

**Annotated Bibliography:
Poverty and Chronic Poverty
in Uganda.**

**Isaac Shinyekwa
with
Chris Taylor**

**CPRC Annotated Bibliographies
No 1**

July 2003

**Chronic Poverty Research Centre
ISBN Number 1-904049-33-8**

Isaac Shinyekwa is a Research Assistant employed on the Remote Rural Areas component of the Chronic Poverty Research Centre. He is based at the Economic Policy Research Center at Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda. Chris Taylor is Projects Administrator at the Poverty and Public Policy Group, Overseas Development Institute, UK.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgements	1
Education.....	2
Health	4
National debt and poverty	6
Poverty in policy perspective	7
Measuring and characterising poverty	14
Poverty trends in Uganda	35
Poverty in institutional and governance context	39
Gender aspects of poverty	48
Credit Accessibility	49
Violence and conflict	50
Service delivery	54
Infrastructure	58
Constraints to rural development	59
AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda.....	62
Miscellaneous.....	72
AUTHOR’S INDEX	iii

Acknowledgements

The production of this bibliography was funded by the Remote Rural Areas component of the Chronic Poverty Research Centre (www.chronicpoverty.org).

Thanks to a number of organisations in Uganda who provided grey literature and access to their libraries to enable us to complete this work. Thanks also to Kate Bird (ODI), Nambusi Kyegombe (ODI) and Karen Moore (IDPM) for their comments and inputs to an earlier draft.

Education

Appleton, S. (2002) 'Education, incomes and poverty in Uganda in the 1990s' CREDIT Research Paper no. 01/22. Nottingham, UK: Centre for Research in Economic Development and International Trade.

<http://www.nottingham.ac.uk/economics/credit/research/papers/CP.01.22.pdf>

Educated households in Uganda achieve better growth in living standards

Looks at the relationship between poverty and education in Uganda in the 1990s. It shows how growth in living standards and poverty reduction during that period was fastest for more educated households. Income growth at the household level is disaggregated into earnings growth from three kinds of activity: farming, non-agricultural self-employment and wage employment. The direct productivity effects of education on earnings from each income source are estimated and found to have increased over time. The role of education in determining access to different sources of income is also assessed

CDRN (1999) 'Causes and Effects of Dropping out and Non-school Attendance of Schools Age Girls and Boys (6-18 years) in Masindi District'. Kampala, Uganda: Community Development Resource Network.

The study aimed at establishing the causes and effects of dropping out of school and non-attendance of school age girls and boys in Masindi District. Results show a higher dropout rate in the higher primary classes, a higher dropout rate and non-attendance among girls than boys, higher dropout rates among certain ethnic groups, and higher dropout rates in isolated communities, especially among the young children and children with disability. The study characterises the causes of dropout as pull and push factors. The pull factors include financial constraints which force children to engage in income earning activities, illiteracy in the community, resulting from the perceived low value of formal education, the low status of girls and their mothers in society, environmental factors (peer pressure, video shows and discos) and the nomadic lifestyle of some groups, resulting in inability of children to stay at school. Among the push factors are inadequate school infrastructure and scholastic materials, bullying by the older children, poor motivation of teachers, corporal punishment and 'inappropriate' curriculum. The effects identified by the participants included crime in general, idleness, prostitution, involvement in petty trade, and undermining formal education and the girl child status.

CDRN (1998) 'Final Report on Basic Education in Urban Poverty Areas'. Kampala, Uganda: Community Development Resource Network.

The study was carried out in three Parishes in Kampala City. The study aimed at producing tangible evidence of the problems, potentials, needs and interests of children who have dropped out of schools and those who have never gone to school at all. Many private schools

had been initiated in the area although they provided very sub-standard services. Sometimes halls that serve purposes like video shows and other social functions are rented to provide classrooms. The schools lack desks and scholastic materials. Teachers lack motivation due to low and irregular payment of salary. Despite the many schools, many children were out of school due to high school fees charged, and other demands by these private schools. A lot of pressure is exerted on the children to take on income generating roles in order to contribute to their family's economic needs. Many of the children take up adult responsibilities too early to enable them to have gainful formal basic education. The majority of those attending school are biological children while dropouts and those who have never attended school stay with guardians. The dropout rate among girls and the numbers of girls who never went to school is higher than that for boys. Many families are constantly on the move, staying in different places for short periods, which adversely affect school attendance for children. The major economic activity of the households in the research area was roadside business, beer brewing and other petty business types.

Deininger, K. and Crommelynck, A. (2001) 'Does Cost of Schooling Affect Enrollment by the Poor in Uganda?' Washington DC: World Bank.

World Bank (2000) 'Educating Nomadic Herders out of Poverty'. Washington DC: World Bank.

<http://econ.worldbank.org/view.php?type=20&id=11778>

Abstract:

The world's nomadic herders, mainly in Africa, the Middle East, and South, Southwest, and Central Asia, number in the tens of millions and are among the poorest and most vulnerable population groups. Reaching them with formal schooling is difficult, and millions of nomadic pastoral children remain outside the education system. This situation will continue until more effective ways are found to bridge the gap between what formal education systems teach and what pastoral children need to know.

This research project will investigate alternative approaches to education for nomadic pastoralists. It aims to improve the understanding of the relationship between culture, indigenous knowledge, social institutions, and poverty in the context of nomadic pastoralism, and to identify the conditions under which more effective schooling could be provided for those wishing to remain in the pastoral livelihood system. The research will focus on adjacent areas of northern Uganda and northern Kenya.

Building on a literature review on nomadic education commissioned by the World Bank's livestock group, the research will investigate three questions:

- How is indigenous knowledge embedded in social organizations?
- What are the outcomes of formal education for nomadic pastoralists, particularly its effect on social capital?
- What alternative approaches to education could better equip pastoralists to fight poverty?

The research is expected to lead to a better understanding of how indigenous knowledge is linked to social structure and economic expectations, how to integrate indigenous knowledge and formal education in efforts to prepare nomadic pastoralists for a future within the pastoral economy or outside it, and what policies and interventions governments, the World Bank, and other development agencies might pursue to do so.

Health

MFPED (2002) *'Infant Mortality² in Uganda 1995-2000. Why the Non-Improvement?'* Discussion Paper no. 6. Kampala, Uganda: Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

www.finance.go.ug

This study used a quantitative approach to infant mortality using the Uganda Demographic and Health Survey data³ conducted in 1995 and 2000/2001. The paper argues that infant mortality is an important indicator of the successful implementation of the Poverty Eradication Action Plan. Despite the high level of economic growth and poverty reduction during the 1990s, infant mortality reduction has stagnated over the last five years. The paper examines reasons why infant mortality reduction did not improve during the last five years and highlights relevant policy recommendations. The paper analyses the trends of infant mortality caused by malaria, diarrhoea, HIV/AIDS, malnutrition, acute respiratory infection and maternal conditions. On the basis of multivariate statistical analysis, the proximate determinants of infant mortality are ranked as follows: High risk factors responsible for over 50 % (high fertility and low birth spacing, single, divorced, widowed and separated mothers, teenage mothers and levels of immunisation of children); medium risk factors responsible for 30- 49 % (migration, no access to safe water, low educational attainment of the mother and northern region); and low risk factors responsible for less than 29 % (no use of modern contraceptive and home deliveries). The answer to why infant mortality did not improve during the last five years is found as a combination of a number of determinants that improved, deteriorated or remained constant over the same period. The paper recommends a two-pronged policy response to the problem. While in the short run improving the primary health care system is the approach; in the medium term and long term, Uganda should sustain the high levels of economic growth, improve educational attainment of women, while stimulating behavioural change towards lower fertility levels, wider birth intervals and improved hygienic practices.

² The study defined infant mortality rate as the number of deaths to infants under one year of age per 1,000 live births in a year.

³ The 2000/2001 UDHS covered all Districts in Uganda with the exception of Kasese, Bundubugyo, Gulu and Kitgum-representing 5 % of the sample.

World Bank (2003) 'Evaluation of the Impact of Investments in Early Child Development on Nutrition and Cognitive Development'. Washington DC: World Bank.

<http://econ.worldbank.org/view.php?type=20&id=11970>

Abstract:

Early child development projects account for a rapidly growing share of World Bank lending. These programs combine nutrition, health care, and cognitive development to offset the disadvantages of growing up in poverty. Substantial evidence shows that poor health and an inadequate early learning environment lead to handicaps difficult to reverse later in life. Many children may never go to primary school without interventions that reach them in their early years. If they do attend primary school, they may be at high risk of dropping out early or repeating grades. This lowers the return to both public and private schooling. So early child development programs may both increase the efficiency of a range of other investments in human capital and promote equity in the population they serve.

Through early coordination with Bank operations, this research is evaluating the impact of investments in early child development in three projects: the Bolivian Integrated Child Development Project, the Uganda Nutrition and Early Child Development Project, and the Philippine Early Childhood Development National Investment Program. All three case studies investigate the effect of early child stimulation and coaching on the age of school enrollment and on indicators of cognitive development. They also relate indicators of early cognitive development to early primary school grade progression and performance. The research also assesses the suitability of measures of cognitive development and achievement for project evaluation.

The Uganda case study will evaluate separately the impact of deworming on children under the age of six. While deworming programs worldwide are targeted to school-age children, for whom worm loads are highest; work in progress in Lucknow, India, shows the potential for dramatic increases in weight for younger children following a mass deworming campaign. As no comparable evaluation has been undertaken for this age group in other countries or for other indicators, the Uganda experiment will be particularly informative.

The deworming pilot in Uganda will follow a standard experimental methodology in which there will be a random assignment of treatment and control communities. Both the treatment and the control groups will be chosen from communities deemed especially at risk based on results of a survey of parasites undertaken as part of the project in 1998. But this project, like the other two, includes components that are demand-driven (with communities selecting the programs they will support). So longitudinal data and community fixed effects will be used to address selection bias. The baseline data have been collected, and the child health days and other services will be launched in September 2000.

National debt and poverty

Foster, M. and Mijumbi, P. (2001) '*How, When and Why Does Poverty Get Budget Priority? Uganda Case Study*' EPRC Occasional Paper no. 5. Kampala, Uganda: study prepared by Economic Policy Research Centre for the Overseas Development Institute (London).

http://www.odi.org.uk/pppg/publications/working_papers/163.html

Mijumbi, P. (2001) 'Uganda's External Debt and the HIPC Initiative' EPRC Occasional Paper no. 15. Kampala, Uganda: paper prepared by Economic Policy Research Centre for the North-South Institute (Ottawa) and published in the *Canadian Journal of Development Studies* vol. XXI, no. 2, 2001 (Ottawa).

<http://www.nsi-ins.ca/ensi/publications/cjds.html>

Mijumbi, P., Ayoki, M., Obwona, M. and Kempaka, G. (2000) 'Review of *How, When and Why Does Poverty Get Budget Priority?*' EPRC Occasional Paper no. 9. Kampala, Uganda: study prepared by Economic Policy Research Centre for the Overseas Development Institute (London).

Mwaba, A. (2001) 'External Debt and Debt Reduction Measures in Uganda' WIDER Development Conference on Debt Relief paper. Helsinki: World Institute for Development Economics Research.

http://www.wider.unu.edu/conference/conference-2001-2/parallel%20papers/1_4_mwaba.pdf

Debt relief financed-activities in the social sectors have contributed to reducing poverty in Uganda

The paper presents a country case study of Uganda's external debt burden, its impact on the country's economy and the outcomes of the recent debt relief measures implemented by the international community. Using time series data, we show that external debt flows had positive impacts on investment and GDP growth in Uganda, while accumulated debt demonstrated negative effects on the two variables; and that debt relief captured by declining debt service ratios has stimulated growth in the 1990s. These findings confirm the predictions of the debt Laffer curve models and support the results from earlier studies. It is also established that debt relief financed activities in the social sectors have contributed to reducing poverty in Uganda.

Poverty in policy perspective

Balihuta, M. and Sen, K. (2001) 'Macroeconomic Policies and Rural Livelihood Diversification: An Uganda Case-Study' LADDER Working Paper no. 3. Norwich, UK: Livelihoods and Diversification Directions Explored by Research.

<http://www.odg.uea.ac.uk/ladder/doc/wp3.pdf>

The paper uses both qualitative and quantitative evidence on livelihood diversification of rural households drawn, from the household income surveys conducted by the UBOS4 and LADDER5 village reports, to discuss the impact of economic reforms and structural adjustment programmes in Uganda on rural livelihoods. It presents 90 economic reform programmes initiated by the government of Uganda since 1987. 'The evidence suggests that economic reforms have had a positive impact on the livelihoods of small-holder farms in Uganda, many of whom have moved out of poverty in the past decade' (p. 1). The Uganda Agricultural sector benefited in a broad-based way with increasing production evidence in the cash and food crop sectors although the cotton and coffee producers benefited most. This growth in the agricultural sector in turn contributed to the rapid growth in non-farm activities in the rural economy in the recent years and gave households greater choices in their livelihood strategies. 'However, not all the policy measures have contributed positively to livelihood diversification that allows households to move out of poverty (p1).' The three constraints to livelihood diversification identified are the design and implementation of fiscal decentralisation programme, the availability of agricultural finance and the provision of agricultural advisory services.

Brock, K., McGee, R. and Ssewakiryanga, R. (2002) '*Poverty Knowledge and Policy Processes: A Case Study of Uganda National Poverty Reduction Policy*' IDS Research Report no. 53. Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies.

<http://www.ids.ac.uk/ids/bookshop/rr/Rr53.pdf>

The report discusses the poverty reduction policy process in Kampala, Uganda based on understanding of policy as a complex, dynamic process, rather than a linear progression of formulation and implementation. It underscores the role of different actors in the poverty policy process and describes and analyses the actors involved at national level. It is observed that the contemporary poverty reduction policy context in Uganda holds several opportunities and several risks. Among the risks is the fundamental contradiction between the nature of the national political space and the way government is energetically opening up new policy spaces and ushering in a range of diverse actors. 'Another is the disconnection between, on the one hand, international-national alliance operating in Kampala, and on the other, the relationship between Kampala and the rest of the country' (p. vii). Opportunities are identified as the current flux of poverty knowledge in Uganda, and the already considerable experience

⁴ Uganda Bureau of Statistics

⁵ Livelihood and Diversification Directions Explored by Research, a code name for a livelihoods research project implemented by University of East Anglia and Collaborating Research Institutions in East Africa.

blending diverse kinds of knowledge for policy purposes. It is concluded that civil society actors, more so NGO's poverty advocates, are at a critical juncture in Uganda today. It is suggested NGOs can either remain relatively passive participants in the process into which government invites them, or can opt to exercise greater agency, act autonomously and forge their own processes. The report ends by calling on NGO's policy actors to reclaim from government and its donors partners the territory of participation, and to make it more their own again, albeit in the new realm of policy.

