and the

<sup>36</sup> <https://www.internationalbudget.org/open-budget-survey/results-by-country/country-info/?country=ug>

Local Government Act, 1997. The 1995 Constitution states that decentralization shall be a principle applying to all levels of local government and in particular, from higher to lower level government units to ensure peoples' participation and democratic control in decision making. It also states that the local governments shall oversee the performance of persons employed by the Government to provide services in their areas and to monitor the provision of Government services or the implementation of projects in their areas (Constitution of the Republic of Uganda, 1995). The main objective of the decentralization was the promotion of good governance through strengthening of local institutions and improvement in service delivery.

The decentralization policy was not meant to be simply a policy goal to shift responsibility for development to local authorities, but a policy instrument aimed at improving, effectiveness, increased efficiency and sustainability in the delivery of essential services countrywide. It aimed at introducing efficiency and effectiveness in the generation and management of resources and the delivery of services.

To address the population concerns in a comprehensive and multi-sectoral manner and in line with Government's decentralization policy, the thrust of the population was to promote intervention programmes designed to improve health, nutrition, education, and the environment. Further, family planning, as a basic human right was promoted to play a key role in reducing the proportion of high risk pregnancies and births, ensuring child survival, enhancing the status of women, raising the levels of income of individuals and families, alleviating poverty, and ultimately improving the quality of life and the standard of living of the people.

In the decentralized framework some districts also formulated the District Population Action Plans (DPAP) to guide effective mainstreaming, integration and implementation of the National Population Policy. The District Population Action Plans translate the goal, objectives and strategies of the National Population Policy and District Development Plans into focused and measurable intervention programmes and activities, where stakeholders identify easily with activities relevant to their sectors. Actions to improve human development focus on improving the quality and retention at primary and post primary education levels, reducing infant, child and maternal mortality rates and increasing peoples control over the size of their families by ensuring that family planning services are accessible to all.

Uganda has made significant progress in the implementation of decentralization programme. The contribution of decentralization to improving service delivery, promoting welfare growth and enhancing overall improvement in the quality of life of the rural populace have been nationally and internationally applauded. Service delivery has greatly improved under the decentralization system, particularly with respect to access to primary education, healthcare, and water and sanitation services.

The percentage of approved posts filled by qualified health workers increased from 56% in 2010/11 to 71.7% in 2016/17 (AHSPR, FY 2016/17). The number of doctors, midwives and nurses in public services per 1000 persons was 0.03, 0.25 and 0.46 respectively in FY 2015/16 (ASPR, 2015/16). There has been significant progress in the reduction of both under-five and infant mortality rates in Uganda. Infant mortality rates declined from 86 in 1995 to 43 in 2016, while maternal mortality ratio fell from 506 in 1995 to 336 in 2016, while the unmet family planning demand continues to be high at 28% with a contraceptive prevalence rate of 39% in 2016 (see Table 24). The fall in both indicators accelerated since 2006, showing that intensified Government efforts to improve child survival are paying off. Government's Child Survival Strategy aimed for universal access to a number of high-impact interventions including micronutrient supplementation, provision of mosquito nets, provision of antiretroviral drugs and other essential medicines, malaria prevention and treatment, immunization, prevention of mother to-child transmission of HIV, and improved water and sanitation. A number of successful Government interventions also contributed, including the recruitment of additional



midwives and other health workers to offer maternal care services, particularly in hard-to-reach areas and improved access to safe, affordable and effective methods of contraception.

**Table 24: Trend of Health Indicators, 1995-2016**

Indicator	1995	2000/01	2006	2011	2016
Infant mortality rate (IMR)	86	88	76	54	43
Under five mortality rate (U5MR)	156	152	137	90	64
Maternal Mortality ratio (MMR)	506	505	435	438	336
Total fertility rate(TFR)	6.9	6.9	6.7	6.2	5.4
Unmet need for family planning	21.9%	24.4%	40.6%	34.3%	28%
Contraceptive Prevalence rate	8%	18%	18%	26%	35%

Source: UDHS 1995, 2000/01, 2006, 2011 and 2016

In order to improve access to education, Government introduced Universal Primary Education (UPE) in 1997. This contributed to a more than threefold increase in total primary school enrolment from 2.7 million in 1996 to 8.6 million in 2016 (UBOS, 2017). Government also introduced Universal Secondary Education (USE). The total secondary school level enrollment in 2016 was 1,457,272 students which was an increase compared to 814,087 students in 2006 (UBOS, 2017). Studies suggest that financial constraints remain the most prominent factor explaining both non-enrolment and high dropout rates. Enrollment to tertiary education has also been increasing but biased towards universities (75% of total enrollment in tertiary institutions in 2016) as opposed to countries such as Germany where more than two thirds of tertiary enrolled students goes to vocational training institutions (see Table 25).

**Table 25: Enrolment in BTVET and Universities in Uganda, 2012-2016**

Institutions	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
BTVET	34,380	42,674	39,712	40,830	63,209
Universities	140,096	140,403	180,360	185,315	186,412
Ratio of BTVET to total employment	0.20	0.23	0.18	0.18	0.25
<b>Total</b>	<b>174,476</b>	<b>183,077</b>	<b>220,072</b>	<b>226,145</b>	<b>249,621</b>

Source: Uganda Statistical Abstract, 2017

Government has also been committed to providing non-formal education with specific reference to adult literacy programmes. As a result of implementation of these policies, the literacy rate, for persons aged 10 years and above was 72 per cent in 2017 (UBOS, 2017) which was an increase from 69 percent reported in 2005/06 (UNHS, 2009/10). The male literacy rate (77.4%) was higher than that for females (67.6%) in 2017 (UBOS, 2017).

In terms of water, 80 per cent of households in 2016/17 had access to improved water compared to 68 percent of households in 2012/13 (UNHS, 2016/17). As regards the distance to source of drinking water urban households travel 0.2 Km to the main source of drinking water compared to those in rural areas (0.8 km) (UNHS, 2016/17). As regards, mobile tele-density, it has grown from 2.2 in 2003 to 66.9 per 100 people in 2017 (UCC, 2017). Internet usage has also grown from 0.1% in 2000 to 31.3% in 2017 (UCC, 2017). With regard to access to finance, in 2017, 62% of Uganda's population had no access whatsoever to financial services. The number of the population holding accounts in banks was 4 million or 33% of the 12 million who are bankable in 2017. The savings to GDP ratio is still low at 16%. In addition, financial intermediation is poor as indicated by the stock of private sector credit

of 11.8% of GDP in 2017<sup>37</sup>. As regards household access to electricity, it increased from 9% in 2003 to 26.7% in 2016.

The future of service delivery in Uganda is going to depend on some very critical interventions from Government to address the population growth, which at 3.03% is one of the highest in world. Besides nearly 54% of the population is a dependent (UBOS, 2017). Most worrying is the fact that at the current growth rate Uganda's population will continue to grow faster than Government's capacity to deliver vital services. A high population continuously puts tremendous pressure on the system's capacity to deliver social services.

However, several challenges have emerged, with decentralization process falling short of achieving its service delivery targets. Many reasons can be cited for this, such as the poor autonomy of the local governments, tight fiscal control by higher government and capacity constraints. Obwona et al (2000) indeed notes that, financial and institutional constraints have adversely affected the ability of the sub-national governments to adequately deliver services of sufficient quality.

The increased number of new districts means more expenditure on public administration, and less funding made available for service delivery and capacity building. In addition, a significant number of new districts have limited capacity for budgeting, planning, and tracking funds (MOFPED, 2016).

Local governments have very limited fiscal or administrative autonomy with which to respond to the needs of their constituencies. As far et al (2001) argues that local governments in Uganda have limited authority to adjust resource allocations because most of their funding comes from the center in the form of conditional grants. Local governments are not empowered with the authority to determine how budgets are spent; rather the budget is already 'earmarked' by Central Government. As result, local authorities are powerless to take steps to address local needs. School Management Committees (SMC) and Health Management Committee (HMC), for example, have no authority to hire, fire, or discipline staff, as staff recruitment and placement decisions are made by a District Service Commission.

Other challenges range from inadequate financial support from the Central Government, narrow tax regime and revenue base of Local Governments, value for money, technical and administrative capacity, difficulties in attracting and retaining qualified personnel and operation and maintenance of facilities in the Local Governments for effective service delivery to the populations is an uphill task.

## 6.5 Service Delivery and Harnessing Demographic Dividend

The Demographic Dividend is an evidence-based economic development phenomenon whereby dividends result from an increase in working age population and a significant fall in birth rates or falling dependent/workforce ratios. The increase in working age population and reduction of dependents makes it easier for high savings to support sufficient investment to drive rapid growth in capital stock and high private and public education spending per child, leading to rapid improvements in workforce skills and productivity.

The smaller share of children in the population enables greater investments per child, particularly for health care, nutrition, and schooling. If appropriate policies are in place to support productive employment, the larger working-age cohorts can produce more on a per-worker basis than in the past, thus boosting per capita income. Since workers are typically active savers, national savings can increase and the extra savings can be directed into new investments that yield additional returns (Bloom et al, 2014). Moreover, with declining mortality, longer life spans, coupled with rising per

37 <https://www.abccapitalbank.co.ug/>

capita income, motivate older workers to invest in their financial security for retirement. Although the rise in the proportion of elderly in populations tends to increase support costs for the working age population, it also brings an increase in assets that helps meet these costs and can raise the productivity of workers (Mason and Lee, 2007). These wealth transfers prolong the benefits of the Demographic Dividend over a longer period of time of up to 40 years. Economic growth increases as the proportion of working-age population grows during the demographic transition, the period when mortality and fertility rates decline (Bloom et al, 2003).

In Uganda, the demographic dividends can potentially be sizable but requires the right policies to be in place. Researchers have shown that demographic dividends can add on average about 1.0 percentage point to the annual growth in per capita income and can continue to raise economic growth even as populations age. One estimate finds favorable population age structures resulted in approximately 30 percent of average growth in per capita gross domestic product in Asia between 1965 and 1990 (Bloom and Williamson, 1998). Another estimate finds the demographic dividend in East and Southeast Asia contributed 1.9 percentage points of the 4.3 percent actual growth in the gross domestic product per effective consumer, or nearly 44 percent, between 1970 and 2000 (Mason, 2005).