CDRN (1996) 'A study of Poverty in Selected Districts of Uganda'. Kampala, Uganda: summary report by the Community Development Resource Network for Novib (Netherlands), Oxfam (London) and ActionAid (London).

The study challenges the notion that economic growth automatically leads to poverty reduction through the trickle down process. Accordingly, 'promotion of suitable macro-economic policies is unlikely to be sufficient to improve the livelihood of poor people unless this is done by also considering the non-economic factors' (p96). It advances the view that only some sections of the rural and urban population can take advantage of the policy environment created by reforms due to the heterogeneity of communities and poverty causes. Causes of poverty were viewed as historical (including socio-cultural factors), imbalance between populations and resources, institutional and macro-economic, and structural nature of the economy. Poverty is spatially concentrated in the hinterland further away from main roads, affecting mainly women, children, the disabled, and elderly persons. Poverty in all the communities⁶ visited was characterised by social exclusion, loss of traditional values, a growing lack of access to health and education facilities, poor housing conditions, lack of food security, and other forms of security like the feeling of helplessness. The paper advocates for involvement of the poor in research and development of an anti-poverty policy agenda. This is based on the argument that poverty needs a multi-disciplinary approach, which requires an integrated poverty reduction approach. The paper proposes that policy should encompass institutional, cultural, legal and economic initiatives, and suggests policy options that can be pursued especially at micro-level to reduce poverty.

Dollar David (2001) 'Globalization, Inequality and Poverty since 1980'. Washington DC: World Bank.

<http://econ.worldbank.org/view.php?type=5&id=2837>

Abstract:

Globalization has been a force for growth and poverty reduction in a diverse group of countries, including China, India, Mexico, Uganda, and Vietnam. I define globalization as the growing integration of economies and societies around the world as a result of flows of goods and services, capital, people, and ideas. The main theme of my paper is that integration accelerates development. Workers with the same skills – be they farmers, factory workers, or pharmacists – are less productive and earn less in developing economies than in advanced ones. Integration through trade in goods, foreign investment, international

⁶ The communities were in Apach, Kampala, Kapchorwa, Kibaale, Kisoro, Kumi and Nebbi Districts.

telecommunications, and migration reduces these gaps by raising productivity in the developing world. In this way globalization can be a powerful force for poverty reduction.

Mackinnon, J. and Reinikka, R. (2000) 'Lessons from Uganda on Strategies to Fight Poverty' WB Policy Research Working Paper no. 2440. Washington DC: World Bank.

<http://econ.worldbank.org/docs/1195.pdf>

What can be learnt from Uganda's early attempts to produce a PRSP?

The paper draws lessons from the drafting of Uganda's PEAP, an early precursor to PRSPs. First, the PEAP plan made extensive use of existing data and research about Uganda to refocus a range of public policies and interventions relevant to poverty reduction. Second, the government's approach was highly participatory, with central and local governments, the donor community, non-governmental organisations and civil society, and academics invited to contribute. Third, the government was quick to translate the plan into its budget and medium-term spending framework. Public expenditures on basic services were significantly increased after adoption of the PEAP in 1997. Paper discusses the general characteristics of a poverty reduction action plan, drawing on Uganda's experience. It discusses what is known about poverty in Uganda and identifies shortcomings in the data. It examines the macroeconomic and fiscal policies that were considered most important to poverty reduction during the participatory process, and the delivery of public services, especially those that directly affect the poor. It highlights problems associated with land issues, including problems with access to credit and financial services and with the security of productive assets.

Abstract:

Countries receiving debt relief under the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries initiative will be among the first to benefit from the new World Bank/International Monetary Fund approach to strengthening the impact on poverty of concessional assistance in low-income countries. The new approach features a more inclusive and participatory process for helping recipient countries develop poverty reduction strategies. From these strategies, joint Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) will bring together the country's own priorities and Bank-Fund assistance to the country.

In Uganda, such a strategy has existed for several years. Uganda was one of the first low-income countries to prepare a comprehensive national strategy for poverty reduction using a participatory approach. Indeed, its experience contributed substantially to the design of the PRSPs. Uganda's top leadership is heavily committed to poverty reduction. Formulation of Uganda's Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) in 1996-97 was the executive branch's effort to make that commitment and vision operational.

Mackinnon, J. and Reinikka, R. (2002) 'How Research Can Assist Policy: The Case of Economic Reforms in Uganda' in *The World Bank Research Observer*, vol. 17, no. 2, 2002, pp. 267-292. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

<http://econ.worldbank.org/view.php?id=22162>

Abstract:

Research has had a powerful impact on policy in Uganda, affecting the climate of opinion, improving the quality of the policy debate, and helping focus public policy and intervention on poverty reduction. Uganda's successful use of knowledge and research to help set public policy priorities demonstrates that even a poor post conflict country can, in a relatively short period of time, create an effective information base and feedback mechanisms for decision making.

Kakande, M. (1996) 'An Annotated Inventory of Policies and Initiatives Relevant to Poverty Reduction in Uganda'. Kampala, Uganda: Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

www.finance.go.ug

The inventory is a collection of some of the major documents available from the government and some of the donors involved in activities relevant to poverty reduction in Uganda. It covers the following themes; broad based growth, human resource, safety nets and monitoring.

MFPED (2002) 'Poverty Monitoring and Evaluation Strategy'. Kampala, Uganda: Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

www.finance.go.ug

The document provides a framework for poverty monitoring in Uganda. It is designed to enable government to systematically monitor the outcomes of the PEAP policies and programmes. The strategy lists priority monitoring indicators, methods of data collection and institutional roles and responsibilities. Institutionally, the MFPED takes the overall responsibility for poverty monitoring. The Poverty Monitoring and Analysis Unit (PMAU) within the Ministry co-ordinates the poverty monitoring efforts through the Poverty Monitoring Network (PMN) comprising of commissioners from government ministries, representatives from donor agencies directors of government research institutions etc..

MFPED (2001) 'Poverty Eradication Action Plan (2001-2003) Volume 1'. Kampala, Uganda: Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

www.finance.go.ug

The Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) is the Government of Uganda's national vision, overall goal and framework to achieve economic and social transformation. Preparation of the PEAP started in 1995 with inputs from all sectors fighting poverty, and the first edition was ready in 1997. The PEAP has four main pillars; creating an enabling environment for fast and sustainable economic growth and structural transformation, strengthening good governance and security, increasing the ability of the poor to raise their incomes and increasing the quality

of life of the poor. Significant progress has been made with continuous changes in the subsequent versions of the PEAP to address issues otherwise not addressed in previous versions. Among notable achievements are the implementation of the Universal Primary Education, increase in expenditure focused on poverty eradication through the establishment of the Poverty Action Fund. Other new initiatives include the Strategy for Private Sector Competitiveness and the Plan to Modernise Agriculture. The document reports success resulting from the implementation of the PEAP. Data analyses over the years (for example see Appleton, 1996, 1999, 2001; Mijumbi and Okidi, 2001) show that since 1992 the proportion of people below the poverty line has fallen from 56% to 35% in 2000. It is however noted that the poorest part of the country, the North, has made much slower progress than other areas, mainly because of insecurity.

MFPED (2001) 'Poverty Status Report, 2001: Milestone in the Quest for Poverty Eradication'. Kampala, Uganda: Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

www.finance.go.ug

The Poverty status report (produced annually) assesses the progress and challenges in the implementation of the Poverty Eradication Action Plan up-date (PEAP⁷). The report gives an insight into the poverty situation and the status of anti-poverty action following years of implementing the PEAP, and brings together evidence on the major achievements, problematic areas, and what must be done to ensure effective poverty reduction. The current version argues that 'overall, the PEAP is on track. Macro-economic stability is being maintained, major pro-poor reallocations in public expenditure has been achieved' (p135). However, progress has been uneven on the four pillars of the PEAP. The large expansion of resources to education, health and water caused some managerial difficulties. The report finally identifies areas for strengthening from the four pillars of the PEAP to achieve the poverty reduction objective.

MAAIF/MFPED (2000) 'The Plan for Modernisation of Agriculture (PMA): Eradicating Poverty in Uganda' Government Strategy and Operational Framework. Entebbe and Kampala, Uganda: Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industry and Fisheries and Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

<http://www.finance.go.ug/prsp/PMAFINAL.DOC>

Abstract:

The PMA is a holistic, strategic framework for eradicating poverty through multi-sectoral interventions. It is the strategic operational framework of agricultural transformation in Uganda through the promotion of rapid technological uptake and the lowering of production and food costs. The PMA provides the direction, principles and guidelines upon which

⁷ The PEAP forms the national vision to eradicate poverty and aims at wiping out mass poverty by 2017. The pillars of the PEAP include an enabling macro-economic environment, good governance and security, increasing the poor's ability to raise their income and increasing the quality of life of the poor. It articulates the steps that government intends to take in the short run to medium term to enhance the effectiveness of the PEAP.

intervention programmes and institutions must operate in order to achieve this agricultural transformation to eradicate poverty. It is aimed at ensuring food security, employment creation, and improved quality of life for Ugandans and consequently poverty eradication.

Brock, K., McGee, R., Okech, R. and Ssuuna, J. (2003) 'Poverty knowledge and policy processes in Uganda: case studies from Bushenyi, Lira and Tororo districts'. Kampala, Uganda and Brighton, UK: Community Development Resource Network and Institute of Development Studies.

<http://www.ids.ac.uk/ids/bookshop/rr/rr54.pdf>

The study aims at trying to understand the prospects and opportunities for a different kind of policy, one that reflects the needs and priorities of poor people. In searching for entry points to a different kind of policy, the research encountered a series of critical disconnections which currently inhibit the responsiveness of policy to poverty reduction priorities. These include: disconnection between diverse knowledges about experiences, causes, and impact of poverty and policy formulation and implementation; disconnection in terms of communication between actors; disconnection between the perceptions of idealised roles – what should happen and the practice and what happens; and disconnection between ordinary citizens and their representatives. The paper presents a position that departs from the use of phrases imported from orthodox international discourses of development – bottom-up, demand driven, participatory accountability, which it argued means different things to different people. It argues that often the processes that are given these labels are used to simplify diverse knowledge, to reinforce unequal power relations and to constrain alternative indigenous solutions to poverty reduction. The paper suggests that policy is deeply political, and that challenging the depoliticisation of orthodox development narratives may be necessary if structural changes are to occur. 'These need to happen not only at the level of constructive work with citizens about rights and entitlements, but work with elected representatives concerning their obligations, and continued emphasis on opening existing policy space to a wider range of actors' (p. 83).

Okidi, J. (2000) 'The Impact of Government Policies and Programs on Poverty' EPRC Occasional Paper no. 7. Kampala, Uganda: Economic Policy Research Centre.

http://www.eprc.or.ug/researchers_policies.htm

The paper highlights the poverty orientation and impact of various policies and programs that have been adopted and implemented in Uganda in recent years. An overview lists the key causes of poverty as being institutional, social and economic. Promotion of opportunities, facilitation of empowerment and enhancement of security against vulnerability, are identified as a framework to fight poverty. Policies and programs for tackling poverty in Uganda since 1987 are discussed. These include the post-conflict reconstruction and rehabilitation programs, creation of macroeconomic stability, decentralisation, comprehensive action plans, liberalisation and the poverty action fund.

The paper argues that there was a significant reduction in poverty between 1992 and 1997, overwhelmingly due to growth with very little attributable to redistribution. The author argues that the initial focus on growth in the economic reform process in Uganda has had a significant poverty reduction impact. Therefore additional growth supported with policies aimed at redistribution will further reduce poverty. This is to be achieved through the PMA (Plan for the Modernisation of Agriculture), a sectoral strategy of the PEAP (Poverty Eradication Action Plan). The potential for poverty eradication via the PMA is reinforced by the percentage of the population involved in agriculture and related activities, as opposed to industrial growth. However the biggest challenge is the declining levels of budgetary allocations to agriculture both at national and local government levels.

It is concluded that having the right policy instruments, and the appropriate corresponding programmes to implement them, may not be sufficient to realise the desired goal because exogenous factors slow down the real sector of the economy resulting in lower than expected output growth. In the recent past, the shocks that have had this impact have included; prolonged drought, the fish export ban by the European Union, the massacre of foreign tourists in Western Uganda, the continuous decline in the coffee sector due to coffee wilt and price variability in the international market, and the upsurge in oil prices.

Opio, F. (1997) 'Structural Adjustment, Growth and Poverty in Uganda' EPRC Research Series no. 3. Kampala, Uganda: Economic Policy Research Centre.

The author argues that social indicators in Uganda today are hardly more encouraging than they were at the introduction of the structural adjustment policy reform. While most economic indicators show impressive performance (sustained high GDP growth rate, low and stable inflation, stable exchange rates etc), the number of poor people has not declined, and in some regions has increased. The proportion of the poor in the North and North Eastern regions of Uganda seems to have increased, although there are no trend data to explicitly measure such increases. There is fairly strong evidence to suggest that the last decade has seen a further deterioration in the social welfare of the population, most of whom constitute the poor. Social indicators such as life expectancy, maternal mortality rate, school dropout rates, malnutrition etc, all show no significant improvement during this period. The paper concludes that there is insufficient evidence to suggest that the situation has been exacerbated by the impact of the structural adjustment *per se*.