Lee and Mason (2013) estimate that an accelerated fertility decline in selected Sub-Saharan African countries can increase per capita income from 2010 to 2040 by a cumulative total of 30 to 32 percent in Ghana and Ethiopia and that constant fertility will reduce income growth by 1.1 percent in Nigeria and Mozambique. Dramani and Ndiaye (2012) estimate the demographic dividend for Senegal to be a 0.75 percentage point increase around 2025. A recent study through the World Economic Forum finds that under optimistic assumptions regarding future population age structure and life expectancy changes, Nigeria's per capita GDP could be nearly 29 percent higher in 2030 than in 2010 (WEF-GAC, 2014).

Research also shows that building up the quality of human capital with early schooling, health, and employment investments can provide robust payoffs for a sustained period of time, for example, the returns to human capital investments in terms of GNP per capita is 50 percent during the peak in the first dividend period and per capita GNP stabilizes at a level of about 40% during the second dividend period (Lee and Mason, 2010). Fertility declines are heavily influenced by ages at marriage and the practice of contraception during childbearing years (Bongaarts and Sinding, 2011). Expanding secondary schooling, employment opportunities, and universal access to reproductive health care, as well as large-scale maternal and child health and nutrition programs, are essential to accelerating fertility transitions in countries like Uganda. One study estimates the return on investment from meeting two-thirds of the need for contraception in Kenya to be a 51 percent increase in per capita income between 2005 and 2050 (Bloom et al, 2014).

Uganda's investment in women's human capital will increase per capita income, and shifting from high to low fertility will add work years to female labor supply, raise household incomes, and increase tax revenues. Dollar and Gatti (1999) find that a one percent increase in the percent of females with secondary schooling can increase per capita income growth by 0.3 percentage points. Educated mothers not only raise more highly educated children but they contribute to the labor supply and household income by participating in the labor force (Schultz, 1995). Evidence shows that the fertility transition completely from 6.5 to 2.5 births per woman can increase a female's lifetime work years by 18 percent, or 8 out of 45 total years (Bloom et al, 2009).

The harnessing of the demographic dividend is usually not automatic and not realizing it can have profound economic consequences (Eastwood and Lipton, 2011). It requires strategic private and public investments to exploit this potential. As the World Bank Group's 2015/2016 **Global Monitoring Report** emphasized, countries' policy responses make all the difference in how demographic trends

affect the wellbeing of the population. With the wrong approach, a surging youth population can be destabilizing, can become a burden on economic growth and public budgets. A rapidly growing working-age populations may make it impossible to create jobs fast enough to prevent widespread underemployment<sup>38</sup>. Countries like Uganda with a growing working-age population, the key challenge is to generate a large number of productive jobs. Uganda has significant challenges and the absence of appropriate policy actions may prevent her from realizing a demographic dividend. The fertility levels in Uganda have declined over time with Total Fertility Rate (TFR) having declined from 6.9 children per woman to 5.4 children (refer to Table 24) per woman between 2000/01 and 2016 (UBOS, 2017). Infant and child mortality reduced by more than 50% from 2000/01 to 2016 (see Table 2). The slow pace of reduction in fertility may prevent Uganda from experiencing her demographic dividends in this century.

In addition, poor-quality basic education especially in rural areas in Uganda may prevent students from reaping the benefits of subsequent education and skills training. In most developing countries, formal education systems often fail to produce graduates with adequate cognitive abilities and technical competencies to fill the labor market's needs. Technologies like robots are displacing a growing share of manual labor, leaving less physically demanding jobs for humans. Robots are becoming both less expensive and more efficient. The advent of automation has altered wage relative cost advantage. With 54 percent of Uganda current population under the age of 18 (see Table 26), the country faces particular challenges in meeting the development needs of its youth population, which will continue to rapidly grow in size (UBOS, 2017).

**Table 26: Percentage Distribution of the Population by Age Groups from 1969-2017**

Age Category	1969	1991	2002	2014	2017
Less than 18 Years	51.4	53.8	56.1	55.0	54.1
6 – 12 Years	22.7	22.3	21.9	21.3	20.6
10 – 24 Years	27.8	33.3	34.2	31.7	35.2
13 – 19 Years	12.9	15.8	16.3	17.1	17.2
15 – 24 Years	16.2	20.0	19.9	20.6	21.5
18 – 30 Years	21.7	23.6	22.3	22.5	22.9
60 Years or More	5.8	5.0	4.6	4.1	3.7

Source: Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2017

## 6.6 Conclusion

This chapter explored innovative approaches to both service design and delivery. It also explored good governance practices that improve public service performance and ultimately contribute to effective and sustainable service delivery. It also explored ways of empowering of Local governments to respond to the needs of their constituencies. It was established that Uganda has made progress in delivering public services more especially in the area of education, health and infrastructure despite the challenges. It was also observed that an increase in working age population and reduction of dependents make will make it easier for Government to support sufficient investment in public education, agriculture, electricity, infrastructure and health spending.

However, to harness the demographic dividend, Uganda needs foresighted and prudent decisions about health, education, and employment to be taken today. Policies and investments are needed in

<sup>38</sup> Project Syndicate, Sep 29, 2017

the short term to enable her reap the benefits of demographic dividend. Uganda can learn from the existing experiences and lessons from local and international perspective in innovating the design and delivery of public services to improve public services delivery for sustainable development. Uganda also needs to implement good governance practices that improve public service and empower Local Governments to respond to the needs of their constituencies.

## 6.7 Policy Recommendations

1. Empower Local Governments by increasing their autonomy by giving block grants to local governments instead of conditional grants. This could be done in a phased manner, whereby, the conditional grants could reduce every year by 10%. There is also need to empower School and Health Management Committees so that their committee decision and recommendation to the District Service Commission to transfer a staff should be binding. They should also be given additional roles such as supervising teachers and health staff attendance.
2. To match the needs of the labor market in Uganda, all levels of education and training should provide students with the “skills of tomorrow”, that must include the non-routine cognitive and interpersonal skills – problem solving, critical thinking, collaboration, and communication<sup>39</sup>. In addition, there is need to adopt practical education known as the dual vocational training system that has been largely successful in Germany and put in place policies to ensure that around two thirds of all students leaving secondary school go on to start a vocational training programme.
3. There is need for training and capacity development exercises targeting on how to critically analyze and how to flexibly apply a range of social accountability tools to assist citizens and providers in leveraging their options. There is need for development of performance indicators that can be used to assess the changes in public service delivery as a result of social accountability efforts.
4. There is need to increase funding of innovative mass education programmers such as radio education, virtual learning programmes and Massive Open Online Courses. Radio education can be used for public health purposes, literacy training, management courses for the agriculture sector, support of correspondence courses, nutrition education, to promote changes in farming practices and to improve production and support of family planning among others. In addition, the Government can adopt Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) by collaborating with top global universities delivering free online courses. The Government should support Virtual Learning Programme initiated by NCDC to ensure all schools in the country have access to the teaching and learning materials that have been developed.
5. Support the creative arts sector by designing appropriate and accessible public services of copyright system that provides safety and certainty to creators so that they can retain ownership and benefit financially from, their work. Supporting the creative arts sector can provide job opportunities to the youth.
6. The Government could learn from the Cuban experience of requiring medical doctors to do their internship in hard to reach and live in areas. In addition, the Government could borrow from the Iranian experience by training health workers that are born from those areas. Since they would have attachments to their area, this would solve the staffing problems that exist in these hard to reach areas. Recruitment of these staffs would be at the parish level with a minimum requirement of Uganda Certificate of Education. They would be trained at their district

39 Project Syndicate, May 29, 2018

hospitals for a period of two years under the Government scholarship.

7. To meet the existing and growing demand of nursing professionals both in the domestic and international labour market, the Government should design and adopt an international curriculum of nursing training. The Government could train large numbers of nurses to meet both the local and international demand in this highly paid profession and in effect provide employment to youth.

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*The Newly constructed Mulago Specialized Women and Neonatal Hospital Kampala*

## Chapter 7: **FAMILY PLANNING GOVERNANCE FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT**

## 7.1 Introduction

Uganda's Vision 2040 is "A transformed Ugandan society from a peasant to a modern and prosperous country within 30 years (NPA, 2013a)." This involves changing from a predominantly low income country with per capita of US\$ 506 in 2010 to a competitive upper middle income country with a per capita of US\$ 9,500 by 2040. The Vision 2040 underscores that harnessing the Demographic Dividend (DD) is instrumental in facilitating socio-economic transformation and acknowledges the progress Uganda has made over years in improving the population and development issues. The second National Development Plan - NDPII (NPA, 2015b) also adopted harnessing or reaping the benefits of the Demographic Dividend (DD) as one of the key strategies to promote productivity, employment and inclusive growth in the country by 2020. This means that the country has to invest in Human Capital as one of the key fundamentals that have to be strengthened in order to exploit the identified opportunities to produce a healthy, skilled and productive population that effectively contributes to socio-economic transformation.

Additionally, the Vision 2040 and the second National Development Plan (NDPII) position family planning as an integral strategy to reduce poverty. NDPII illustrates the possibility of the country reaping a demographic dividend from its youthful population and attaining a middle-income status if smart investments in family planning are prioritized. Availability and accessibility of affordable FP services and information to all women, girls and men who would like to delay, space or stop child birth by reaching the last mile and ensuring that no one is left behind, would reduce the high child dependency burden, which is a major challenge in Uganda today. Universal access to family planning will facilitate the demographic transition the country envisages.

## 7.2 Family Planning a Reproductive Health Right

Family planning is one of the five key pillars in accelerating the opening of the window of opportunity to the harnessing of the demographic dividend. Family planning enables couples and individuals to decide freely and responsibly on the number and spacing of their children and to have the information and means to do so. In addition, Family planning also enables the individual to exercise their rights and other basic human rights. Therefore, family planning is a key dimension of reproductive rights, alongside the right to attain the highest standard of sexual reproductive health, and the right to make decisions concerning reproduction free of discrimination, coercion and violence (UNFPA, 2013a). Therefore, a rights-based approach to family planning and other aspects of development can lead to greater equity, equality and non-discrimination. Sexual and reproductive health and rights (SRHR)/ Family Planning are essential for sustainable development because of their links to gender equality and women's wellbeing, their impact on maternal, newborn, child, and adolescent health, and their roles in shaping future economic development and environmental sustainability (Guttmacher–*Lancet*, 2018).

UNFPA one of the main partners support to family planning in Uganda is based on family planning as a human right, to be made available, affordable, and acceptable and of high quality for every individual and couple who so wish to use it based on voluntary, free and informed consent (UNFPA, 2016b).

**President Museveni 2014:** *"Family planning is good for the health of the mother, good for the health of the baby, good for the welfare of the family and good for the country" as a whole"*

Scaling up family planning therefore is one of the most cost-effective interventions to prevent maternal, infant and child deaths. Through a reduction in the number of unintended pregnancies and unsafe

abortions, it is estimated that 30% of maternal deaths could be averted. Additionally, each dollar spent on FP initiatives on average results in a six-dollar savings on health, housing, water and other public services (MoH, Sharpened Plan 2016).

Reproductive health inequalities are deeply affected by the quality and reach of health systems and by gender inequality, which can have a profound impact on how much control a woman, especially a young girl, has over her own sexual and reproductive health including use of contraception. Overcoming such obstacles and tackling underlying gender inequality are critical to progress in reducing inequalities in sexual and reproductive health and family planning, and could lead to progress in reducing economic inequalities.

### 7.3 Global Commitments, National Policies for Family Planning

Uganda is signatory to the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). While all SDGs are closely linked to family planning, there are specific goals, targets and indicators that are explicit to universal access to family planning<sup>40</sup>.

The International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD): In 1994, the International community translated its recognition of people's right to family planning into a commitment to a human rights-based approach to health in ICPD, which focuses on building the capacity of states and individuals to realize these rights. This was later adopted in the ICPD beyond 2014 and fully integrated in the Sustainable Development Goals 3 and 5 .

Family Planning 2020 (FP2020) is a global initiative, which works with governments, civil society, multi-lateral organizations, donors, the private sector and the research and development community. The goal is by 2020, 120 million more women and girls will have access to contraceptives. This will support the rights of women and girls to decide, freely, and for themselves, whether, when, and how many children they want to have (FP2020, 2012). In 2017, Uganda renewed its commitment to allocate US\$ 5 million annually for the next five years for procurement and distribution of a range of FP supplies and RH commodities to the last mile; Raise US\$ 20 million annually to bridge the funding gap in the FP-CIP through continued partnership with development agencies, private sector, bi-lateral and multi-lateral institutions; Support a robust Social Behaviour Change Communication Strategy to increase demand and linkage to family planning services; Expand the cadre of skilled workforce for provision of quality FP services including LARC and Permanent methods; Reduce the unmet need for FP amongst adolescents from 30.4 percent in 2016 to 25 percent in 2021 through operationalising the National Adolescent Health Policy and Framework for sexuality education; and Increase the deployment and retention of critical cadres (such as midwives) in hard to reach areas.

<sup>40</sup> These include SDG 3, on ensuring healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages: target 3.7 emphasises universal access to sexual and reproductive health-care services, including family planning, information and education, and the integration of reproductive health into national strategies and programmes. While indicators: 3.7.1 on Proportion of women of reproductive age (aged 15-49 years) who have their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods; and 3.7.2 Adolescent birth rate (aged 10-14 years; aged 15-19 years) per 1,000 women in that age group are all geared at emphasising the need for the country to pay attention to family planning for its role in socio-economic transformation of the population. In addition, SDG 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls: target 5.6 Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights as agreed in accordance with the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and the Beijing Platform for Action and the outcome documents of their review conferences. The specific indicators 5.6.1 Proportion of women aged 15-49 years who make their own informed decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use and reproductive health care; 5.6.2 Number of countries with laws and regulations that guarantee women aged 15-49 years access to sexual and reproductive health care, information and education are explicit on the rights based approach to family planning.

National laws and policies have evolved over time, providing the frameworks and domesticating the global agenda for implementing SRHR/FP related programmes and services. This has provided an enabling policy environment for implementation of family planning programmes in the country.

Family Planning Costed Implementation Plan (FP CIP) 2015 - 2020: To operationalize the various policies on family planning, the FP CIP was developed aimed at reducing unmet need for FP to 10% and increase modern contraceptive prevalence rate to 50% amongst married and women in union by 2020. The FP CIP details the country's plan to providing high quality rights based FP information and services and provides national guidance towards attainment of increased knowledge of and access to family planning interventions. The FP-CIP projects financial resource needs of US\$ 235.8 million for FP until 2020. Efforts have also been made to develop district specific FP CIP to ensure integrated services at sub national level. Currently, about 16 districts have approved their FP CIPs and this will be rolled out to the rest of the country.

The plans prioritize the following:

- **Priority 1:** Increase age-appropriate information, access, and use of family planning amongst young people, ages 10–24 years.
- **Priority 2:** Promote and nurture change in social and individual behavior to address myths, misconceptions, and side effects and improve acceptance and continued use of family planning to prevent unintended pregnancies.
- **Priority 3:** Implement task sharing to increase access, especially for rural and underserved populations.
- **Priority 4:** Mainstream implementation of family planning policy, interventions, and delivery of services in multi-sectoral domains to facilitate a holistic contribution to social and economic transformation.
- **Priority 5:** Improve forecasting, procurement, and distribution and ensure full financing for commodity security in the public and private sectors.

The above strategic priorities give direction to the following six essential components or thematic areas of the FP CIP namely:

- (a) Demand creation
- (b) Service delivery and access
- (c) Contraceptive security
- (d) Policy and enabling environment
- (e) Financing
- (f) Stewardship, management, and accountability

On Adolescent Sexual and Reproductive Health, Government committed to reduce the unmet need for FP among adolescents from 30.4% in 2016 to 25% in 2021 through revising, approval and operationalizing the National Adolescent Health Policy, the National Sexuality Education Framework, and National Policy on Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights (SRHR). Much as the Government of Uganda deferred the launch of the National Guidelines and Service Standards for Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights in 2017, more consultations and engagement with various stakeholders have been undertaken and the National Policy on SRHR is now acceptable and ready for tabling in the cabinet.

### 7.3.1 Family Planning Supply Chain and Distribution.

The Ministry of Health (MoH) through the National Medical Stores (NMS) procures, stores and distributes commodities to all public Health Facilities (HFs) using the pull and push system. The commodities are supplied every two months from the NMS Warehouse to HFs basing on the quantification in the annual procurement plans submitted by HFs. For lower level facilities (Health Center II and Health Center III), a Push system is used with pre-packaged kits. The Pull System for higher level facilities (Health Center IV's, hospitals, national referral and specialized units), requires facilities to submit requests to NMS based on their estimated needs. Although this has been the most appropriate system in commodity distribution to the last mile, it has had many challenges leading to regular stock-outs and over-stocks in some HFs. The system however, was not reaching the private sector thus the alternative innovative systems.

### 7.3.2 Alternative Distribution Strategy (ADS)

In Uganda, the private sector provides the majority (60%) of contraceptive services. The ability of the private sector to meet users' needs depends upon the strength of the private supply chain system. Until recently, private sector facilities experienced frequent stock-outs. Supply chain operations favored public sector needs, and private sector access to supplies was limited with stock accumulation at central level and erratic distribution at facility. The ADS therefore is a Ministry of Health led initiative where family planning and selected reproductive health commodities are distributed, more consistently and efficiently to private sector facilities, through innovative mechanisms aimed at increasing uptake of the commodities and reducing stock-outs in private health facilities, which were not served by the National Medical Stores. Recently, Joint Medical Store (JMS) was identified by MOH to forecast, plan for the supplies, storage and distribution of contraceptives to the non-public sector and to the last mile in Uganda and implementing partners that run out of stock outside the routine schedule, should pick commodities from JMS.

One in every three women who would like to space or stop childbirth, are not accessing contraception, this is more pronounced among young women and girls. Empowering women to choose the number, timing, and spacing of their pregnancies is not only a matter of health and human rights but also touches on many multi-sectorial determinants that are vital to sustainable development, including women's education and status in society.

The key bottlenecks to contraceptive use in the country include limited access to SRH information and services by women and adolescents, stock-out of commodities at health facilities, which limits service providers to provide a method mix of family planning and limited community-based service outlets. All these are attributed challenges and weak links within the Reproductive Health Commodity Security Supply Chain to the last mile. Addressing the above bottlenecks is a critical step to reducing the unmet need for family planning including availing commodities to the last mile.

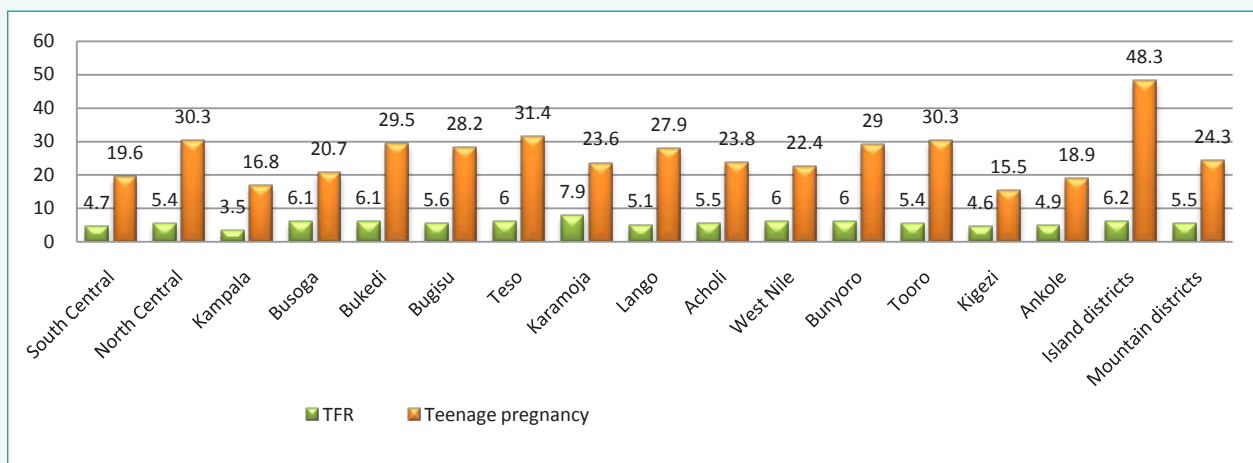
The six largest service delivery organizations— Marie Stopes Uganda (MSU), Reproductive Health Uganda (RHU), Program for Accessible Health Communication and Education (PACE), Family Health International (FHI360), Pathfinder International, and Uganda Health Marketing Group (UHMG)—came together in November 2015 to form the Uganda Family Planning Consortium (UFPC) to work with the MoH to address FP commodities and other relevant issues. The UFPC has worked with MoH towards achieving equity by reaching clients who go to private sector, introducing flexibility in source of supplies through the public-private partnership and helped in minimizing supply chain risks including commodity stock-outs, expiry, redundancy and obsolescence.