Measuring and characterising poverty

Babirye, D. (1999) 'Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Progress Report' Kampala, Uganda: Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

www.finance.go.ug

The report gives the perceptions of poverty, vulnerability and well being from a study of 6 districts in Uganda. It explains how the different communities defined poverty, which was viewed in terms of lack of basic needs of shelter, food, clothing and income. Vulnerability was defined mostly in terms of physical conditions, age and status of life. Vulnerable groups included orphans, the sick, persons with disability, the elderly and the poorest of the poor/landless. Causes of poverty are identified as declining productivity, poor and inadequate physical/social infrastructure, dwindling or lack of productive resources, natural disasters like droughts, earthquakes and floods, insecurity resulting from armed conflicts, weakened social networks, the impact of HIV/AIDS, rising costs of living, over-taxation and displacement due to armed conflict. Poverty trends over years are given with varying magnitudes depending on the districts. The coping mechanisms by the different communities are presented which include both positive and negative alternatives. The report discusses the gender dimension of poverty and argues that women were likely to be more affected by poverty than men especially those married to poor men. Poverty indicators were identified and they were broadly categorised as material (lack of land, lack of access to services including credit and having no job) and non-material indicators (helplessness, lack of social capital, lack of information isolated and having no social networks). The report proposes several policy implications among which are tackling insecurity, strengthening poverty monitoring, gender sensitive policies and tailoring social services to the local specific demands and needs.

Darlington, L.⁸ (2001) 'The Poverty Situation in the North with Specific Reference to Karamoja (Moroto and Kotido Districts)'. Kampala, Uganda: Poverty Monitoring and Analysis Unit, Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development.

The paper aimed at analysing the poverty status in Karamoja (using desk review research) in order to develop a way forward for the implementation of the Poverty Eradication Action Plan. A socio-political set up of the Karamojong is briefly presented showing how it marginalises women.

McGee, R. (2000) 'Analysis of Participatory Poverty Assessment (PPA) and household survey findings on poverty trends in Uganda' Kampala, Uganda: Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

<http://www.eldis.org/fulltext/mcgee.pdf>

⁸ Lorika is programme coordinator Action for Development of Local Communities (ADOL) P.O. Box 24626

Comparing PPA and household surveys on poverty trends: what recommendations arise from this analysis?

This article results from consultancy work attempting to clarify the picture on poverty trends, identify areas which require further work and any further findings from the analysis which require policy action. The analytical work focuses on poverty in Uganda, which incorporates both qualitative and quantitative data.

Mijumbi, P. and Okidi, J. (2001) 'Analysis of Poor and Vulnerable Groups in Uganda' EPRC Occasional Paper no. 16. Kampala, Uganda: Economic Policy Research Centre with support from DFID (London).

'The study attempts to describe the characteristics and composition of selected vulnerable groups in Uganda using national household survey data from 1992/1993, Integrated Household Survey (IHS) and the 1999/2000 Uganda National Household Survey (UNHS)' (p2). The analysis provides statistical indicators that show relative importance of vulnerable groups in the various socio-economic categories that are of policy interest. The vulnerable groups were identified as the elderly, children, youth, widows, widowers, women and the disabled, based on contemporary literature on poverty. The authors estimate percentage regional population shares and contribution to poverty, and population shares and contribution to poverty by various groups. The groups include adults, girls, boys, elderly men, elderly women, male youth, female youth, men, non-orphans, girl orphans, boy orphans, widowed, non-widowed, disabled and able-bodied. It is concluded that: the contribution to poverty by rural area has risen since 1992/3, almost entirely from the northern region; contribution of children to poverty is higher than any other vulnerable group; orphan poverty statistics are not any worse compared to non-orphan; boy-orphans appear to be worse-off than girl-orphans; the widowed and non-widowed show no significant difference in their statistics; and the disabled have a very high proportion falling under the poverty line.

MFPED (2003) '*Second Participatory Poverty Assessment Report: Deepening the Understanding of Poverty*'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

<http://www.uppap.or.ug/>

The report summaries results of the second phase of a nation-wide participatory exercise aimed at bringing the voices and perspectives of the poor into policy formulation, planning and implementation by the central and local governments. Specifically, the second Participatory Poverty Assessment (PPA) was implemented with the aim of deepening the understanding of poverty and poverty trends gained in the first PPA and investigating people's experiences with selected government policies. The research was carried out in 60 research sites in 12 Districts. There was departure from conventional poverty analysis, which depends on income and consumption measures. Instead a variety of participatory methods to consult poor people in an open-ended manner was used.

Poverty is defined as lack of basic needs and services such as food, clothing, bedding, shelter, basic health care and education. Poverty is viewed as powerlessness, lack of a voice and failure to be heard. New dimensions to poverty in the second phase center on issues of social exclusion, governance, community status, or affluence and ignorance and lack of knowledge and awareness. Although the cross-cutting nature of poverty is evident, there emerges differentiation between rural and urban areas⁹. Vulnerable groups are identified as the women, widows, youth, elderly, orphans, people with disability displaced and refugees.

Causes of poverty are identified as ill-health and disease, limited access to land or land shortages, large families, lack of markets, low prices of outputs, pests and diseases, high and unfair taxes and market dues, death of family members especially bread winners, alcoholism, unemployment, and insecurity. Lack of control over productive resources by women features as one of the root causes of poverty. Factors that push people into poverty are similar across rural, urban and pastoral communities. They are alcoholism, polygamy, having large families, insecurity and displacement, unfair taxation/high market dues and illness. Upward mobility is seen as a result of hard work, access to gainful employment, having multiple sources of income, access to land or property, access to skills and education and access to start-up capital. It is reported that the quality of natural resources is declining manifested as loss of soil fertility, land degradation, depletion of fish species and stocks, wetland encroachment and reclamation and pollution of water sources.

For policy purposes the report observes that:

- To help poor farmers with marketing, and market information, NAADS¹⁰ should come up with a clear policy on extension services to the poor;
- While fishing sites need social infrastructure and community organisation, estate workers need protection they are legally entitled to, and pastoralists in Karamoja need veterinary services and a form of disarmament;
- There is need for more funding directed to procuring drugs and increasing staff and improving on health facilities in the health sector;
- Water and sanitation measures need a community based approach which is more robust and easy to implement;
- Universal Primary Education is still fragile and therefore requires more innovation in order not to undermine the quality of the products;
- There is a crisis in the legitimacy of local taxation and that this requires re-examination; and
- The role of decentralization as an approach to effective poverty reduction is still unclear and needs review.

⁹ In rural areas poverty is associated with lack of productive assets, e.g. land while in urban areas, it is associated with hunger, lack of food, escalating unemployment and poor wages for the employed.

¹⁰ National Agricultural Advisory Services meant to provide of agricultural extension services to farmers.

MFPEP (2003) 'Deepening the Understanding of Poverty: Arua District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

The report gives the people's own definition of poverty as the state of powerlessness, helplessness and defencelessness; inadequacy of basic services, and failure to access other basic human needs. It shows that poverty indicators for both rural and urban sites are similar and identifies the most vulnerable groups of persons as the widows, orphans, the elderly and persons with disabilities. Causes of poverty are seen as ranging from poor planning among households, resistant attitudes to learning good new ideas, inadequate resources and negative cultural practices. While poverty is said to be on the increase at household level seen from reduction in agricultural resources and increased disease incidence, community poverty is on the decline because of improved infrastructure (schools, health units, bridges, roads, protected water sources etc). The major livelihood activity is tobacco growing although it has its own environmental hazards. Cotton growing collapsed in the system. The paper observes that men own almost all the productive assets while women provide most of the needed labour.

The Universal Primary Education programme is seen to have improved the enrolment status of school going-age children with more infrastructure put in place. However, poor accountability, withdrawal of parents' support in school management, increased indiscipline, and poor performance in PLE pose as problems. In the health sector, the removal of cost sharing was followed by increased demand for drugs in government health units because the numbers attending to health services increased. It is the well to do who access the private wing of government health units and the private health clinics. This has affected the poor adversely. Some people resort to traditional medicine and only refer to health units when local medicine has failed. Clean and safe water supply is still inadequate despite government efforts and other stakeholders. In rural areas sanitation is still a big problem, e.g., on average six families share only one pit latrine.

The limitations of the existing extension service system are raised highlighting inadequate numbers of staff and poor facilitation as the major bottlenecks. The quality of roads is depicted as deplorable due to poor maintenance mechanisms. While there is appreciation of decentralization and the Local Council system, accountability was seen as a major bottleneck to the functioning of the system. There is corruption and mismanagement of resources resulting from inadequate transparency among government staff and politicians. There is insufficient information flow between the communities and government. Elections have been 'commercialised' to the extent that competence is sacrificed. This has made it possible for incompetent politicians to rise to positions of responsibilities, which they are not able to handle and sometimes they feel inferior to government civil servants. The performance of graduated tax as a source of revenue was very poor, however market dues as a source was doing well. The people complained of overcharging of market dues by tenders. The role of NGOs in the area was highly appreciated by the people and the recommended that government should support and collaborate with NGOs so as to deliver better services.

MFPEP (2003) 'Deepening the Understanding of Poverty: Bugiri District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

The report presents the poor people's definition of poverty as the lack of knowledge or as ignorance that undermines peoples' ability to maximize their resources and potential to improve their livelihoods. It goes further to show the different impacts of poverty on different social categories that include gender, age and location and identifies the vulnerable categories as the elderly, widows, youth and rural employees. Key causes of poverty include shortage of land and soil exhaustion, dwindling fish stocks in the Lake Victoria, poor market for produce and lack of extension services. Overall, poverty was reported to be increasing due to the worsening of the factors indicated above which rise from changing ecological, economic and political factors. Assets levels possessed by a household determine its well-being, although this differed between rural, urban and fishing communities. Social mobility is highly dependent on access to the resources. The major livelihood strategies reported include farming, fishing, smuggling, trade and formal employment

Overall, there is inadequate basic social infrastructure in the district, and most of what exists is deficient. For example, although UPE was commended for improving primary school enrolment and benefiting the girl child and children of the poor, it has major limitations with regard to the quality of education and learning and teaching provisions. With regard to taxation the concerns raised included wrong periods of tax enforcement, aggressive collection and enforcement approaches, high rates and lack of tangible benefits to the taxpayer. Other issues linked to taxation were high tariffs levied on imported goods, sectarian non-transparent tendering processes and poor accountability for the mandatory local government remittances to lower levels.

The Local Government was not delivering services and offering effective leadership for some communities moreover Bugiri is heavily dependent on Central Government for resources to deliver services. The weaknesses in the established local government structures and the electoral processes have had negative impacts on service delivery. There is lack of transparency and accountability on the side of community leaders for local government revenues. Although women appreciated the Local Government for being more inclusive to them, they are still considered as politically marginalised.

MFPEP (2003) 'Deepening the Understanding of Poverty: Bundibugyo District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

The people defined poverty as the lack of and inability to afford basic household needs and lack of money to start income generating activities. It is the lack of physical social infrastructure, particularly roads and health centres. In this respect powerlessness and ignorance are viewed as being synonymous with poverty. Poverty is attributed to a number of causes, some of which are reported in all the sites while others are reported in a few of the sites. The frequently cited causes included ignorance and the lack of information; cultural rigidities; and lack of cooperation between spouses. Other causes of poverty include lack of markets, high taxes and unfair market dues, limited opportunities for work/constrained economic activity, neglect of some areas by the district local government, ill-health, and lack of agricultural inputs. As a consequence of poverty a number of women and teenage girls have been prompted to indulge in acts of prostitution and early marriages. It has also resulted in increased child labour, family breakdown, poor and inadequate nutrition, marginalisation of the poor and elderly, theft, over-consumption of alcohol, and poor living conditions.

Access to health services is still inadequate although quality was reported to have improved especially for the case of the children. Physical access to health centres is problematic, especially in remote areas with poor access roads, which are characteristic of Bundibugyo District (mountainous). Abolition of cost-sharing was followed by inadequate supply of appropriate drugs, insufficient numbers of health and staff little motivation to improve health workers' welfare. Although Universal Primary Education (UPE) programme is very much appreciated by the communities, the quality was reported to be poor with lack of scholastic materials; lack lunch for pupils; long distances to school especially for the very young children; early marriages and pregnancies; disability; peer pressure and defilement; mismanagement and poor accountability for UPE funds by the school headteachers, and the poor quality of classrooms. Because there are very few secondary schools in the district and their standard of education is low compared to most schools in other districts, most children, especially those from well-off families, go to secondary schools in neighbouring districts which places very high financial demands on parents. Poor sanitation in some sites is a major issue of concern attributed to low latrine coverage due to the difficulty of constructing latrines, given the loose nature of the soils and a high water table that are characteristic of the area. Agricultural extension staff is not reaching out to the farmers as required.

Dealers in produce and their middlemen offered very low prices to farmers due to lack of information on prices and alternative markets, poor road network and poor quality. Fishing communities were characterized by illegal fishing, insecurity, theft of nets and lack of infrastructure. The road network in the district is inadequate and poor with only one trunk road and limited access to feeder roads linking to villages. Government programmes such as School Facility Grant, feeder road maintenance, and livestock restocking by the local government are mismanaged. The community reported that the sub-county authorities were not remitting the 25% meant for community development to the lower local council.

MFPEP (2003) 'Deepening the Understanding of Poverty: Jinja District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

The report shows that poverty in Jinja is both a rural and urban problem. It is argued that in the rural area poverty is caused by lack of a reliable source of income for the population. Since time memorial, rural Jinja depended to a large extent on production of raw materials such as cotton, sugar cane, coffee, sorghum, timber, fish and horticulture products for the booming industrial sector and wealthy urban residents. These opportunities however diminished following the collapse of Jinja's industrial base in the last twenty years. The drive to grow sugar canes that feed the sugar factory has made small-holder farmers to abandon food cultivation. The consequences have been over production of the cane and serious fall in prices with less allocation of land for food production. Overproduction of maize has led to lower prices pushing residents into petty business in the town area. However, residents complain of failure by the Local government authorities to support their income generating endeavours and the tendency to favour 'foreign' firms during tendering. School dropouts sell their labour in unrecognised informal sector activities such as bicycle transport business – (*boda-boda*), metal and wood fabrication and cooked food vending, among others. Others are being exploited by Asian entrepreneurs (many of whom are recent returnees).

Manifestations of urban poverty in Jinja are exhibited in high incidence of destitution, very poor business climate, dwindling urban services, very high competition and high levels of insecurity to life and property. The informal sector activities, which employ the majority poor for example, are characterized by lack of markets, lack of support or recognition from stakeholders, high exploitation, serious work hazards and congestion. Vulnerable groups such as the disabled, internally displaced persons and migrants survive under very appalling conditions with minimum support from Jinja Municipal Council authorities. There are no well-meaning arrangements to address poverty among such categories that are largely landless migrants with limited social support from indigenous communities. Rampant corruption in allocation of tenders has resulted in very shoddy works and services, and haphazard implementation of investments. This is associated to a political system that is not transparent and responsive of the real needs of the poor.