## 7.4 Realizing Demographic Dividend through Family Planning and Governance.

Uganda's population has grown from 5.0 million in 1948 to 34.6 million in 2014 and projected to reach 75 million by 2040 (UBOS, 2014). Uganda's population growth rate currently stands at 3.0 percent per annum down from 3.2 percent, one of the fastest growing population in the world. This coupled with high total fertility of 5.4 children per woman, has contributed to one of the youngest population in the world with a median age of 15.2 years. The highest proportion of Uganda's population is young, 48 percent of the population consist of young people under the age of 15 years. The age-dependency ratio is 103 percent, which means that for every 100 persons of working age, there are 103 dependents. This hampers the ability of the family and the Government to provide basic needs and social services such as food, shelter, clothing, education, health, safe water and health services.

Fertility in Uganda remained persistently high for over 3 decades and only started declining after 2000. Between 2000 and 2016, the Total Fertility Rate decreased by 1.5 children from 6.9 in 2000 to 5.4 in 2016. The number of children a woman bears depends on a number of factors including the age at which she starts childbearing, the intervals between births and her exposure to getting pregnant. The high Total Fertility Rate (TFR) in Uganda is attributable to a number of factors among them; poverty, gender inequality, social pressure, pro-natalist culture (preference of many children); low median age at first marriage (18.7 years) and first childbearing (19.2 years); and low demand and low uptake of contraceptives. Variations in total fertility rates across regions still exist varying from 3.5 children in Kampala to 7.9 in Karamoja. Island districts also have high TFRs as well as high teenage pregnancy rates, 48.3 percent compared to national average of 25 percent (UBOS, UDHS, 2016).

**Figure 7.1: Total Fertility rates and Teenage pregnancy by region and special areas**



Source: UDHS 2016, UBOS

Total fertility rates and teenage pregnancy are highest among the lowest quintile, 7.1 children per woman and 33.5 percent compared to 3.8 children and 15.1 percent in the highest quintile respectively as shown in Figure 7.1.

Fertility preference i.e. the desire for children, the extent of untimed pregnancies and unwanted pregnancies and the demand for contraception to space or limit child births determine the need for family planning in the country. Currently, 40 percent of married women and 46 percent of married men in Uganda aged 15 – 49 years want to space their children for at least two years, 38 percent and 29 percent want no more children increasing from 32 percent and 21 percent in 1995 respectively. It is noted that in 2011 this was higher at 43 and 30 percent. A higher proportion of rural (39 percent)

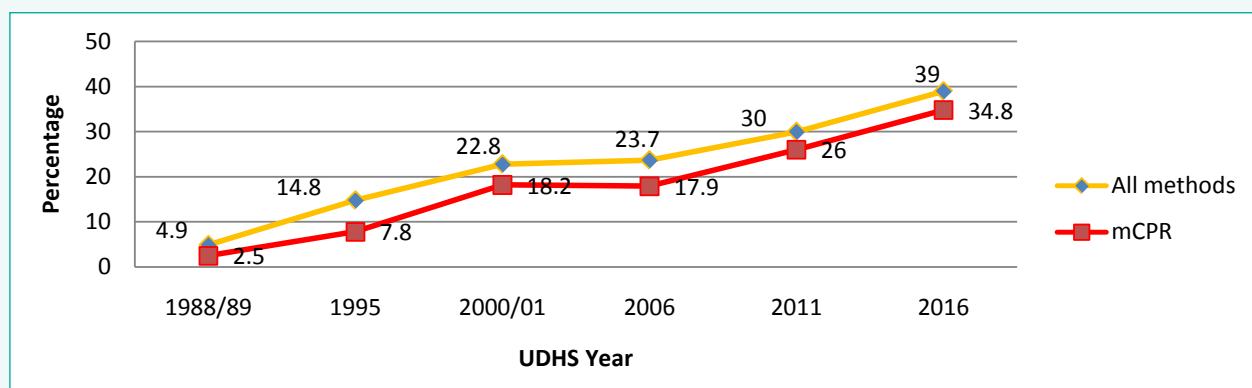
than urban (34 percent) want to limit child bearing. According to 2016 UDHS results, 32 percent of married women indicated that their last pregnancy were mistimed while 9 percent were not wanted.

### 7.4.1 Contraceptive use

The population of women 15 to 49 years in Uganda is estimated at 8 million, 71.9 percent (approximately 5.8 million) ever married (UBOS, 2014 Census). Marriage marks the onset of regular exposure to pregnancy and a proxy for determining fertility.

Contraceptive Prevalence Rate (CPR): In 2016, the CPR (for both traditional and modern methods) was 39 percent among currently married or cohabiting women age 15-49 years, with modern CPR at 35 percent as shown in Figure 7.2. The latter has been a slow increase from 18 percent in 2000 to 35 percent in 2016, a 1.06 percentage increase annually. Women want to delay or stop childbearing, yet many are not using contraception. High-quality contraceptive services are essential for enabling women and couples to have the number of children they want, when they want them, and for avoiding unintended pregnancies, unplanned births, and abortions and STIs, including HIV. Socio-demographic factors such as religion, age, marital status, educational levels and wealth determine use of contraception among women of reproductive age. The total demand for family planning services was 67 percent, approx. 3.9 million women in need of family planning services but only 1.37 million are currently using modern contraception (a summation of 39 percent CPR and 28 percent unmet need for FP) in 2016. Contraceptive use is lowest in Karamoja region at 7 percent and highest among women in Bugisu and Kigezi at 43 percent.

Figure 7.2: Contraceptive use among Married Women in Uganda - 1988/89 to 2016



Source: UBOS, 1988-89 to 2016 UDHS

Contraceptive use among married women is higher among women with 3 or more children. Current use is higher in urban areas (46 percent) than in rural areas (36.8 percent). Women with no education are less likely to use contraception (26 percent) as compared to women with secondary and above (more than 45 percent). Only 24.5 percent of women in the lowest quintile use contraception as compared to 48.8 percent in the highest quintile.

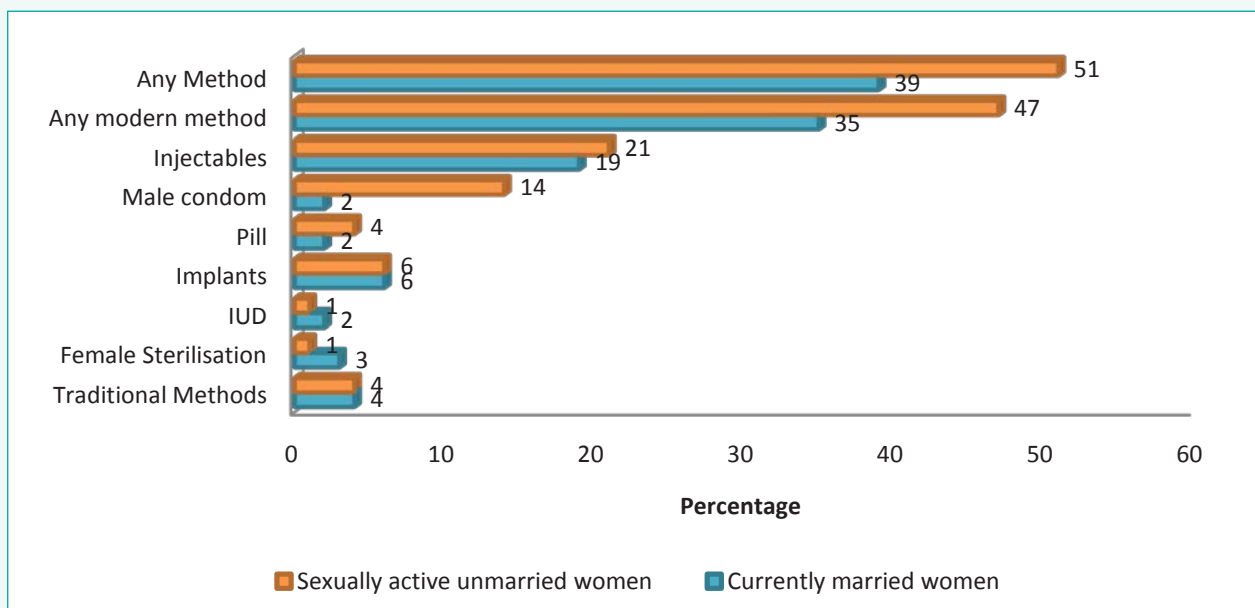
Knowledge of family planning is nearly universal at over 99 percent for both men and women, although utilization is still very low at 39 percent. Knowledge of the specific contraceptive methods is above 70 percent apart from the emergency contraception, 37.7 percent and 46.6 percent, and the standard day method (SDM) at 41.9 percent and 42.8 percent for women and men respectively.

Method Mix: Lack of access to a wide range of conception limits use of some methods especially long acting reversible contraceptives (LARCs) methods. Over 40 percent of women would like to space their children for at least two years. The most cost effective way would be the use of LARCs,



which includes Implant and Intra-Uterine Device (IUD). Whereas use of LARCs is increasing, lack of trained providers at facility level and lack of commodities especially at health centre IIs - which are closer to the people- still limit access to various types of contraception for women. Results from the Performance Monitoring and Accountability for FP2020 after six rounds of monitoring, (PMA, 2018,) indicates a substantial increase in use of implants and IUD. However, this increase is not substantial to have a major impact on TFR yet. Although most of the method mix is made up of short acting methods, including more than half that are injectable, LARCs and permanent methods (PMs) are very important methods and are growing in popularity. LARCs and PMs have many advantages, both for the user and for the health system. LARCs have a lower discontinuation rate than short acting methods – meaning that on average, women use the method for longer before switching methods. Once a woman has an implant or IUD inserted, she doesn't need to get another one or have it removed for up to 10 years. This means that she is more secure from stock-outs than women who use resupply methods like injectable or pills. LARCs and PMs require fewer visits to the health facility. Whereas a woman who obtains an implant needs to only visit once in three years, a woman, who uses injectable has to visit 12 times in that same time period. This puts a much higher drain on the health system over time, even if the initial cost of an implant or IUD in terms of staff time is higher than for one injection.