Overall, poverty in Jinja district was said to be caused by lack of social networks, exploitation, lack of consistent earning, lack of property rights, vicious deprivation, illiteracy, lack of land, high cost of living, lack of markets, socio-emotional complications and unreliable civic leadership (p ii). The study ends by making recommendations to address the issues raised by the people.

MFPED (2003) 'Deepening the Understanding of Poverty: Kitgum District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

The report pivots insecurity in defining poverty manifested in form of rebel activities and cattle rustling. Poverty is seen as a situation of perpetual need for daily necessities of life and a feeling of powerlessness, lack of basic physical infrastructure and services, and productive assets and social harmony with in the community. Being deprived of basic human rights and the feeling of helplessness to influence the conditions around one is another perspective of the community's definition of poverty. The prime cause of poverty centres on insecurity. Due to insecurity there is loss of resources and asset base, and displacement people to the camps. Other major causes of poverty are lack of start-up capital and low prices of farm produce.

Although the introduction of UPE was acknowledged to have improved access to primary education, the question of quality, destiny of UPE graduates and scholastic materials are seen as issues that government needs to address. The poorest expressed inability to pay the costs of education that are not met by the UPE funds, and to afford secondary education, despite the fact that many households try to sell off their assets to meet the costs. This situation is worsened by the chronic insecurity in the district that does not allow the community to plan and invest for their children's education. Although the abolition of cost sharing in public health care is appreciated, there is general concern that this has led to serious deterioration in the quality of service delivery in government health facilities due to shortage of drugs and staff. There is limited access to safe water, a very serious problem in the District due to poor distribution of available water facilities.

Democratisation process though appreciated has not eliminated high corruption in government institutions such the police. This was seen as hindering development. Failure to follow guidelines at the sub-county level has made the community not to benefit much from the local tendering process where local business people are often denied contracts. While

women have limited access to information and as such miss out on available opportunities they shoulder most of the productive and reproductive work. The insecurity has worsened the situation because previously men would use oxen to clear the land, but now women do everything right from clearing of land to post-harvest with very little support from men.

MFPED (2003) 'Deepening the Understanding of Poverty: Masindi District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

The people defined poverty in generally terms as lack of basic needs including food, shelter, health care and subsistence income. However, different people described poverty differently basing on the material and even non-material things possessed by individuals as well as the general community. Causes of poverty are viewed as high illiteracy rates, unfair taxes that are not commensurate with the tax base, low prices for their agricultural products, and inadequate farmland shared amongst culturally and economically different people. Resources comprised material possessions of individuals at household level as well as items that benefit the community as a whole. Most women are found to partly own insignificant resources like saucepans, cups brooms, and hoes while men owned more productive ones like ox-ploughs, big boats, nets, land and livestock. This rendered the women generally poorer than men.

There is lack of social facilities like health centres, schools, and micro finance institutions, which augment the problem. Issues of user costs - in terms of transport, quality, and collateral- are noted to be important in order to access, utilize and render relevant some of the said services. The local council structure was appreciated for solving their problems although it is seen as only useful for higher levels as lower levels are rarely consulted for opinions and are never given feedback. There was minimal knowledge of government policies and programmes with the exception of Universal Primary Education at the community and sub-county levels.

MFPED (2003) 'Deepening the Understanding of Poverty: Moroto District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

Different social groups and well-being categories at the sites defined poverty differently. However, all the definitions of poverty encompassed lack of livestock, hunger, lack of basic necessities, loss of assets, helplessness, lack of production resources such as land, oxen and ploughs, lack of employment and skills, insecurity and disease. While women tended to describe poverty as drought, which they said denies children food and aggravates animal death that fuels insecurity through increased cattle rustling, men emphasised loss of livestock to disease and raiding. Causes of poverty were said to include: persistent poor harvests, long dry spells and droughts (climatic shocks), cattle rustling, insecurity, ill health, animal deaths, poor farming techniques, disability and impairment, marriage, childlessness, lack of skills and unemployment, limited sources of income, poor governance and landlessness. Migrating and settling in other places forms a formidable survival strategy for two of the communities (Nakapelimen and Alekilek) and is attributed to drought, famine, negative government actions and insecurity.

There are different sources of livelihoods and these include growing crops, seeking casual employment, brewing and selling alcohol, collecting grass and firewood for sale, livestock rearing, making and selling crafts, crushing gravel for sale as stone aggregates, making bricks, collecting wild fruits for sale, burning and selling charcoal, and mining and selling limestone and marble. While all household members contribute to the survival of the family, women and girls contribute most to the sustenance of their families. In times of hardship, when men lose their livestock, they depend on the women. Several factors are said to affect livelihoods and these include insecurity, wildlife authority, ill health, exploitation by the business community, poor implements, crop theft, cattle raiding and rustling, rodents and wild animals, animal deaths and disease, and marketing limitations.

Whereas, some parents had sent their children to school, there was a large number of children of school-going age who did not attend school. The whole programme was characterized by several problems: long distance to schools, extra charges imposed by the school, lack of scholastic materials, harassment of girls at school, bad parental attitude towards education, high dropout, the “non-relevant curriculum”, inadequate staffing, low morale for teachers, inadequate housing for teachers, inadequate funding, and weak supervision from the inspectorate. It was reported that the cost of receiving treatment is high, which is an impediment to receiving health care. Communities have to move over 5km to access treatment. Although the scrapping of cost sharing in government health facilities was acknowledged, it was argued that, in reality, there is no free treatment as only prescription is offered. The communities identified the top five causes of morbidity and burden of disease in the district as malaria, Acute Respiratory Infections (ARI), Diarrhoeal diseases, intestinal worms, skin diseases, eye infections. Others are trauma, anaemia, and malnutrition. These constitute over 90% of the disease burden in the district.

The area is served by boreholes to provide water for domestic purpose, which are inadequate to meet the other needs of livestock watering and crop cultivation especially so because the area is prone to drought. The area has experience perennial insecurity. The people indicate that there are different forms of insecurity affecting the livelihoods of the people that include cattle rustling, highway thugery and banditry.

MFPED (2003) ‘Deepening the Understanding of Poverty: Mubende District Report’. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

According to the report the people defined poverty basing on three dimensions, namely lack of and or the inability to satisfy one's own basic needs, unemployment, and lack of access to basic social services. Poverty manifested in the form of the lack of and inability to meet basic necessities (housing, clothing, food), large family size, poor personal hygiene and sanitation, redundancy, landlessness, seeking charity, lack of income, helplessness, inability to educate children. However, there is less variation in the manifestations between the urban and the rural areas.

The major causes of poverty that cut across the sites include landlessness and the lack of start-up capital while area specific causes include evictions and fencing off the land. Other causes are unemployment (especially among the youth), high taxation, low incomes, human and animal diseases, drunkenness, poor planning, and high expenditures, low market prices for

agricultural produce, and low wages, individualism and thefts in urban areas, bad roads, wars, vermin, gender constraints, laziness, large families, ageing and soil exhaustion. Among orphans and widows/widowers death of parents and spouses respectively leads to property grabbing by relatives. Failure of government policy manifested in inability to pay off retrenchment and compensation packages, control vermin, regulate market prices and create employment is yet another cause of poverty. In some instances, there is poor targeting often leading to some social groups not benefiting from certain programmes.

The health status is characterized by high morbidity, infant and maternal mortality rates, in spite of the increase in the number of infrastructure, increased funding and strategies to increase physical access. There is low funding, inadequate staff, persistent shortage of drugs, long queues and waiting time, absenteeism, low qualified health personnel and limited 'open hour' for treatment that make services poor. With the abolition of cost sharing, there is improved access by the poor to the services especially married women, widows and the elderly. The attitude towards family planning is generally negative because of the misconceptions about it. UPE was hailed to have led to improved access to education through increased enrolment and under the School Facility Grant, infrastructure has also been established. However, education has been plagued by reduction in quality and standards, high dropout rates, pregnancies and poor performance. There is lack of extension services at community level yet they are a crucial services. The extension staff cited lack of transport and fuel as the main causes for their non-delivery of services.

In the local government administration, corruption was reported: for example, there is lack of transparency in awarding tenders and poor accountability for UPE funds. The elected representatives do not come back to the electorate to solicit their views until the next election time. Information flow to the lower levels is weak as revealed by the limited knowledge on the different programmes and projects. This has led to communities getting less involved in the planning and implementation of the government programmes and have not benefited much from the poverty-reducing strategies. However, it was acknowledged that women's participation had increased at all levels although constrained by high prevalence of illiteracy.

MFPEP (2003) 'Deepening the Understanding of Poverty: Ntungamo District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

The community defined poverty by giving individual, household and community indicators of poverty. At individual level, inadequate incomes, poor paying jobs/income-generating activities, casual labouring for food and poor shelter reveal poverty. While at household level, lack of land, lack of livestock, lack of household utilities, poor shelter, lack of co-operation between household members and inadequate food reveal poverty, at community level, it is poor social infrastructure, and lack of cooperation among members that reveal poverty. Causes of poverty are conceived to be lack of access to productive resources, lack of adequate education, poor health, confiscation of property after failure to pay a loan, over-drinking, over-taxation, limited income-generating activities, stringent cultural practices, and lack of co-operation between household members.

It was revealed that while community poverty has reduced over the last 10 years, individual poverty has increased due to inadequate incomes. At the community level, there are

improvements in the education and health infrastructure, empowerment of interest groups like the women, youth and the people with disabilities, reduction in graduated tax, and improved communication services. Health services have been brought nearer to the people, with more drugs and health personnel, the poor people are happy about the abolition of cost-sharing, while the rich perceive the services to be deteriorating. The introduction of Universal Primary Education was highly appreciated including the improvements in payment of teachers' salaries on time; construction of buildings and provision of furniture under the School Facility Grant; and establishment of the teacher resource centers.

The community appreciated the reduction in the graduated tax rates and recommended that the tax be retained because it enabled the government to increase and improve service delivery to them. Decentralisation, is interpreted as a way of bringing services closer to them, thus improving their well-being. However, they decried inadequate feedback from the elected leaders. The leaders were reported not to be accountable to the people they represent. Fear exists on the side of local people to demand accountability from their local leaders because they are hardly aware of their rights.

MFPEP (2003) 'Deepening the Understanding of Poverty: Rakai District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

Poverty is defined in relation to ownership of assets and ability by the community members to access basic necessities of life including food and social services such as health and education. A poor person is taken as one who does not own most of the assets and lacks access to basic necessities of life. Causes of poverty are observed to vary from social group to another, although similarities exist. While some causes of poverty are attributed to liberalisation of markets, high taxes, poor roads, ill-health, lack of financial capital, others are attributed to the community members themselves and such causes are identified as early marriages, high bride price, large families, and lack of initiative, among others. In addition, natural disasters such as drought and deaths as a result of HIV/AIDS are identified among the causes.

Changes in poverty levels are associated with changes in prices of agricultural produce especially coffee, seasonal variations, and access to markets influenced by the state of roads. Intra-household relations reveal a gender bias in favour of men, which leaves women vulnerable to poverty. Because women are not allowed to carry out certain activities (e.g., fishing), they are cut off from participating hence missing the income that accrues to such activities.

Although UPE is appreciated, the community expressed fears of declining quality of education. This has led to higher rates of enrolment in private primary schools than government schools. Although the abolition of cost-sharing, was initially appreciated, quality of health services has declined with time as result. Government health facilities have inadequate drugs so that some community members only go to the government health facility when the sickness is severe. Some of them first use local herbs and if they do not get cured they then go to the government health facility for diagnosis and prescription. Cases of under dose and drug abuse are common. The water and sanitation situation in some parts of the district requires urgent attention and latrine coverage is still low in some parts of the district

especially fish landing sites where it was claimed that the nature of the soils affects latrine construction. The road network in many parts of the district is poor and hinders access to markets, health facilities and schools.

Decentralisation as a policy and the local council system of governance are viewed by the community as an opportunity to participate in matters affecting their lives and destiny. However, some of the elected leaders never go back to the villages to consult the electorates, which has contributed to poor information flow from the village to higher levels of administration and vice versa. The tendering process in the district is not transparent, leading to discontent among those who apply for the different tenders.

MFPED (2003) 'Deepening the Understanding of Poverty: Soroti District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

Poverty is defined as the lack of means to satisfy basic needs for life such as food, shelter, clothing and medical care. Poverty is perceived to be a situation of perpetual lack of daily necessities of life such as money or source of income and the absence of social support to a person within a household and community. It is the absence of social support leading to a feeling of isolation, exclusion, powerlessness, deprivation of rights, inability to access existing social services delivered and influence conditions around one. Widows, widowers with children, orphans, neglected children, women, elderly, chronically sick, disabled, internally displaced, large families, people in environments affected by floods and drought, the landless, female heads of households, casual labourers (those who hire out their labour), are perceived to be more vulnerable to poverty. The main causes of poverty are perceived to be the political and social upheavals, such as insecurity, insurgency and cattle rustling that affected the region mainly between 1985 and 1993.

UPE has led to increased enrolments although it is slowly declining since 1999. The quality of education was negatively affected by limited facilities such as books, teachers houses, desks, classrooms, lack of lunch for children, poor supervision of teachers by some head teachers, high pupil to teacher ratio especially in lower. Government construction of a number of Health units in the district, upgrading of some units to sub-district hospitals, increased expenditures on drugs and abolished cost sharing has been less successful. There is irregular and inadequate drug supply and poor attention received from some health workers. Water and sanitation facilities are still inadequate despite increased allocation of money by government. Latrine coverage in homes is still low though slowly increasing.

Even with the decentralization system in place, planning of development projects is a top-down process. Participation of women, the poor and disadvantaged groups, in the councils is still low at local council level. Information flow is mainly from above and is selectively delivered by the leaders to increase their power. Local community members in some cases are not aware that they should hold their leaders and representatives accountable and said they do not know how to hold their leaders accountable. There were bitter complaints about harsh and unfair tax assessments procedures, high tax rates, multiple tax payments especially in terms of market dues, and lack of tax education.