**Figure 7.3: Percentage of Women age 15-49 currently using a Contraceptive Method**



Source: UBOS, UDHS 2016

Most commonly used method of contraception among married women is injectable (19 percent) and implants (6 percent). Injectable is the main contraceptive supplied by NMS to public facilities.

**Discontinuation rate:** This refers to discontinuation of contraceptive use within twelve months. Nearly half, 45 percent of women discontinued use of contraception within 12 months. Discontinuation is more common in short acting methods compared to long acting methods like implant. The most common cause for discontinuation is health concerns or side effects reported by 35 percent of the users.

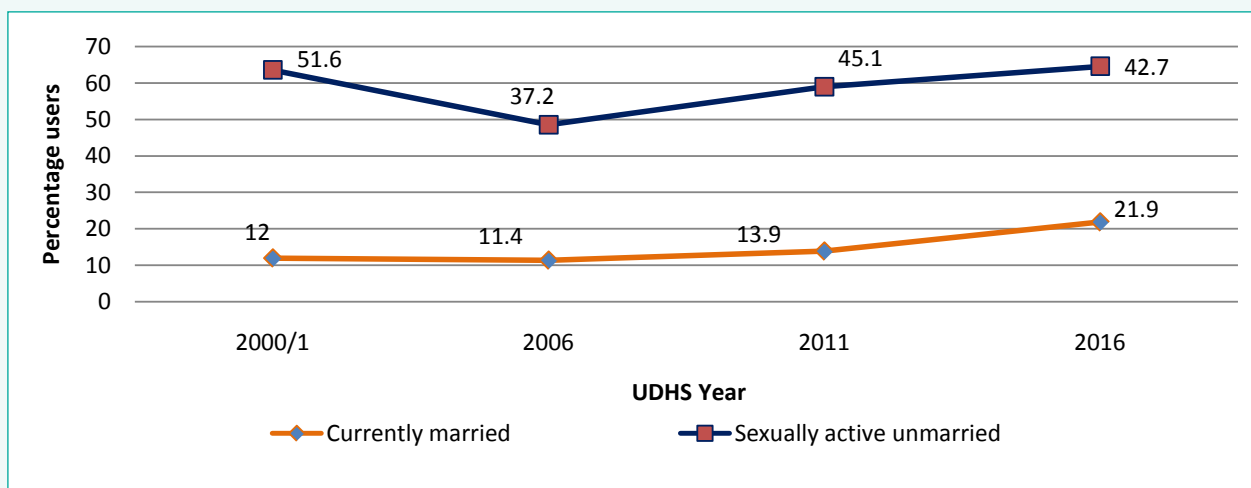
**Stock out of Commodities:** FP commodity security has been inconsistent since the last half of 2017 - with periodic stock outs of items such as pills, depo provera in both public and private clinics (PMA, 2018). This has been a major barrier and missed opportunity for family planning would be users. The continuous fear within the public that health facilities will not meet their desires has increased over

years with reported incidents of stock outs, which remain a hindrance to access to family planning services. Commodity stock outs in health facilities affects the community-based family planning services programme.

## 7.4.2 Contraceptive use among Young People aged 15 to 24 years

In Uganda, many young people are sexually active by the age of 17 years. This exposes them to the risk of getting pregnant at an early age especially due to late initiation of contraception at median age of 24 years i.e. after 7 years of exposure. Twenty-five percent (25%) of adolescent girls become pregnant before the age of 20 (UDHS, 2016) and Uganda has one of the highest rates of adolescent pregnancy in Sub-Saharan Africa. Cases of pregnancy for children below 15 years are common; however, this data is not captured in the UDHS. Teenage pregnancy contributes up to 28 percent of maternal deaths in Uganda. Lack of access by the sexually active adolescent girls to sexual and reproductive health information education and services, including contraception - is a major factor contributing to unplanned teenage pregnancy and maternal death and many suffer complications from pregnancy including obstetric fistulae. Only 21 percent of the currently married girls aged 15-19 years are using modern contraception with the unmet need for family planning at 30.4 percent. There is high level of sensitivity to adolescents' access to contraception despite the persistent high levels of teenage pregnancy.

Figure 7.4: Percentage Young People aged 15 - 19 using Contraception, 2000/1 to 2016



Source, UBOS, UDHS2016

## 7.4.3 Unmet need for Family Planning

Unmet need is the percentage of women who want to space or stop childbirth but are not using any contraception. Addressing unmet need for family planning is consistent with human rights, studies have shown that achievement of fertility decline would be achieved with fulfilling the needs of women who state the desire to postpone or avoid future childbirths (Cleland J et al, June 2014). The need for modern contraceptive services remains substantial in Uganda. With increased information and improved service delivery, the unmet need for FP in Uganda has been reducing slowly, currently estimated at 28 percent down from 41 percent in 2006. Pockets with limited access to contraceptive commodities still exist giving clients limited choice of methods of family planning. There are regional disparities in unmet need for FP. The West Nile region has the highest unmet need at 43% with Karamoja at 19%. Unmet need decreases with increasing wealth, from 37 percent among women in the lowest wealth quintile to 22 percent among women in the highest wealth quintile. Unmet need among married young people 15 to 19 years has not reduced over the last 5 years remaining at 30.4 percent and 31.3 percent in 2016 and 2011 respectively. The poorest and most vulnerable

women usually have least access to sexual reproductive health information and services, including contraception. Without access to contraception, poor women, particularly those less educated and live in rural areas are at heightened risk of unintended pregnancy. This results in greater health risks and at times lifelong repercussions for herself, her children and the community. Prominent reasons for unmet need in settings where contraceptive uptake is low include social resistance and insufficient information concerning methods. As contraceptive use increases, the importance of these reasons wanes, but concerns regarding side effects and health impact remain a barrier, and discontinued users now constitute a large proportion of those with unmet need.

The primary aim of FP programmes is to meet the demand for contraception and thereby reduce or eliminate unmet need. A well-organized family planning programme having substantial information, education and communication component can on average reduce unmet need by 10 percent and raise contraceptive use by 22 percent (Bongaarts). Retention of current users through provision of convenient, accessible and high quality services, offering a range of methods to facilitate switching when appropriate is a key strategy in reducing unmet need. Missed opportunities due to failure to integrate FP services in other health programmes also increase unmet need for FP.

#### 7.4.4 Family Planning Investment case for Uganda

In 2017, the MoH in partnership with the UNFPA, the National Population Council (NPC), Partners in Population and Development, Africa Regional Office (PPD-ARO) developed FP investment case using IMPACTNOW tool to demonstrate and illustrate the potential impact benefits of investing in family planning. The model demonstrated the benefits of family planning i.e. Family planning protects women from unintended pregnancies and unsafe abortion; Family planning saves mothers' lives; Family planning is cost effective and saves money.

**Table 27: Projected FP users its impact in various SRH/FP variables by 2020**

Years	Projected FP users	Expected No unintended pregnancies averted	Expected No. of abortions averted	Expected Maternal death averted
2018	2,631, 512	766,811	237,712	1,555
2019	2,978, 831	882,378	273,437	1,632
2020	3,347, 536	1,049,241	325,265	1,754

Source: Extract from the Family Planning Investment case for Uganda, 2017

Currently an estimated 3.9 million women are in need of family planning services but only 1.37 million are estimated to be using modern contraception. This is a major gap between the projected users and its implications on reproductive health. If the right investments are made to meet the needs of the projected users, then Uganda would be on course for achieving the FP2020 goals and impacting on the population structure to create a youth bulge.

#### 7.4.5 Investing in Family Planning for achieving the Demographic Dividend.

Family Planning is a key pillar in accelerating the demographic transition. The high child dependency burden is a major barrier to Uganda's social transformation and development. A large family size makes it difficult for individuals, families, communities and Government as a whole to make the required investments in education, health and socio-economic reforms needed to develop a high quality human capital. Family planning is one of the major pillars that would drive the demographic transition required to reduce the broad based population age structure. However, if the current

trends of declining fertility and mortality are accelerated, the population age structure will transform from being broad based to one with a bulge in the working-age population providing an opportunity for harnessing the Demographic Dividend (DD). This can be achieved by ensuring zero unmet need for family planning and ensuring women have access to a range of commodities to allow for method mix. Voluntary family planning plays a key role in meeting fertility desires of individuals and couples thereby reducing fertility levels nationally therefore shaping the country's demographic path and freeing savings for further investments in health and other development sectors.

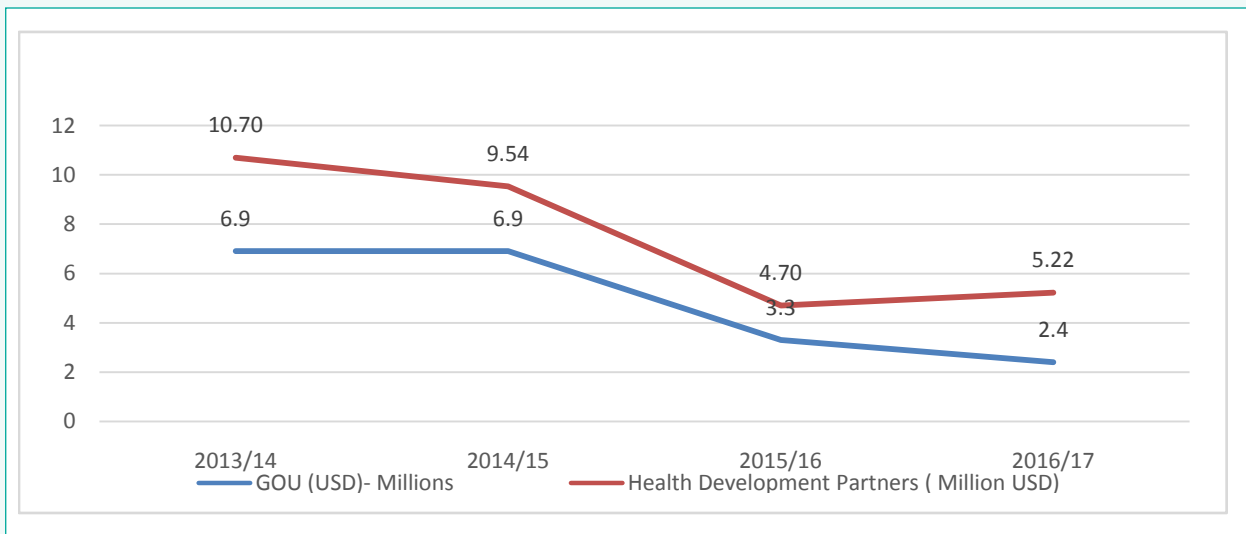
The recent remodeling of the the demographic dividend (2018, NPAc) indicated that if Uganda is to remain on course in achieving a middle income country, in addition to all pillars working in tandem (education, health, job creation, good governance) there is need for the country to increase the CPR to at least 67 percent to have impact on the population structure. This is when the country will build a youth bulge that is required, if well invested, to harness the demographic dividend.