MFPEd (2003) 'Deepening the Understanding of Poverty: Wakiso District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

The definition of poverty extends beyond the lack of basic necessities, incomes and unemployment to include a state of powerlessness and exclusion. Vulnerable groups mainly affected by poverty include single mothers, the widowed, youths, elderly and the orphaned children. Factors that cause poverty are identified as the lack of productive assets, unemployment, high propensity to consume versus the low levels of income, the lack of a saving culture, multiple and high taxes, low agricultural production and low prices attributed to the poor methods of production and unscrupulous businessmen in liberalised markets, pests and diseases, and limited land. Geographical isolation was pointed out as a cause of poverty in remote rural areas especially because of the inaccessible services. The shift of government departments from Entebbe to Kampala and the retrenchment policy were also identified as having contributed to poverty.

Findings indicate that poverty has increased over the last 20 years, attributed to the increased sale of land in the urban sites, the decreased agricultural production due to coffee wilt disease, the bush war (1982-1985) that affected some parts of the District, and reliance on agriculture and fish vulnerable to seasonal variations. Socio-economic imbalances between men and women manifest in favour of men. Women are voiceless and powerless and thus unable to engage in or initiate any economic development activity. Although many women accessed credit from Micro-Finance Institutions (MFIs), conditions associated with MFIs such as the high interest rates, collateral security, membership fee and short grace period have made it hard for women to utilise the credit.

There is high inaccessibility of social services in remote rural sites, specifically education and health. The poor people have resorted to the use of traditional medicine and private clinics, which are expensive. People depend on drug shops for self-medication risking wrong dosage and expired drugs. In the peri-urban sites, it was revealed that government hospitals only give drug prescriptions and a few drug types. Primary Education (UPE) was appreciated as a good initiative by the government, however, it was left to the poor because of the deteriorating standards. Children of well to do parents go instead to private schools where the standards are better.

Consultation with the people by elected leadership is minimal which limits their input in the planning process. People lack empowerment to demand for accountability from leaders. Information flow is poor hampering the poor from accessing vital information for them to come out of poverty. The report concludes by recommending that to fight poverty, the people should be consulted in the process since they are in a better position to analyse their situation.

MFPEd (2001) 'Rapid Rural Appraisal on the Poverty Situation in the North: Synthesised Study Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Poverty Monitoring Unit, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

The main objective of the study was to get an understanding of some of the factors that aggravated the poverty situation in the North. A number of participatory methods were used to collect the data. The possession of assets, source of income and access to social services

defined well-being and vulnerability. It was argued that in the recent past, the community had experienced more downward movement than the reverse attributed to the loss of property and supportive relatives through insecurity. The security situation has caused anxiety and trauma impacting on production and exacerbating poverty. The Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) and the karimojong disturbances have led to destruction of crops, stealing of property, killing and displacing people, disrupting school and agricultural activities, abducting children and raping women. There has been a problem of food shortage caused by unreliable rainfall, poor farming methods, lack of improved seeds, disruption of agricultural activities due to insecurity and sale of food leaving no reserve. There was inadequate provision of health services due to insufficient physical resources and limited number of qualified personnel. There is no access to credit especially by the youth. There was a problem of the internally displaced people (IDPs) who are mainly in the district of Kitgum creating pressure on land and other resources especially in areas where refugee camps exist. Therefore, the paper argues from available data that while poverty was on the decline in the rest of the country, it was increasing in the northern part of the country.

MFPED (2001) 'Rapid Rural Appraisal on the Poverty Situation in the North: Lira District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Poverty Monitoring Unit, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

The study was conducted to answer the question of why, while poverty was reducing in other parts of Uganda, it was increasing in the Districts of the Northern part of Uganda. Specifically the study wanted to know the situation of the internally displaced people (IDPs), get alternative agro-based enterprises to promote in the North, find out the most vulnerable groups of people in the north and to obtain a trend analysis of the key factors influencing livelihoods in communities over the last ten years. It was found out that Lira District does not have internally displaced people living in Camps. It was only during the height of cattle rustling and insurgency in the North in the mid 1980s that there were IDPs in the district. There is little differentiation in the livelihood of the people in the different wealth categories in Lira District. The main difference occurs in ownership of assets and sources of income. While the poor rely on sale of produce and sale of their casual labour, the rich and the average have livestock which they sell and have small businesses. Among the problems identified that the people face are food insecurity, insecurity, lack of farm tools, inadequate safe water, lack of reliable sources of income, limited access to medical services, unemployment among the youth, especially those who drop out of school and heavy work loads of women.

MFPED (2001) 'Rapid Rural Appraisal on the Poverty Situation in the North: Kitgum District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Poverty Monitoring Unit, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

MFPED (2001) 'Poverty Indicators' Discussion Paper no. 4. Kampala, Uganda: Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

www.finance.go.ug

The paper identifies characteristics (indicators) associated with being poor that can be used to monitor poverty trends in Uganda. The study relies on the definition of poverty based on household consumption per adult equivalent, which is used to approximate household income. Empirical relevance of 255 potential poverty indicators is examined through rigorous testing to come up with easily quantifiable and monitored indicators. It develops a 'poverty correlates' model for Uganda which identifies 10-20 core poverty indicators that can be used to design a light survey compared to the national household survey. The indicators cover a wide range of household characteristics such as demography, education, health, employment, income, consumption, assets, dwelling, community, welfare, location, and shocks.

MFPED (2000) 'Rapid Rural Appraisal on the Poverty Situation in the North: Lira District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Poverty Monitoring Unit, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

MFPED (2000) 'Bushenyi District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

http://www.uppap.or.ug/docs/District_PPA_Reports/Bushenyi.pdf

The report covered issues concerning the local perceptions of poverty, vulnerability and well-being, livelihoods, access and quality of services, governance and policy awareness. Poverty is described at individual, household and community levels. Causes of poverty were identified as inadequate land, high expenditure in relation to income, large family sizes of 8-9 children, lack of primary and post primary education, lack of information and inadequate income-generating opportunities. Vulnerable groups to poverty were listed as widows, orphans, the aged, the landless, drunkards, the uneducated, school drop-outs, widowers, youth, the sick and victims of all forms of the AIDS diseases.

MFPED (2000) 'Kabarole District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

http://www.uppap.or.ug/docs/District_PPA_Reports/Kabarole.pdf

The report correlated key findings with the PEAP priorities. It covers issues concerning the local perception of poverty, vulnerability and well-being, livelihood, access and quality of services, governance and policy awareness. The communities described poverty at three levels, namely, individual, household and community. They noted lack of income-generating activities as a major constraint. The main sources of livelihood in this area are subsistence farming, cattle keeping, informal and formal sources of employment and remittances. It was noted that there existed poor access to social services and infrastructure. Agricultural extension services were missing and the communities were faced with a serious problem of crop vermin, pests and diseases. There was prevalence of malaria, measles, cough, HIV/AIDS and influenza. Health facilities were not within 5-Km distance from the centre of the village in two of the 4 communities visited. The paper finally recommended the need to sensitise the people about government policy since this was missing in the communities.

MFPED (2000) 'Kalangala District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

http://www.uppap.or.ug/docs/District_PPA_Reports/Kalangala.pdf

Kalangala District is made of several separated Islands on Lake Victoria making it a typical example of what can be referred to as a remote area. The district does not have electricity which has adversely affected the fishing industry. Health services are extremely underdeveloped both in terms of personnel and infrastructure. The fragmented nature of the islands makes attendance of school by children difficult. The report shows that there is need for more feeder roads and maintenance of the existing few. Out of the 83 small islands, a ferry to the mainland connects only one main island and the rest are connected by very expensive and irregular private engine boat transport. The remoter communities of the islands are most affected by this problem. The *mailo* and public land tenure systems predominant on the island have resulted in big chunks of land being in the hands of few people complicating development. The people are faced with serious agricultural problems, including pests, vermin and lack of extension services. Residents were critical of the *entandikwa*¹¹ credit scheme that benefited those who were already well off. Among the issues that need attention were improved fish policy and conditions of fishermen, diversification of external fish markets, fish preservation technology and development of rural market infrastructure in the district. The report suggests that there is need to attract investment in fish processing and development of alternative industries such as eco-tourism on the islands.

MFPED (2000) 'Kampala District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

http://www.uppap.or.ug/docs/District_PPA_Reports/Kampala.pdf

The report argues that most of the measures in the PEAP are in line with the immediate and long-term set needs of communities in Kampala. It goes further to identify the specific existing conditions in the city, which are highlighted to strengthen the PEAP. It is reported that although the road network in Kampala is relatively well developed compared to other parts of the country, a number of areas in the city were said to have poor and inadequate access to roads, a problem that was more pronounced in the slum areas. Although it is identified that Kampala has at least five tenure systems, the distribution varies between divisions with three of the five divisions having 90 % of the holdings under *mailo* tenure system. Some limited agriculture is practiced in Kampala although this sector is not as important a sector in the city as it is in the rural areas. Residents considered markets as one of the most important institutions for both food supply and at the same time source of income. Residents view unemployment as one of the major problems facing people in Kampala characterised by tribalism and nepotism as far as allocation is concerned. Micro and small-scale enterprises are the most predominant means of livelihood for the majority of the

¹¹ The word *entandikwa* means initial capital referring to a revolving micro-finance scheme that was initiated and operated by the government of Uganda with the aim of accessing credit to the poor to invest in small scale enterprises. This scheme however never took off due to high default rates and low recovery rates. It is also said to have failed to target the poor due to poor implementation.

populations in Kampala. They are constrained by finances, which can act as start up capital due to lack of collateral for accessing loans. Although Kampala has relatively more developed and distributed health facilities compared to other regions of the country, the quality of services was noted to have deteriorated especially in the 1990s, which poses a lot of concern. Schools were well distributed in Kampala although the quality of services was noted to be on a declining trend attributed to the introduction of the UPE. The report identifies a number of priority environmental concerns that require urgent corrective measures. Among these are pollutants from industries, poor polythene paper disposal methods, lack of toilet facilities in many houses, poorly maintained drainage systems and extremely inefficient garbage disposal.

MFPED (2000) 'Kapchorwa District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

http://www.uppap.or.ug/docs/District_PPA_Reports/Kapchorwa.pdf

The report argues that the understanding of poverty and well-being by Sabinu people revolves around wealth and social network of which emphasis was on possession of productive assets like land, oxen, donkeys and grinding mills. It is pointed out that inter-generation transfers play a big role in determining the economic and social capital that an individual possesses. However, inheritance norms and practices favour only male children making it difficult for females to access and control assets. Although the tarmac trunk road was being constructed, both the trunk road and feeder roads were in very appalling conditions. The terrain and nature of soils in Kapchorwa requires that a lot of efforts and money are needed to construct and maintain all categories of roads. Markets were generally underdeveloped because of the poor road network. Farming was facing among other problems; expensive inputs (oxen, ploughs, pesticides, hybrid seeds etc), and absence of veterinary personnel and agricultural extension workers. There was total ignorance about the Land Act of 1998 and its provisions. The communities also voiced inadequacy of farmland as one of their problems of concern. The people most affected were women who lacked ownership rights and immigrants who lacked access to land. The approach to health in the district focused on a preventive rather than a curative approach. There is marked improvement in the coverage of pit latrines although levels are still below the acceptable standards. Communities indicated that they lacked clean and safe water, forcing them to draw water from either unprotected springs or rivers, moreover very far away. Although communities had schools within 2-3 km distance, they had limited basic facilities such as classrooms and desks. There was insecurity resulting in displacement, and food shortages, which required government support. The report recommends that government should look into different options of providing some form of security against future raids.

MFPED (2000) 'Kisoro District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

http://www.uppap.or.ug/docs/District_PPA_Reports/Kisoro.pdf

The report covered issues concerning the local perception of poverty, vulnerability and well-being. Poverty is described at three levels, that is, individual household and community. It

goes further to cover issues concerning livelihood, access and quality of services, governance and accountability, policy awareness and community action planning. The report summarises people's own view of poverty. A poor person is viewed as one with limited access to food and other basic necessities, inadequate assets for production or easily convertible assets into consumption. A poor community is one with limited opportunities to enhance livelihood. The vulnerable (the elderly, disabled orphaned, widowed homeless children, minority ethnic groups) were closely associated with high levels of poverty. The paper proposes that poverty reduction intervention need to give specific focus to the disadvantaged people. Key findings are related to the PEAP.

MFPED (2000) 'Kotido District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

http://www.uppap.or.ug/docs/District_PPA_Reports/Kotido.pdf

The report analyses findings in terms of their relevance to the plans that government already has to eradicate poverty. Priorities of the people are related to those of government in terms of resource development, especially enhancing health, skill development, productivity and morale. The communities described poverty as a situation whereby a person does not have anything or lacks everything needed in life. It viewed poverty as a state of helplessness whereby a person has barely and absolutely nothing to survive. Material and non-material indicators are used to define poverty. Poverty is understood to include lack of or inadequate livestock especially cattle, lack of money to afford medication and education for children, lack of employment, food insecurity and lack of credit to purchase farm inputs. Causes of poverty from the viewpoint of the communities included unemployment, insecurity, cattle raiding, unfavourable weather conditions and isolation from the rest of the country, leading to a poor state of infrastructure. It is concluded that priorities of the community rhyme with those of the PEAP and the former complements in enhancing the latter's capacity and efforts to implement its programmes of poverty eradication.

MFPED (2000) 'Kumi District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

http://www.uppap.or.ug/docs/District_PPA_Reports/Kumi.pdf

Local perceptions of poverty are given and they are related to both material and non-material assets as well as monetary and non-monetary assets. Crop farming remained the major source of livelihood. However, it is adversely affected by lack of inputs, especially oxen for ploughing, pests and diseases. Cattle rustling is identified as the major frustrating factor in the cattle industry followed by animal diseases and pestilence. Marketing of both livestock and crops remained a major dilemma. Gender dimensions arising out of culture made women more vulnerable to poverty despite the heavy workloads that characterise their daily routine. The report further makes an observation of the implications of these findings and gives recommendations to address these issues. The recommendations made are well covered in the PEAP framework and can be informative in addressing its particular objectives.

MFPED (2000) 'Moyo District Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

http://www.uppap.or.ug/docs/District_PPA_Reports/Moyo.pdf

The communities identified major causes of poverty as constraints to agriculture and fishing, natural calamities like draught, floods and hailstorms, poor governance and leadership, corruption and bad policies, insecurity, inadequate and costly services, unsafe water and increasing disease incidence, bad cultural practices and vulnerability and exclusion especially of women and widows. Moyo is isolated and related to remoteness and due to the presence of a refuge settlement, land pressure and food shortages were mentioned as major issues.