## 7.5 Family Planning Financing and Investment.

This is one of the six health systems building blocks defined by WHO. A good health financing system raises adequate funds for health, in ways that ensure people can use needed services, and are protected from financial catastrophe or impoverishment associated with having to pay for them. It provides incentives for providers and users to be efficient provide services on time, reliably, in sufficient quantity and at reasonable cost and to those who need them. However, evidence has shown that for FP interventions to be effective, financial support and efforts must be dedicated to providing a holistic, rights-based FP programme that includes demand generation efforts; improvement in the quality of service provision; supply chain improvements; strong policies and financing; and coordinated planning, management, and supervision at the national and decentralised levels (Zlatunich N, Couture T, 2015).

The Government of Uganda made its FP2020 commitments at the 2012 London Summit on Family Planning to increase the country's financial investment in family planning, and strengthen service delivery by increasing the Government allocation for family planning supplies from US\$ 3.3 million per year (in 2012) to US\$ 5 million per year for the next 5 years and to mobilize an additional US\$ 5 million from donors. This commitment was renewed in 2017 in line with the country's Costed Implementation Plan for Family Planning (CIP FP), 2015 – 2020. The Government was unequivocal in her support to FP and made the following committed to leverage, annually, US\$ 20 million from its development partners, the domestic and international private sectors including philanthropies to bridge the funding gap and allocate US\$ 5 million annually for procurement and distribution of RH/FP supplies and commodities to the last mile.

In FY 2013/14 - 2014/15, the Government allocation to family planning supplies increased and was maintained at USD6.9 million meeting Government domestic financial commitment. However, the subsequent financial years FY 2015/2016 and FY 2016/2017 (refer to Figure 7.5) reduced to USD3.3 and US\$ 2.4 million respectively. A similar trend of decline in Reproductive Health Commodity (RHC) financing from development partners, mostly UNFPA and USAID, remaining far below the expected annual target of \$20 million.

**Figure 7.5: Trend Analysis on RHC Financing from Fy 2013/14 – 2016/17**

Source: Annual RH Budget Tracking Reports, UNFPA RH Interchange

The current budget expenditure on health has been slightly above 7 percent for the last five years. While health expenditure per capita is much, lower than the WHO of US\$ 84 if quality of care is to be provided by any country in Sub-Saharan Africa. The health expenditure per capita is US\$ 51 in 2015/16 reducing from US\$ 56 in 2014/15 and out of pocket expenditure increased from 33 percent to 37 percent in the same period (MoH, NHA). The out of pocket expenditure of Ushs. 147,869 has major implications for FP access since 95 percent of expenditure is on curative services. The possibility of households spending on family planning are very minimal since it may not be considered an emergency or life threatening. The reproductive health budget expenditure caters for 55 percent maternal conditions, perinatal – 35 percent and contraception is only 5 percent. While family planning is only 0.9 percent of the total health budget.

Uganda faces challenges in domestic resource mobilisation and the national expenditure is mainly driven by investment in infrastructure (roads and energy), making sectors such as health especially family planning to remain heavily reliant on external funding. Even with this funding situation, the Government policy is to provide free healthcare services, including family planning, through the public health system as one way of increasing access and uptake of the services. Contraceptive commodity security promotes the idea that every person should be able to choose, obtain, and use quality contraceptives and/or other reproductive health (RH) products every time he or she desires.

## 7.6 Family Planning and Good Governance for Sustainable Development.

WHO in the context of the health system building blocks addresses leadership and governance (stewardship) as one of the six pillars others being service delivery; health workforce; information; medical products, vaccines and technologies and financing. All are needed to improve outcomes. Leadership and governance involves ensuring strategic policy frameworks exist and are combined with effective oversight, coalition building, regulation, attention to system-design and accountability. Throughout the world, countries try to protect the health of their citizens. They may be more or less successful, and more or less committed, but the tendency is one of trying to make progress, to broaden the range of benefits (programmes, interventions, goods, services) to which their citizens are entitled; extend access to family planning commodities and services to wider population groups

including the marginalized and hard to reach persons, and reaching the last mile, and provide the people with social protection against financial and social consequences of taking up health care: of particular heavy expenditure and poverty.

It is about the role of the Government in health and its relation to other actors whose activities impact on health. This involves overseeing and guiding the whole health system, private as well as public, in order to protect the public interest. It requires both political and technical action, because it involves reconciling competing demands for limited resources, in changing circumstances, for example, with rising expectations, more pluralistic societies, decentralization or a growing private sector. There is increased attention to corruption, and calls for a more human rights based approach to health.

Policy environment: In line with the global commitments, Uganda has put in place an enabling policy environment to address issues of family planning coverage, access and equity. This has contributed to improvement in many family planning and related indicators including the increased CPR, reduced unmet need for family planning, slow but declining fertility levels. The policies have also addressed access to services without discrimination, coercion and violence. This enables women and couples to make informed choices about their reproduction.

The current commodity distribution mechanism through public health facilities complimented by the alternative distribution mechanism to the private not for profit health facilities ensures that services reach a wide section of the population. However, it is worthy noting from the available evidence that limitations in the range of contraceptives still exist whereby, 80 percent and 55.5 percent of both public and private health facilities offer 3 or 5 contraceptive methods respectively. This limits choice of methods and at times missed opportunities especially if women and couples do not find their preferred methods. The role of private sector and civil society in ensuring a method mix reaching the last mile cannot be over emphasized. Therefore the Family Planning consortium with 6 member organizations plays a critical role and should be strengthened.

Intelligence and oversight: Evidence generation to inform policy is a critical area in improving service access, coverage, safety, health outcomes. Such evidence is crucial in identifying areas that are deprived of services, those left behind due to socioeconomic and cultural barriers. The recent UDHS 2016, the PMA, FP resource tracking reports all provide variable information for programming, advocacy, FP financing. In addition the health management information system has been built over time and captures data on FP use by method. However, major gaps still exist in building a robust administrative system that provides quality data for day-to-day planning, FP commodity quantification and distribution.

## 7.7 Conclusion

Inequalities persist and hinder access to affordable FP services especially in rural areas. There is a need to address inequalities in access and affordability of FP in the quest to reduce unmet need for FP and reach the last mile with FP services. Supply of method mix both in private and public Service Delivery Point (SDPs) is key.

Call for leadership in coordination of the FP programmes by the MoH and UFPC to reduce FP commodity stock-outs by addressing supply chain challenges while strengthening the alternative distribution of commodities if we are to reach the last mile. In addition, work on commodity redistribution to reduce stock-outs at SDPs.

If the country is to reduce teenage pregnancy the focus should go beyond the 15-19 years age

bracket to girls below 15 years providing them with appropriate sexuality and reproductive health information and services to enable them make informed choices, stay in school and ensure they acquire skills to propel them to the labour market.

## 7.8 Policy Recommendations

1. Support Government to honor its commitments that domestic financing is available to meet the family planning needs. Need for continued advocacy to high-level decision-makers on prioritization of funding for the FP program to facilitate demographic transition and subsequently reaping of the demographic dividend.
2. Diversify and expand the funding allocation for FP services and establish systems for tracking FP resources up to the last mile, and ensure that resources are used for the intended purpose.
3. Expand the provision of FP services, especially for long acting and reversible and permanent methods. These commitments will contribute to Uganda's ambitious goal to reduce unmet need for family planning to 10% and increase the modern contraceptive prevalence rate to 50% by 2020; Expand the range of contraceptives that are procured using the RH commodities budget line by NMS, which should cover both the most preferred short-term and long-term methods.
4. Advocate for task sharing across the Health Sector including for family planning. This will require developing regulations to provide for task sharing, issue standing orders on task sharing under section 37 of the Health Service Commission Act and amend health recruitment guidelines and job descriptions; create a comprehensive legal and regulatory framework permitting health workers to perform shifted tasks, accreditation, and quality assurance and protecting the rights of clients, among others. This will reduce on family planning missed opportunities especially for LARCs.
5. Operationalize the National Adolescent Health Policy and the National Sexuality Education Framework once passed.
6. Continuous evidence generation for policy and decision-making, and engagement of religious, political, and cultural leaders to appreciate the magnitude of adolescent health challenges.
7. Undertake robust surveys and operational researches to inform policy that can improve service delivery to reach every woman, girl and men who need the information and services.
8. Address data quality issues to improve quantification of commodities by districts and service delivery points.