MFPED (2000) 'Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process Report'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

http://www.uppap.or.ug/docs/District_PPA_Reports/National%20Report%20New%20Edition.pdf

MFPED (2000) 'Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Report: Learning From the Poor'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

<http://www.uppap.or.ug/>

The Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Report results from Government of Uganda efforts to bring the voices and perspectives of the poor into central and local governments' policy formulation, planning and implementation as it implements the Poverty Eradication Action Plan. It is also intended to strengthen and complement quantitative poverty monitoring. The report shows that local people define poverty beyond the lack of income and material assets. Poverty to them means isolation, exclusion, powerlessness, deprivation of basic human rights and a feeling of helplessness to influence the conditions around oneself. They distinguish between household poverty and community poverty. ' Household poverty is seen as a situation of perpetual need for daily necessities of life and a feeling of powerlessness, while community poverty is regarded as the absence of basic physical infrastructure and services, productive assets and social harmony within the community' (px). They view poverty as complex, non-uniform, multi-dimensional, cyclic and seasonal. They characterise rural and urban poverty clearly distinguishing the two, and identify causes of poverty. They articulate what is needed to improve their livelihood as, human resource development, building the country's physical infrastructure, enabling the poor to gain access to natural resources.

MFPED (2000) 'Uganda Poverty Profile: What do we know about the Poor?' Discussion Paper no. 3. Kampala, Uganda: Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

The paper tries to shed more light on the socio-economic characteristics of the poor. Three poverty categories - 'non-poor', 'poor' and 'very poor' are identified. This profile defines poverty using one dimension - consumption expenditure, which is a proxy for income. Children constitute the majority of both rural and urban poor. In the Western region, the elderly constitute a sizeable proportion of the urban poorest 20 %. In all the four regions, poor households both in rural and urban areas are large (average of 5). The urban poor population has a large proportion of divorced or separated persons. Overall, the unmarried poor both in rural and urban areas are mainly the men while divorcees are predominantly female. The proportion of the population engaged in agriculture was much higher among the poor than the non-poor. The urban poor have a disproportionately large female population that is engaged in agriculture. The non-poor have service sector enterprises, especially those in urban areas. Men dominate the service sector, among the poor and non-poor, in both rural and urban areas. Twenty four percent of the adult population from urban non-poor households were unemployed (educated & have skills and are trying to join the service sector which is still small). Twenty five percent of the urban poor are not employed (may be due to lack of skills). The majority of the unemployed (both poor and non-poor) were women. The proportion of poor households in the rural areas reporting owning some form of asset is higher (40 %) than in urban areas (10%). For the non-poor, the percentage of those who have completed some primary schooling is above the national average. Low levels of education among both the poor and non-poor are most acute in rural areas. The non-poor, especially in the urban areas, have attained significant levels of post primary education. Some of the poorest 20% in the north and the east were degree holders. There are proportionately more women who have had no education among the poor, especially in rural areas. The illiteracy rate is high among the poor, especially among the poorest 20%. There is a significant variation in the literacy rates between rural and urban areas, with the former being the worst. For both rural and urban areas, the proportion of women that cannot read and write is double that of men. Although a significant proportion of the poor own houses, the dwellings are of poor quality (huts). Renting was widespread among the non-poor especially in the urban areas (65%). Forty two percent of the population were using unprotected wells/springs with additional 12 % using river/lake or stream water.

Namara, S. (2001) '*Poverty Situation in Northern Uganda: Review of Evidence for MFPED*'. Kampala, Uganda: Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

The report highlights why poverty reduction has been fastest in the central region and slowest in the northern region of Uganda. It presents indicators that show this phenomenon and justifies the desk review to examine the underlying factors for this situation. The papers attempts to review the socio-economic features that explain the poverty status in the region, the situation of the internally displaced people, it identifies the most vulnerable groups in light of the changes that have occurred in the region, and makes proposals of the best strategies that can address the socio-economic problems and development in the north.

Okidi J. and Mugambe, G. (2002) *An Overview of Chronic Poverty and Development Policy in Uganda* CPRC Working Paper no. 11. Manchester, UK: Chronic Poverty Research Centre.

<http://www.chronicpoverty.org/pdfs/uganda.pdf>

The paper uses consumption expenditure data of panel households to characterise chronic poverty by tracking households' poverty status overtime. It reveals that although the majority of households moved into and out of poverty during the 1990s, all the panel households that experienced persistent poverty for at least five years were engaged in agricultural self-employment as the main economic activity. This evidence underscores the importance of off-farm opportunities in poverty alleviation. The paper adopts the poorest 20 % of the population, whose living standard did not significantly improve during the 1993 and 1996 period, and those who experience persistent poverty over time, as chronically poor. The paper notes that chronic poverty has not attracted a policy focus in Uganda, until now, because of the high rate of absolute poverty and the low level of human development in the country. The paper highlights Uganda's main anti-poverty programmes and suggests that the chronically poor may not benefit much from Uganda's Economic growth programmes, which primarily aim at creating an enabling environment for economic agents to exploit, using their initial endowment of capabilities.

Okurut, F., Odwee, J. and Adebua, A. (2002) *Determinants of Regional Poverty in Uganda* AERC Research Paper no. 122 and EPRC Research Series No. 8. Nairobi, Kenya and Kampala, Uganda: African Economic Research Consortium and Economic Policy Research Centre. Nairobi, Kenya: Majestic Printing Works.

<http://www.aercafrica.org/documents/rp122.pdf>

The study aimed at getting in-depth knowledge of the factors that account for regional poverty differentials in Uganda, with a view to contributing to more focused targeting of the poor. Data used was from the Integrated Household survey 1992. The survey instruments covered areas like household composition, educational costs, health, mortality, fertility, household income, loan, savings, transfer payments and asset ownership. National and regional food poverty lines were estimated to identify poor households. A comparison of the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the poor households between and within regions was done. Poverty indices for Uganda based on the national and regional food poverty lines were computed. The authors find that based on the national poverty line, Northern Uganda is the poorest, has the largest depth of poverty and greatest inequality. It is characterised by the poor having large mean household sizes, least education, least mean household income, least expenditure on health, lowest chance of child survival and highest concentration of the poor in the rural areas. At multivariate level, education level of household head, household size and migration status were found to be significant determinants of household poverty in Uganda. Generally, poor households are more predominant in rural areas and engage in agriculture with poor infrastructure. The authors recommend government improvement in access to social services (education, health and rural infrastructure) mainly used by the poor.

Okwi, P. (1999) 'Poverty in Uganda: A Multivariate Analysis' EPRC Research Series no. 22. Kampala, Uganda: Economic Policy Research Centre.

Direct modelling of the determinants of poverty indicates that poverty is more rural based and closely related to adult equivalent household size, education and age of the head, access to assets such as land, the regional location of the household and distance to the nearest hospital. The study reveals that prospects of escaping or falling into poverty are significantly determined by differences in the above factors. The model did not challenge but reinforced the impression created by recent literature that there is not a close relationship between poverty and gender of the household head.

Poverty trends in Uganda

Appleton, S. (2001) 'Poverty in Uganda, 1999/2000: Preliminary Estimates from the UNHS'. Nottingham, UK: University of Nottingham.

The paper makes a comparison of 1992 and 2000 nationally representative household surveys to show substantial growth in private consumption and marked reduction in poverty. The paper identifies groups to have gained most from the growth in terms of poverty reduction: Among households headed by coffee farmers, government employees (civil service, defence, education and health sectors) and traders poverty rates halved. Among agricultural households not growing coffee, and households where the head is not working, rates were below average. Except for the small number of mining households in the sample, all socio-economic groups saw poverty rates cut by over a quarter. Growth was slowest among the poorest rural households. Urban areas enjoyed much faster growth on average than rural areas resulting in increase in inequality. Poverty fell in both rural and urban areas, although the reduction was proportionally larger in urban areas. The paper notes that the most significant disaggregation when considering the beneficiaries of growth appears to be geographic rather than socio-economic.

Appleton, S. (2001) 'Poverty Reduction During Growth: The Case of Uganda, 1992-2000'. Nottingham, UK: University of Nottingham.

<http://www.uppap.or.ug/docs/simonpaper.pdf>

The paper uses household survey data to track changes in living standards and poverty in Uganda during the 1990s. It reveals a sustained growth in real private consumption per capita averaging 5% per annum. Growth in Uganda has been broad-based, with all deciles on the distribution seeing their living standards rising by a third or more during the period. Although within the urban and rural areas, inequality has not increased significantly, growth has been faster in urban areas compared to rural areas. A consequence of this is the widening of the rural-urban gap and increase in inequality at national level. There were marked geographic variations with progress in the north being modest and partially reversed at the end of the period. Using an estimated poverty line, 56% of Ugandans were found to be poor in 1992/93, and reduced to 35% in 1999/2000 implying a fall in poverty during that period. Distribution

of consumption worsened in the same period showing that the entire fall in poverty is attributed to growth rather than distribution. Disaggregation of poverty by the main industry of the household head showed that all sizeable socio-economic groups experienced reduction in poverty of a quarter or more. While households headed by cash crop farmers, government employees and traders had poverty rates halved, those headed by farmers growing food crops and not working experienced below average poverty reduction.

Appleton, S. (2001) 'Changes in Poverty and Inequality' in Reinikka, R. and Collier, P. (eds.) *Uganda's Recovery: The Role of Farms, Firms, and Government*. Washington DC: World Bank.

http://publications.worldbank.org/ecommerce/catalog/product?item_id=226236

Appleton, S. (1998) 'Changes in Poverty in Uganda, 1992-1996' World Bank Africa Region Macroeconomics Paper no. 2. Oxford, UK: Centre for the Study of African Economies.

<http://www.worldbank.org/research/sapri/uganda/appleton.pdf>

The study analyses four nationally representative household surveys from Uganda, which show a fall in poverty from 1992-1996. By use of an absolute poverty line, it is demonstrated that poverty fell from 56% in 1992 to 46% in 1996. This fall is attributed to growth and not redistribution. The sectors that benefited most are the cash crop farming, manufacturing and distribution sectors. The region that gained least is the Northern Uganda, which is dominated by non-working heads of households. 'The poorest 20% in both rural and urban areas experienced falls in their living standards during the course of the three monitoring surveys. Poverty worsened during the four surveys for those in households where the head was not working' (p27).

Appleton, S. (1998) 'Changes in Poverty in Uganda, 1992-1997' CASE Working Paper Series. Oxford, UK: Centre for the Study of African Economies.

<http://www.csae.ox.ac.uk/workingpapers/pdfs/9922text.pdf>

Abstract:

Analysis of five nationally representative household surveys from Uganda show a fall in poverty from 1992-1997. Using an absolute poverty line calculated following Ravallion and Bidani, we find 56% of Ugandans were poor in 1992 falling to 44% in 1997/8. The conclusion that poverty fell is robust to the choice of poverty measure and poverty line. General growth accounts for most of the fall in poverty, although there was also an improvement in the progressivity of the distribution. Up to 1995/96, half of the fall in poverty was attributable to coffee-growing households. Poverty increased in households with non-working heads.

Deininger, K. and Okidi, J. (2002) 'Growth and Poverty reduction in Uganda, 1992-2000: Panel Data Evidence' Paper presented at the 2002 annual conference on Africa at the Centre for the Study of African Economies, Oxford. Kampala, Uganda: Economic Policy Research Centre.

Factors underlying growth and poverty reduction in Africa as well as the magnitude of future challenges are explored by using micro level evidence from Uganda spanning the 1992-2000 period. During the period, economic growth in Uganda was considerable and per capita expenditure distribution in 2000 dominates that of 1992. Relative disparities seem to have widened suggesting that not everybody benefited equally from the economic growth. There was marked growth of consumption and reduction in poverty in the East, Central and Western regions but limited in the North. Levels of asset inequality decreased considerably at national and regional levels. Poverty in the panel declined significantly from 54 % in 1992 to 36 % in 2000 at national level. At regional level the north was lagging behind. Disaggregation of changes in poverty by rural and urban economy highlights that reductions in poverty were more pronounced in urban as compared to rural areas with the rural North considerably lagging behind.

Determinants of growth and poverty reduction suggest that initial asset ownership and health status facilitate growth, and the effect of education is closely linked to access to modern infrastructure (electricity) that provide an opportunity to apply the skills required. Civil strife has a significant growth reducing effect. Higher coffee prices had a significant and quantitatively large impact on household income and welfare supporting the importance government attaches to liberalisation of agricultural output prices.

Determinants of poverty reduction are estimated by regressing the poverty gap and the squared poverty gaps on the other factors identified as having effect on growth. Initial assets levels, i.e. human and physical, have overriding importance. Households suffering from health problems in 1992 were characterised by higher levels of poverty in 2000. Access to electricity and infrastructure were associated with significantly lower poverty levels in the second period. Higher household size was associated with higher poverty levels.

Jones, C. and Xiao, Y. (1997) 'Issues in Comparing Poverty Trends Over Time in Côte d'Ivoire' WB Working Paper no. 1711. Washington DC: Policy Research Department, Macroeconomics and Growth Division, World Bank.

http://econ.worldbank.org/files/12324_wps1711.pdf

Abstract:

Cote d'Ivoire is one of the few African countries in Sub-Saharan Africa that conducted household surveys between 1985 and 1995. These surveys make it possible to trace changes in urban and rural poverty and changes in poverty among different socioeconomic groups.

During the decade surveyed, the country experienced a major recession. Economic recovery began only with the devaluation of the CFA franc in January 1994. Poverty increased substantially during the recession and did not diminish in the year after devaluation, in part because much of the increase in export crop prices, especially for cocoa, was taxed away.

Moreover, the effects of the recession and devaluation were not uniform. Between 1988 and 1993, urban poverty increased faster than rural poverty did, though mean expenditures in urban areas remained substantially above mean expenditures in rural areas. And food crop farmers apparently suffered more than export crop farmers. These trends persisted after devaluation.

But exploring poverty trends across regions and socioeconomic groups raises questions about the patterns of change and the reliability of the data and the methods used to derive poverty estimates. Secondary data cast some doubt on certain survey findings, suggesting that they may be more an artefact of the survey data than a reflection of real economic trends.