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# APPENDICES

## Appendix 1: Distribution and Characteristics of Young People

Parameter		Male		Female		Total	%
		Number		Number		Number	
		('000)	%	('000)	percent	('000)	
Household Head	Characteristics	1,147	29.8	218	4.7	1,366	16.1
Age	15–19	1,746	45.3	1,765	37.9	3,511	41.3
	20–24	1,176	30.5	1,592	34.2	2,767	32.5
	25–29	931	24.2	1,297	27.9	2,228	26.2
Residence	Urban	967	25.1	1,401	30.1	2,368	27.8
	Rural	2,886	74.9	3,253	69.9	6,139	72.2
Region	Central	996	25.9	1,419	30.5	2,416	28.4
	Eastern	998	25.9	1,141	24.5	2,138	25.1
	Northern	1,106	28.7	1,259	27.1	2,366	27.8
	Western	752	19.5	835	17.9	1,587	18.7
Marital status	Single / Never married	2,737	71	2,209	47.5	4,946	58.2
	Married	1,089	28.3	2,257	48.5	3,346	39.4
	Separated / Divorced	26	0.7	172	3.7	198	2.3
	Widowed	0	0.0	13	0.3	13	0.2
Current schooling status	Never went to school	163	4.2	357	7.7	520	6.1
	Left before graduation	1,802	46.8	2,553	54.9	4,355	51.2
	Completed school	343	8.9	457	9.8	801	9.4
	Currently attending school	1,544	40.1	1,286	27.6	2,831	33.3
Educational attainment**	No education	163	7.1	357	10.6	520	9.2
	Incomplete Primary	1,024	44.4	1,484	44.2	2,508	44.2
	Primary	552	23.9	824	24.5	1,375	24.3
	Secondary	374	16.2	449	13.4	823	14.5
	Vocational	108	4.7	143	4.3	252	4.4
	Tertiary	87	3.8	104	3.1	191	3.4
Uganda ('000)		3,853	100	4,654	100	8,507	100

Source: UBOS – SWT survey (2016)

## Appendix 2: Median Wages from Main Job in Nominal Terms (Wage Employees)

Location/ Residence	2012/13			2016/17		
	Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All
Uganda	154,000	88,000	120,000	220,000	110,000	168,000
<b>Residence</b>						
Rural	110,000	66,000	88,000	150,000	88,000	120,000
Urban	220,000	150,000	200,000	300,000	150,000	220,000
<b>Regions</b>						
Kampala	330,000	200,000	250,000	400,000	200,000	300,000
Central	200,000	120,000	160,000	250,000	120,000	220,000
Eastern	110,000	66,000	88,000	154,000	110,000	150,000
Northern	121,000	60,000	88,000	160,000	80,000	130,000
Western	110,000	88,000	100,000	150,000	88,000	110,000
<b>Place of work</b>						

Location/ Residence	2012/13			2016/17		
	Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All
Public	344,000	300,000	324,000	460,000	450,000	457,500
Private	120,000	77,000	110,000	200,000	100,000	150,000

Source: UBOS – UNHS (2016/17)

### Appendix 3: Employment Characteristics of Young People by Sex (%)

Economic Activity	2013					2015				
	Male	Female	Rural	Urban	Total	Male	Female	Rural	Urban	Total
Employed	65.2	61.1	65.4	56.4	63.1	69.1	60.8	66.2	60.1	64.5
Strict framework <sup>1</sup>										
Unemployed	2.9	3.7	2.8	4.7	3.3	4.1	4.9	3.7	6.6	4.5
Unemployed non-students	2.5	3.5	2.8	3.7	3.0	2.6	4.3	2.9	5.1	3.5
Inactive	31.9	35.2	31.8	38.9	33.6	26.5	33.8	29.6	32.9	30.5
Relaxed framework <sup>2</sup>										
Unemployed	6.2	12.9	8.4	13.5	9.7	11.3	17.5	12.9	19.4	14.7
Unemployed non-students	4.6	10.3	6.5	10.5	7.6	5.2	12.5	8.3	11.7	9.2
Inactive	28.5	26.0	26.2	30.1	27.2	19.4	21.2	20.4	20.2	20.4
All	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

<sup>1</sup>Refers to individuals not working at all, actively looking for work and are available for work

<sup>2</sup>Refers to individuals not working at all and are available for work

Source: UBOS – SWT survey (2016)

### Appendix 4: Employed Young Persons by Status in Employment and Background Characteristics (%)

Characteristics	Employees	Employers	Vulnerable Employment			Total Self Employment	Total
			Own account workers	Contributing family workers	Others		
1. Residence							
Rural	17.0	3.5	46.4	32.9	0.3	83.0	100
Urban	47.5	5.1	33.7	12.9	0.8	52.5	100
2. Region							
Central	41.1	6.4	32.6	19.5	0.4	58.9	100
Eastern	16.1	3.0	52.8	28.1	0.0	83.9	100
Northern	14.7	1.6	40.1	43.0	0.6	85.3	100
Western	26.2	4.7	50.3	18.2	0.5	73.8	100
3. Sex							
Male	32.4	5.1	36.3	26.0	0.2	67.6	100
Female	17.8	2.8	49.5	29.4	0.5	82.2	100
4. Educational Attainment							
No Education	7.2	0.8	46.0	45.3	0.7	92.8	100
Incomplete Primary	23.0	3.3	53.8	19.7	0.2	77.0	100
Primary	21.1	5.2	55.6	17.8	0.3	78.9	100
Secondary	40.0	8.2	39.3	12.0	0.5	60.0	100
Vocational	57.6	5.3	33.5	3.6	0.0	42.4	100
Tertiary	56.5	9.4	24.5	9.6	0.0	43.5	100

Characteristics	Employees	Employers	Vulnerable Employment			Total Self Employment	Total
			Own account workers	Contributing family workers	Others		
All	24.9	3.9	43.1	27.7	0.4	75.1	100
Total number ('000)	1,365	216	2,366	1,521	21	4,125	5,490

Source: UBOS – SWT survey (2016).

## Appendix 5: Labour Underutilization of Young People

Variables	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	Total
Unemployment (% of youth population)	4.1	4.9	6.6	3.7	4.5
Time related underemployment (% of working youth)	15.1	18.5	13.0	18.2	16.8
Marginally attached to labour force (% of youth population)	7.2	12.7	12.8	9.2	10.2
Labour slack (% of youth population)	21.7	28.7	27.2	24.9	25.6
Total Labour slack number, '000	836	1,338	643	1,531	2,174
Skill related under-employment (% of working youth)	3.9	3.8	8.1	2.3	3.8
Low pay related under-employment (% of working persons)	8.7	7.8	14.3	6.1	8.2
Low pay related under employment (% of working persons in paid employment)	26.9	43.7	30.1	36.0	33.1
Labour underutilization (% of youth population)	30.4	35.8	40.6	30.5	33.3
Total labour underutilization number, '000	1,171	1,664	962	1,873	2,835

*Marginally attached: Not actively looking for work, but available for work. Time related: National indicator is 40 hours (the person should have wanted or sought to work additional hours). Low pay related: Two-third of the median wage of young people in full time payment was Shs. 133,000. (i.e. below which is low pay).*

Source: UBOS – SWT survey (2016)

## Appendix 6: Unemployment Rates for Young People, %

Characteristics	Strict definition of unemployment		Relaxed definition of unemployment
	2013	2015	2015
<b>Sex</b>			
Male	4.2	5.5	14.0
Female	5.7	7.4	22.4
<b>Residence</b>			
Rural	4.1	5.3	16.3
Urban	7.6	9.9	24.4
<b>Age group</b>			
15-19	4.0	7.4	24.6
20-24	5.4	7.7	18.4
25-29	5.5	4.4	12.5
<b>Education</b>			
None	9.9	3.6	7.4
Incomplete Primary	-	4.8	14.9
Primary	3.7	6.4	16.2
Secondary	7.4	9.5	17.7
Vocational	-	10.1	14.2
Tertiary	8.6	11.8	14.8
Total	5.0	6.5	18.6

Source: UBOS – SWT survey

## Appendix 7: Primary and Secondary School Enrolment Rates

Location	GER			NER		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Primary Enrolment						
Uganda	117.7	115.9	116.8	78.7	80.3	79.5 (0.99)
Urban	112.7	114.8	113.8	84.8	85.7	85.3 (1.05)
Rural	119.1	116.2	117.7	77.0	78.8	77.9 (0.97)
Sub-region with lowest enrolment rates (< 50%)						
Karamoja	62.0	49.5	55.6	37.4	33.7	35.5 (0.84)
PRDP districts						
Sporadically affected	132.9	125.6	129.3	80.8	79.8	80.3 (0.90)
Severely affected	106.9	97.9	102.1	63.8	63.0	63.4 (1.03)
Spillovers	135.7	126.9	131.2	84.4	85.7	85.1 (0.97)
Rest of the Country	111.2	113.8	112.5	78.9	81.9	80.4 (1.02)
Mountainous areas						
Mountainous	120.5	106.4	112.9	75.6	79.1	77.5 (1.05)
Non-mountainous	117.5	116.8	117.2	78.9	80.5	79.7 (0.99)
Secondary Enrolment						
Uganda	38.7	37.1	37.9	26.7	29.0	27.8 (0.95)
Urban	61.3	52.5	56.6	46.1	42.3	44.1 (0.97)
Rural	32.5	32.0	32.3	21.3	24.6	22.9 (0.94)
Lowest enrolment rates (< 20%)						
Karamoja	19.4	14.9	17.5	13.8	5.1	10.1 (0.58)
West Nile	18.8	15.1	17.1	11.6	9.5	10.6 (0.69)
Acholi	31.1	17.9	24.5	18.0	13.8	15.9 (0.57)
Lango	28.1	22.9	25.6	16.4	15.5	16.0 (0.77)
Bukedi	35.1	24.8	30.0	21.0	15.3	18.2 (0.68)
PRDP districts						
Sporadically affected	23.8	19.1	21.5	14.1	13.8	14.0 (0.74)
Severely affected	28.0	19.7	24.1	18.2	11.4	15.0 (0.63)
Spillovers	34.4	38.0	36.1	19.5	25.5	22.4 (1.04)
Rest of the Country	45.5	43.5	44.5	33.2	35.8	34.5 (0.99)
Mountainous areas						
Mountainous	39.4	43.0	41.0	25.6	30.0	27.6 (0.85)
Non-mountainous	38.7	36.7	37.7	26.8	28.9	27.8 (0.96)

Source: Compiled using UBOS – UNHS (2016/17). Figures in parentheses are GPI

## Appendix 8: Reasons for Leaving School for Young People aged 6-24 years

Reasons	Girls (%)	Boys (%)
Not affordable (expensive)	33.5	35.1
Lack of funding	31.1	32.5
Lack of interest by pupil	8.3	8.7
Completed desired level	5.5	5.8
Parental decision	4.7	4.9
Sickness or calamity in family	4.7	4.9
Pregnancy	4.4	-
Had to help home/farm	2.3	2.4