These problems are not unique to Cote d'Ivoire. Results from surveys in Uganda and to a lesser extent Ghana have also raised issues of comparability.

The ability to draw reliable conclusions from time-series data is crucial for our understanding of how policy reform affects poverty. Far more attention must be paid to comparison issues in designing surveys and analyzing data. Attention must also be paid to developing better regional and temporal price indices, if reliable time series data are to be generated for Sub-Saharan Africa.

MFPED (1998) 'Poverty Trends in Uganda 1992-1996' Discussion Paper no. 2. Kampala, Uganda: Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

www.finance.go.ug

The purpose of the paper was to compliment earlier work on poverty analyses and shed more light on the various issues on poverty that were being raised in the poverty discourse. It reported that overall, poverty declined substantially during the period 1992-1996, that is, while in 1992, 52 % of the population was not meeting their basic requirements in 1996, there was a drop to 46 %. However, this improvement in living standards did not benefit the poorest 20 % because they became poorer. While poverty fell in both rural and urban areas, it fell proportionately more in urban than rural areas. Between 1994- 1996, the poorest populations in the rural areas experienced more intense poverty. While all regions experienced a fall in poverty with the central region being ahead, the northern and eastern regions lagged behind. This reduction in poverty is more explained by growth than redistribution. Poverty fell in nearly all sectors except in the mining and non-working sectors. The paper discusses the apparent contradictions between quantitative and qualitative approaches to poverty studies and offers an explanation that both approaches are correct owing to the different methodologies used. The paper concludes by giving the government anti-poverty eradication initiatives.

Okidi , J., Okwi , P. and Ddumba ,J. (2000) 'Welfare Distribution and Poverty in Uganda, 1992-1997' EPRC Occasional Paper no. 6. Kampala, Uganda: Economic Policy Research Centre.

http://www.eprc.or.ug/researchers_welfare.htm

The study exploited available national household survey data to investigate trends in inequality and changes in living standards in Uganda from 1992 to 1997. It reveals that at the national level and in rural Uganda, inequality increased from 1992 to 1996, a period when the country began enjoying the growth benefits of economic liberalisation. In urban areas, there was an initial fall in inequality between 1992 and 1994 before tapering off to its 1997 level. Regionally, Northern Uganda, which is the poorest part of the country, experienced the largest decline in inequality[YUN1] between 1992 and 1997 [YUN2].¹² The study further shows that a growth-led poverty alleviation program is capable of significantly impacting poverty incidence in the long run. The stochastic dominance results, like other previous studies, confirm that the initial focus on growth in the economic reform process in Uganda has had a significant poverty reduction impact. The paper, however, argues that without systematic attention to distribution, the economy cannot fully capture the poverty alleviation benefits of growth. The paper therefore asserts that the current emphasis of policy statements on the poorest of the poor is timely. Poverty eradication through the modernisation of agriculture will go a long way to enable growth achieve redistribution.

Poverty in institutional and governance context

Campos, E. and Pradhan, S. (1996) 'Budgetary Institutions and Expenditure Outcomes: Binding Governments to Fiscal Performance' WB Working Paper no. 1646. Washington DC: Policy Research Department, Public Economics Division, World Bank.

http://econ.worldbank.org/files/906_wps1646.pdf

How institutional arrangements affect incentives governing the size, allocation, and use of budgetary resources and improve transparency and accountability -- binding key players to particular fiscal outcomes and making it costly for them to misbehave.

Abstract:

Campos and Pradhan examine how institutional arrangements affect incentives that govern the size, allocation, and use of budgetary resources. They use a diagnostic questionnaire designed to elicit the relative strengths and weaknesses of specific systems in terms of instilling fiscal discipline, strategically assigning spending priorities, and making the best use of limited resources. In applying their methodology to a sample of seven countries (Australia, Ghana, Indonesia, Malawi, New Zealand, Thailand, and Uganda), they also examine how donor assistance affects expenditure outcomes.

They first compare the far-reaching reforms introduced in Australia and New Zealand, two countries at the cutting edge of institutional reform. In New Zealand, reform focused on

¹² This sounds contradictory to other studies done by the same authors. 'A possible explanation for this is that the war in the region economically weakened the relatively better off such that there has been no major improvements in their welfare. At the same time there could have been a significant improvement in the welfare of the poor shrinking the gap between the very poor and the better off' (p. 33).

achieving general fiscal discipline and technical efficiency (getting the best output at the least cost). In Australia, reform focused on strategic priorities and a shift from central to line agencies to identify savings within hard budget constraints. The two countries took dramatically different paths, but both sought to alter the incentives that affect the size, allocation, and use of resources, and to improve transparency and accountability, binding key players to particular fiscal outcomes and making it costly for them to misbehave.

Donors play a central role in spending outcomes in the three African countries studied: Ghana, Malawi, and Uganda. Donors provided incentives for short-term fiscal discipline, but the way they imposed spending cuts impeded the prioritizing of expenditures, and multiple donor projects fragmented the budget. Donor conditionality on the composition of expenditures, and donor-driven attempts to improve technical efficiency, were ineffective. Lack of transparency and accountability meant that rules were not enforced and budgets were often remade in an ad hoc, centralized way, so that the flow of resources to line agencies was unpredictable.

Collier, P. (1999) 'The Challenge of Ugandan Reconstruction, 1986-98'. Washington DC: World Bank..

http://econ.worldbank.org/files/13199_UgandanReconstruction.pdf

Abstract:

Ugandan economic performance is now among the most successful in the world. Rapid growth is reducing poverty, prices are stable, and investor confidence has increased more than anywhere else in Africa. This is the main example of successful African economic liberalisation and so it is important to understand the process. However, Uganda's current success can only be understood in terms of its past. Over the period 1971-86 both the Ugandan economy and Ugandan society collapsed. By 1986, when the National Resistance Movement captured Kampala and formed a government, Uganda had suffered the predations of Idi Amin and three further transient presidents, including civil war, mass emigration of the skilled, and mass murder. Current success is thus a recovery from conflict. Indeed, Uganda is the main example of successful African post-conflict recovery.

The preceding collapse made the attainment of rapid growth easier in some respects, and more difficult in others. It was easier in that there were resources to draw upon, for example, there was the scope to induce repatriation of human and financial capital. It was more difficult in that social and institutional collapse left a persistent inheritance, such as low trust and high opportunism. This makes Ugandan success more complex, but also potentially even more illuminating than if it were a straightforward story of economic liberalisation. Most of Africa's currently problematic economies will need to replicate Uganda's transition to rapid growth from an inheritance of social decay. Our study thus aims to understand the twin processes of liberalisation and reconstruction, and their interrelation. The need for social reconstruction changed the liberalisation program both by constraining it, and by introducing new priorities. The need for liberalisation similarly changed the reconstruction program.

This chapter analyses post-1986 performance from the perspective of the inheritance of socio-economic collapse. What is distinctive about an economy newly emerged from internal

conflict? How successful was the Ugandan government in meeting the twin needs of enhanced security and poverty reduction? First, we attempt to quantify the inheritance of social disorder which faced the NRM in 1986. How prone was the society to further conflict and how had the level and structure of economic activity been altered? We then turn to the implications for government security policy. As we show, the government had little choice but to attach some priority to making Uganda a safer society. We ask how this might have been achieved, and to what extent NRM policy succeeded in reducing the risk of conflict. Finally, we turn to the implications for economic policy. How should the inheritance have changed priorities, and to what extent was this recognised in practice?

Ellis, F. and Bahiigwa, G. (2001) 'Livelihoods and Poverty Reduction in Uganda' LADDER Working Paper no. 5. University of East Anglia, Norwich, UK: Livelihoods and Diversification Directions Explored by Research, Overseas Development Group.

<http://www.odg.uea.ac.uk/ladder/doc/wp5.pdf>

Abstract:

The paper reports findings of research conducted in Uganda on the institutional context of rural livelihoods, and the factors that enable or disable the pursuit of individuals and families of paths out of poverty. Results showed that poorer groups of people in rural Uganda depend mainly on food crop agriculture, seasonal wage income, and remittances for their livelihoods while the better-off combine food crop agriculture with raising livestock and engagement in non-farm self-employment activities. The poorer have least access to land implying that their efforts to raise food crop yields would not help much. It is argued that becoming less reliant on agriculture is part of the process of becoming better off.

The institutional environment that rural people in Uganda face does not promise to reduce poverty rapidly. While education and roads centrally provided are promising, the delivery of local support services such as agricultural extension remains weak. The taxation system from the taxpayers' perspective appears to penalise engagement in magnetised economic activity ranging from crop sales and trade, to non-farm business. The paper raises the disjuncture between the declared goals of the PEAP and the PMA and the emerging local tax regime. The paper concludes that for policy purposes, there is a need to rethink the tax regime, if progress in poverty reduction in rural areas of Uganda, beyond what has already been experienced, is to be achieved.

Fisman, R. and Svensson, J. (2000) 'Are Corruption and Taxation Really Harmful to Growth? Firm-Level Evidence' WB Working Paper no. 2485. Washington DC: Macroeconomics and Growth, Development Research Group, World Bank.

http://econ.worldbank.org/files/1295_wps2485.pdf

Evidence from Uganda confirms that corruption retards development even more than taxation does.

Abstract:

Exploiting a unique data set containing information about the estimated bribe payments of Ugandan firms, Fisman and Svensson study the relationship between bribe payments, taxes, and firm growth in Uganda for the period 1995–97. Using industry-location averages to circumvent the potential problem of endogeneity and to deal with issues of measurement error, they find that both the rate of taxation and the rate of bribery are negatively correlated with firm growth. For the full data set, a one percentage point increase in the bribery rate is associated with a three percentage point reduction in firm growth—an effect about three times that of taxation. Moreover, after excluding outliers, the authors find that bribery has a much greater negative impact on growth, and taxation a considerably smaller one. This provides some validation of firm-level theories of corruption, which posit that corruption retards development even more than taxation does.

MFPED (2002) ‘Challenges and Prospects for Poverty Reduction in the Northern Uganda’ Discussion Paper no. 5. Kampala, Uganda: Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development

www.finance.go.ug

The paper analyses challenges and prospects of reducing poverty in Northern Uganda. Poverty in the North is viewed as deeply rooted in the history of the region. In the pre-colonial era (1770s-1880s), the region suffered from slave trade, which drew away its productive labour force and created a state of instability. During the colonial and post-colonial era (1890s-1990s) poverty is attributed to the colonial policy of setting apart Northern Uganda as a labour reservoir, denying the region the ability to join the vibrant cash crop economy that Southern Uganda enjoyed. This was accentuated by the policy of recruiting people from the North in the army and police, (due to their height) leaving them with the mindset of depending on the army as the only source of employment. This dominant position of people from the north in the army resulted in them seeing the gun as the key source of power. In the recent past, recruitment into the army from other areas of Uganda and disbanding of the armies of previous regimes has partly led to insurgency in the north, e.g. the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA). In the recent past, the paper suggests that the factors that are responsible for poverty in the north are insecurity (civil conflict and cattle rustling); climatic and environmental condition; low agricultural productivity due to rudimentary technology, limited knowledge and use of good farming practices, inadequate supply and high cost of inputs, limited market outlets and low producer prices; corruption, poor governance and accountability. The most vulnerable categories of people to poverty in the north are identified as elderly people, children, youth, internally displaced, women, people with disabilities and refugees. Finally recent and current trends in the areas of education, health, water and sanitation, dwellings and other welfare indicators that highlight the pathetic position and plight of the people in Northern Uganda are given.

MFPED/UGCAP (2000) ‘National Programme for Good Governance in the Context of the Poverty Eradication Action Plan’. Kampala, Uganda: Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development and Uganda Governance Capacity Project.

www.finance.go.ug

The UGCAP assesses Uganda's national governance systems capacity in terms of structures, institutions, personnel, processes, procedures, practices, relationship and leadership behaviour. The paper highlights achievements made so far, identifies priority areas for strengthening governance and identifies challenges that need to be addressed. Governance is one of the four pillars of the PEAP. It is argued that Uganda has made achievements in good governance especially concerning the political will to sustain governance and acceptance of democratic principles by the public. There is constitutional separation of powers and decentralisation is in its advanced stages. There are mechanisms and institutions to promote accountability, human rights, law and order. Policies targeting poverty eradication are in place. There is promotion of the civil society, and good relationships with donors and the international community. Identified priority areas for strengthening include 'justice, law and order, respect, protection and promotion of human rights and equity, public administration and services delivery, security, peace building and conflict resolution, transparency and accountability, planning, decentralisation and public information' (p ii). Challenges include illiteracy, sectarianism, ethnicity and regional socio-economic imbalances, consensus on governance systems, corruption, regional stability, HIV/AIDS, natural hazards and human environmental mismanagement, over-dependency, the debt burden and inadequate management and insufficient technical capacity at all levels of government (central and local).

James, R., Francis, P. and Perez, G. (2001) 'Institutional Context of Rural Poverty Reduction in Uganda: Decentralisation's Dual Nature' LADDER Working Paper no. 6. University of East Anglia, Norwich, UK: Livelihoods and Diversification Directions Explored by Research, Overseas Development Group.

<http://www.odg.uea.ac.uk/ladder/doc/wp6.pdf>

The paper argues that '...the process of the decentralisation has frequently been misread by government, donors and academicians because of a failure to appreciate the social and civic conditions which underpin it' (p3). Although decentralisation is commonly thought of as devolution of power downwards so as to promote both popular participation and more appropriate and effective service delivery, it is argued that this has been hampered by existing local political culture, with its values, alliances, informal interests and prevailing concepts of citizenship. In practice there has been a dual system. There is conditional funding from the centre to particular programmes. The money is regulated by upward accountability, and there is little scope for local decision making. This is contrasted by a bottom-up- planning that is in place and only controls a small proportion of district funding that is either locally generated or in the form of unconditional grants from the centre. These funds are mainly consumed in administrative costs and councillors' emoluments. There is a system in place that controls contracts and appointments, which entrenches the building of political alliances and loyalties. It is concluded that in the absence of a culture of transparency and civic engagement to assure downward accountability, a shadow of doubt is cast on whether, decentralisation will be harnessed to promote both efficient service delivery and local empowerment as intended.

WB (2001) *World Development Report 2002: Building Institutions for Markets*. Washington DC and Oxford, UK: World Bank and Oxford University Press.