Reasons	Girls (%)	Boys (%)
Poor academic progress	2.8	2.9
Poor school quality	-	0.0
Others	2.7	2.8

Source: Compiled using UBOS – UNHS (2016/17)

## Appendix 9: GGS – Country Score Card for Uganda

Parameter	Uganda				Kenya				Tanzania			
	Score	Rank	Female	Male	Score	Rank	Female	Male	Score	Rank	Female	Male
<b>A. Economic participation and opportunity</b>	0.693	59	-	-	0.720	44	-	-	0.674	69	-	-
A.1 Labour force participation	0.946	15	83.6	88.4	0.865	52	62.9	72.7	0.897	32	75.3	84.0
A2. Wage equality for similar work	0.774	15	-	-	0.679	47	-	-	0.644	69	-	-
A3. Earned income (PPP, US\$)	0.598	78	1,386	2,317	0.646	57	2,480	3,840	0.720	25	2,337	3,247
A4. Legislators, senior officials & managers	0.339	89	25.3	74.7	-	-	-	-	0.303	93	23.3	76.7
A5. Professional & technical workers	0.678	100	40.4	59.6	-	-	-	-	0.755	95	43.0	57.0
<b>B. Educational attainment</b>	0.913	124	-	-	0.929	120	-	-	0.910	125	-	-
B1. Literacy rate	0.783	117	62.0	79.1	0.883	104	74.0	83.8	0.878	106	73.1	83.2
B2. Enrolment in primary education	1.00	1	95.1	92.2	1.00	1	86.6	83.2	1.00	1	80.7	79.5
B3. Enrolment in secondary education	0.917	127	21.3	23.2	0.942	123	49.0	52.0	0.967	115	47.7	52.3
B4. Enrolment in tertiary education	0.776	110	4.2	5.4	0.703	120	3.3	4.8	0.511	128	2.5	4.9
<b>C. Health &amp; survival</b>	0.973	88	-	-	0.980	1	-	-	0.976	62	-	-
C1. Sex ratio at birth	0.944	1	-	-	0.944	1	-	-	0.944	1	-	-
C2. Healthy life expectancy	1.037	97	55.0	53.0	1.060	1	57.4	53.9	1.049	72	55.5	52.9
<b>D. Political empowerment</b>	0.305	30			0.147	83			0.239	44	-	-
D1. Women in parliament	0.522	31	34.3	65.7	0.241	84	19.4	80.6	0.572	24	36.4	63.6
D2. Women in ministerial positions	0.579	18	36.7	63.3	0.294	53	22.7	77.3	0.250	68	20.0	80.0
D3. Years with female head of state (last 50)	0.000	69	0.0	50.0	0.000	69	0.0	50.0	0.000	69	0.0	50.0

Source: World Economic Forum (2017). Rank is out of 144 countries; score lies between 0 and 1; 0=imparity and 1=parity

## Appendix 10: Uganda: Demographic, Health, Social and Economic Development Indicators from 2001/02 – 2016/17

Key Indicators and Reporting Period	2001/2	2005/06	2011/12	2016/17
<b>A: Demographic Indicators</b>				
Total Population (millions)	24.4	26.7	31.8	39.9
Annual Population Growth rate (%)	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.0
Total Fertility rate (Children per woman aged 15-49 years)	6.9	6.7	6.2	5.4
Total Urban Population (%)	13.0	15.0	-	18.4
Average Household Size (person per household)	4.8	-	-	4.7
Dependency Ratio (Burden)	110	-	-	103
<b>B: Health Indicators</b>				
Infant mortality rate per 1,000 live births	88	76	54	43
Under five mortality rate per 1,000 live births	152	137	90	64
Maternal mortality ratio per 100,000 live birth	505	435	438	336
Contraceptive Prevalence Rate (%)	22.8	23.7	30	39
HIV Prevalence rate (%)	6.4	6.4	7.3	6.8
Percentage of births delivered by a skilled provider (%)	39	41	59	74
<b>C: Social Indicators</b>				
Literacy rate (aged 10 Years and above) (%)	-	70	69	72
Pupil - teacher ratio (Primary School)	53	57	49	43
Pupil - classroom ratio (Primary School)	87	72	58	54
Student - teacher ratio (Secondary School)	53	57	49	19
Student - classroom ratio ( Secondary School)	-	-	50	51
Primary Completion rate (%)	-	-	67	62
Primary Completion rate (%)	Boys	-	68	60
	Girls	-	66	63
<b>D: Economic Indicators</b>				
GINI Coefficient (Inequality measure in household consumption)	0.428	0.408	0.426	0.493
Urban Unemployment rate (%)	12.2	6.9	9.5	-
GDP per Capita (US \$)	280	370	533	670
Labour Underutilization rate (%)	-	-	-	20
<b>E: Human Development Indicators</b>				
Human development index	0.488	0.581	0.422	0.493
Life Expectancy AT Birth (year)	50.4	-	-	63.3
Percentage of population below the poverty line (%)	31.1	24.5	19.7	21.7
<b>F: Environmental Sustainability Indicators</b>				
Household with access to improved toilet facilities (%)	83.8	88	88	92
Household with access to safe drinking water (%)	62.6	67.6	73.8	71
Land Covered by Tropical High Forest (%)	21.3	18.3	-	-
Land covered by Wetlands (%)	-	-	-	-
<b>G: Gender Development Indicators</b>				
Gender Empowerment Index	0.549	0.583	-	.522
Female Adult literacy rate (%)	59	58	61.0	68.0
Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector (%)	-	37	43.7	35.3
<b>H: Leading Causes of Morbidity and Mortality</b>				
Malaria (%)	-	-	36.2	35.1
Cough and Cold (%)	-	-	19.3	24.5
Intestinal Worms (%)	-	-	5.2	5.6



Acute Diarrhoea (%)	-	-	3.0	3.5
<b>I: Maternal Morbidity and Mortality</b>				
Haemorrhage (%)	-	-	31.5	39
Postpartum Sepsis (%)	-	-	18.0	20
Obstructed Labour and Urine Rapture (%)	-	-	17.3	9
Complication of Unsafe Abortion (%)	-	-	15.0	9
Pre-Eclampsia and Eclampsia (%)	-	-	10.8	9
<b>J: Under 5 Mortality by cause of Ailment</b>				
Malaria (%)	-	-	-	42.8
Anaemia (%)	-	-	-	10.6
Pneumonia (%)	-	-	-	11.2
<b>K: Financing of Major Sectors by Government as Percent of GDP</b>				
	<b>2005/06</b>	<b>2010/11</b>	<b>2014/15</b>	<b>2016/17</b>
Education and Sports (%)	17.4	16.4	16.4	10.4
Health (%)	8.3	6.4	6.4	5.1
Water and Environment (%)	3.8	3.4	3.4	3.1
Agriculture (%)	4.2	3.4	3.4	3.7
Works and Transport (%)	16.1	20.6	20.6	24.3
Energy and Mineral Development (%)	14.5	14.5	14.5	13.2

Source: Statistical Abstract 2012, UDHS 2000/01, 2005/06, 2011, 2002 Population and Housing Census Main Report (2005), 1991 Population and Housing Census, Analytical Reports (1995), Volumes I, II and III, Background to the Budget FY 2012/2013 and Human Development Report 2010, Uganda AIDS Indicator Survey Report 2011. \* Figure computed from 1995 and 2012 mid-year population projections.

## Appendix 11: Selected Demographic Indicators Reflecting Improved Performance in the Implementation of the National Population Policy and Programmes

Key Indicator /Level of Indicators	1991	2002	2014			
Population Growth rate	2.5	3.2	3.03			
Population under 15 years (%)	48.5	49.3	47.9			
Dependency ratio	103	110	103			
Average Household Size	4.8	4.7	4.7			
Key Indicator	1988/89	1995	2000/01	2005/06	2010/11	2015/16
Total Fertility rate	7.4	6.9	6.9	6.7	6.2	5.4
Infant Mortality rate	122	95	88	76	54	43
Under 5 Mortality rate	205	147	152	137	93	64
Contraceptive Prevalence rate (%)	4.8	14.8	22.8	23.7	30	39
Unmet need for Family Planning (5)	43	25	35	41	34	28

Source: Uganda Demographic Health Survey Reports (1988/89, 1995, 2000/01, 2005/06, 2010/11 AND 2015/16 and National Population and Housing Census Reports (1991, 2002 and 2014)



## Appendix 12: Tracking Progress of Implementation in attainment of ICPD – PoA and AADPD in Uganda from 1995 - 2018

Key Indicators	1995 (Baseline)	2002 (ICPD+5)	2006 (ICPD+15)	2012 (ICPD+20)	2018 (ICPD+25)	Performance Status
<b>Mortality</b>						
Infant Mortality	95	88	76	54	43	
Under 5 Mortality	147	152	137	90	64	
Maternal Mortality	506	505	435	438	336	
Life Expectancy at birth (years)	48.1	50.4	48.8	60.8	63.3	
<b>Education</b>						
Gross Primary Enrolment (%)	-	125	117	126	126	
Gross Secondary Enrolment (%)	-	34	35	-	-	
Literacy Rate above 15 years (%)	54	69.6	-	-	72.7	
Percent Illiterate (>15 years)	46	30.4	-	-	28	
<b>Reproductive Health</b>						
Contraceptive Prevalence rate (%)	15	23	24	30	39	
Unmet Need for FP (%)	25	35	41	34	28	
Teenage Pregnancy rate (%)	43	31	25	24	25	
Full Immunization (%)	47	37	46	52	55	
Stunted Children (%)	-	23	20	14	29	
Supervised Deliveries (%)	15	39	42	59	74	
Delivery in Health Facility (%)	-	37	42	57	73	
Ante Natal Care (%)	-	42	47	48	60	
HIV Prevalence rate (%)	-	6.4	6.7	7.4	6.4	

Source: UBOS Statistical Abstract 2001, 2006, 2012 and 2017, UDHS 1989, 1995, 2001 and 2011, UNHS 2003, 2006, 2012 and 2017, Population and Housing Census Main Report (1991, 2002 and 2016) and National (Uganda) Sero Prevalence Survey reports.



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