<http://econ.worldbank.org/wdr/subpage.php?sp=2391>

Market reforms have had a mixed record at promoting growth, increasing productivity and alleviating poverty in developing countries across the world: from considerable success in some parts of East Asia, Latin America and Central Europe to disappointment in parts of Africa and the former Soviet Union. This has led policymakers to ask: Could market reforms do more to improve living standards if greater attention were devoted to developing institutions to support markets? What are the institutions which make markets effective in delivering inclusive growth and how do countries get these institutions?

The World Development Report 2002 "Building Institutions for Markets" addresses these questions. In particular, it discusses how it is that only countries with efficient and inclusive markets have seen significant income growth and poverty reduction. A key factor in developing such markets is market-enhancing institutions, which perform three essential functions: reduce information asymmetries; reduce the costs of dispute resolution/contract enforcement and to enhance competition in markets.

As in previous editions, the printed version of the World Development Report 2002 includes the Selected World Development Indicators, an essential reference on recent trends in development.

WB (completed 06 June 2002) Programme on 'Corruption'. Washington DC: World Bank.

<http://econ.worldbank.org/view.php?type=20&id=1489>

This study aimed to provide evidence on the determinants and consequences of corruption and the policy options that can be used to combat it. Using cross-country data, it identified the determinants of corruption and its correlates, including the relation between corruption and openness, decentralization, and gender. Using firm-level data on estimated bribe payments, it identified the determinants of graft.

The results suggest that corruption is negatively associated with openness and with the degree of fiscal decentralization and that in an environment characterized by systemic corruption, the amount that a firm needs to pay in bribes depends on the firm's characteristics. That is, bribes demanded are not fixed sums for given public services but depend on the firm's ability to pay. There is also evidence that greater participation of women in government is associated with less corruption across countries, and that highly variable tariff rates – which create greater opportunities for discretionary behaviour by public officials – are associated with more corruption.

The results refute the "efficient grease" hypothesis, which posits that bribery allows firms to get things done in an economy plagued by bureaucratic delays. Cross-country data reveal that firms that face more bribe demands are likely to spend more, not less, management time negotiating regulations with bureaucrats. Moreover, firm-level evidence indicates that the rate of bribery has a significant negative correlation with firm growth. New data from transition economies were used to study the incidence of state capture, in which firms and individuals manipulate the political process to obtain special favours.

Empirical research on governance and corruption is plagued by lack of consistent cross-country data spanning a large set of countries. To overcome this problem, this project constructed a large database, which includes more than 300 indicators. An unobserved components framework was used to combine related governance indicators from various sources into aggregate governance indicators. These aggregates are more reliable and span a larger set of countries than individual indicators, and they also have associated standard errors that are useful for drawing inferences about cross-country differences in governance. The data reveal a strong causal link between six aggregate governance indicators and development outcomes.

The findings have been presented at workshops at the World Bank and in client countries, at universities, and at academic meetings.

Associated Reports:

Dollar, D., Fisman, R. and Gatti, R. (1999) 'Are Women Really the "Fairer" Sex? Corruption and Women in Government' Policy Research Report on Gender and Development Working Paper Series no. 4. Washington DC: World Bank.

<http://www.worldbank.org/gender/prr/wp4.pdf>

Eskeland, G. and Thiele, H. (1999) 'Optimal Corruption under Moral Hazard'. Washington DC: Development Research Group, World Bank.

http://www.vwl.uni-muenchen.de/l_schmidt/research/disc/pdf/corr.pdf

Fisman, R. and Gatti, R. (2000) 'Decentralization and Corruption: Evidence Across Countries' Policy Research Working Paper Series no. 2290. Washington DC: Development Research Group, World Bank.

<http://www.worldbank.org/wbi/governance/pubs/wps2290.html>

Fisman, R. and Svensson, J. (1999) 'The Effects of Corruption and Taxation on Growth: Firm-Level Evidence'. New York City and Washington DC: Columbia Business School and Development Research Group, World Bank.

Gatti, R. (1999) 'Corruption and Trade Tariffs, or a Case for Uniform Tariffs' Policy Research Working Paper Series no. 2216. Washington DC: Development Research Group, World Bank.

<http://www.worldbank.org/wbi/governance/pubs/wps2216.html>

Gatti, R. (1999) 'Explaining Corruption: Are Open Countries Less Corrupt?' Washington DC: Development Research Group, World Bank.

Kaufmann, D. and Wei, S.J. (1998) 'Does Grease Money Speed Up the Wheels of Commerce?'. Washington DC: Development Research Group, World Bank.

<http://www.worldbank.org/wbi/governance/pdf/grease.pdf>

Kaufmann, D., Kraay, A. and Zoido-Lobaton, P. (1999) 'Aggregating Governance Indicators' Policy Research Working Paper Series no. 2195. Washington DC: Development Research Group, World Bank.

<http://www.worldbank.org/wbi/governance/pubs/aggindicators.html>

Kaufmann, D., Kraay, A. and Zoido-Lobaton, P. (1999) 'Governance Matters' Policy Research Working Paper Series no. 2196. Washington DC: Development Research Group, World Bank.
http://www-wds.worldbank.org/servlet/WDS_IBank_Servlet?pcont=details&eid=000094946_99101105050694

Smarzynska, B. and Wei, S.J. (2000) 'Corruption and the Composition of Foreign Direct Investment: Firm-Level Evidence' Policy Research Working Paper Series no. 2360. Washington DC: Development Research Group, World Bank.
http://www-wds.worldbank.org/servlet/WDS_IBank_Servlet?pcont=details&eid=000094946_00062406381471

Svensson, J. (2000) 'The Cost of Doing Business: Ugandan Firms' Experiences with Corruption' Washington DC: Development Research Group, World Bank.
<http://www.worldbank.org/afr/wps/wp6.pdf>

Svensson, J. (1999) 'Who Must Pay Bribes and How Much? Evidence from a Cross-Section of Firms' Policy Research Working Paper Series no. 2486. Washington DC: Development Research Group, World Bank.
http://www-wds.worldbank.org/servlet/WDS_IBank_Servlet?pcont=details&eid=000094946_00121302021262

Wei, S.J. (1999) 'Corruption in Economic Development – beneficial grease, minor annoyance, or major obstacle?' Policy Research Working Paper Series no. 2048. Washington DC: Development Research Group, World Bank.
http://www-wds.worldbank.org/servlet/WDS_IBank_Servlet?pcont=details&eid=000094946_99031911113468

Wei, S.J. (1999) 'Does Corruption Relieve Foreign Investors of the Burden of Taxes and Capital Controls?' Policy Research Working Paper Series no. 2209. Washington DC: Development Research Group, World Bank.
http://www-wds.worldbank.org/servlet/WDS_IBank_Servlet?pcont=details&eid=000094946_99110205341682

WB (completed January 1998) Programme on the 'Social and Environmental Consequences of Growth-Oriented Policies'. Washington DC: World Bank.

<http://econ.worldbank.org/view.php?type=20&id=137>

Abstract:

The World Bank has long maintained that economic growth is good for people and good for the environment. Yet scepticism persists about whether this "win-win-win" scenario applies in all places at all times. In some cases there are tradeoffs that clearly have to be considered: A

new factory that brings higher incomes may also foul the air and water. Expansion of smallholder farming may result in the loss of natural habitats. How significant and widespread are these tradeoffs? Do win-win-win solutions become fewer as an economy becomes more efficient? Are there instances in which economic growth is at odds with improved human and ecological welfare, or in which poverty can be reduced only by harming the environment?

This project addresses these and other questions about the relationships between poverty, growth, and the environment. It uses a systematic, quantitative approach and draws on extensive data reflecting a wide range of country experience that have recently become available. The study seeks to derive lessons from this experience to guide future policy, using three analytical methods.

The research done to date suggests the following conclusions: A more even income distribution is more important than initial income levels in determining the extent to which economic growth reduces poverty. Enforcement of pollution regulations increases with income and education in China and Indonesia, and informal pressures play an important part in determining pollution levels. On communal lands in Mexico poverty increases deforestation, while liberalizing agricultural pricing policies has the opposite effect. In Indonesia deforestation is sensitive to macroeconomic policies such as exchange rates, and in tropical Africa the location of infrastructure plays an important part in deforestation. In Pakistan the relationship between fertility and environmental degradation varies between regions, and in Nepal environmental degradation adversely affects schooling. In Ecuador and Indonesia investments in sanitation are found to improve with more secure tenure. In Brazil and Pakistan small-scale industries do not play as significant a part in pollution as previously thought.

Associated Reports:

Easterly, W. (1997) 'Life during Growth: A Compendium of Social, Political and Environmental Indicators of What Gets Better and What Gets Worse from Low to High Income' Poverty, Environment and Growth Working Paper no. 17. Washington DC: Policy Research Department, World Bank.

<http://www.worldbank.org/research/peg/wps17/wps17v2.pdf>

Filmer, D., and Pritchett, L. (1996) 'Environmental Degradation and the Demand for Children: Searching for the Vicious Circle' Poverty, Environment and Growth Working Paper no. 2. Washington DC: Policy Research Department, World Bank.

<http://www.worldbank.org/research/peg/wps02/wps02.pdf>

Heil, M. and Wodon, Q. (1997) 'Cross-Country Inequality by Energy Source, 1960-90' Poverty, Environment and Growth Working Paper no. 21. Washington DC: Policy Research Department, World Bank.

<http://www.worldbank.org/research/peg/wps21/paper2.pdf>

Heil, M. and Wodon, Q. (1997) 'Future Inequality in CO₂ Emissions and the Impact of Abatement Proposals' Poverty, Environment and Growth Working Paper no. 20. Washington DC: Policy Research Department World Bank.

<http://www.worldbank.org/research/peg/wps20/paper1.pdf>

Hoy, M. and Jimenez, E. (1997) 'The Impact on the Urban Environment of Incomplete Property Rights' Poverty, Environment and Growth Working Paper no. 14. Washington DC: Policy Research Department, World Bank.

<http://www.worldbank.org/research/peg/wps14/draft2.pdf>

Muthukumara, M. and Wheeler, D. (1997) 'In Search of Pollution Havens: Dirty Industry in the World Economy, 1960-95' Poverty, Environment and Growth Working Paper no. 16. Washington DC: Policy Research Department, World Bank.

Ravallion, M. (1996) 'Can High-Inequality Developing Countries Escape Absolute Poverty?' Poverty, Environment and Growth Working Paper no. 11. Washington DC: Policy Research Department, World Bank.

<http://www.worldbank.org/research/peg/wps11/elastic.pdf>

Ravallion, M. and Chen, S. (1996) 'What Can New Survey Data Tell Us about Recent Changes in Living Standards in Developing and Transitional Economies?' Poverty, Environment and Growth Working Paper no. 1. Washington DC: Policy Research Department, World Bank.

<http://www.worldbank.org/research/peg/wps01/poverty.pdf>

Ravallion, M., Heil, M. and Jalan, J. (1997) 'A Less Poor World, But a Hotter One?' Poverty, Environment and Growth Working Paper no. 13. Washington DC: Policy Research Department, World Bank.

<http://www.worldbank.org/research/peg/wps13/carbon.pdf>

Gender aspects of poverty

Newman, C. and Canagarajah, S. (2000) 'Gender, Poverty, and Nonfarm Employment in Ghana and Uganda' Working Paper no. 2367. Washington DC: World Bank.

<http://econ.worldbank.org/view.php?type=5&id=1121>

For women in Ghana and Uganda, non-farm activities play an important role in yielding the lowest - and the most rapidly declining - rural poverty rates. In both countries rural poverty declined fastest for female heads of household engaged in non-farm work (which tended to be a secondary activity). But patterns vary between the two countries.

Abstract:

Newman and Canagarajah provide evidence that women's non-farm activities help reduce poverty in two economically and culturally different countries, Ghana and Uganda. In both countries rural poverty rates were lowest - and fell most rapidly - for female heads of household engaged in non-farm activities. Participation in non-farm activities increased more rapidly for women, especially married women and female heads of household, than for men. Women were more likely than men to combine agriculture and non-farm activities. In Ghana

it was non-farm activities (for which income data are available) that provided the highest average incomes and the highest shares of income.

Bivariate probit analysis of participation shows that in Uganda female heads of household and in Ghana women in general are significantly more likely than men to participate in non-farm activities and less likely to participate in agriculture.

Credit Accessibility

Reinikka, R. and Svensson, J. (1999) 'Confronting Competition Investment Response and Constraints in Uganda' Working Paper no. 2242. Washington DC: World Bank.

<http://econ.worldbank.org/view.php?type=5&id=976>

Abstract:

Investment rates in Uganda are similar to others in Africa - averaging slightly more than 10 percent annually, with a median value of just under 1 percent. But the country's profit rates are considerably lower.

These results are consistent with the view that Ugandan firms display more confidence in the economy than their counterparts in other African countries. Thus, for given profit rates, Ugandan firms invest more. At the same time, increased competition (because of economic liberalization) has exerted pressure on firms to cut costs. Many of those costs are not under the firms' control, however, so their profits have suffered.

Using firm-level data, Reinikka and Svensson identify and quantify a number of cost factors, including those associated with transport, corruption, and utility services. Several factors - including crime, erratic infrastructure services, and arbitrary tax administration - not only increase firms' operating costs but affect their perceptions of the risks of investing in (partly) irreversible capital.

The empirical analysis suggests that firms - especially small firms - are liquidity-constrained in the sense that they invest only when sufficient internal funds are available. But given the firms' profit-capital ratio, it is hard to argue that the liquidity constraint is binding in most cases, even though the cost of capital is perceived as a problem.

WB (completed 01 Jan 1998) Programme on 'Poverty and Social Development: Africa New Development Fund'. Washington DC: World Bank.

<http://econ.worldbank.org/view.php?type=20&id=104>

Abstracts of Current Studies:

This research assessed whether it is possible to use small amounts of money to fund pilot activities across sectors and leverage the positive results into regionally funded activities that alleviate poverty. It examined experience with pilot activities in Cameroon, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Mali, Mozambique, Tanzania, Uganda, and Zambia. The research drew on detailed studies available in each activity area, using analytical methods that varied depending on the pilot activity.

The findings reveal that small grassroots initiatives stand a good chance of building capacity, nurturing development, and fostering a sense of ownership among stakeholders. For example, building the capacity of communities at the grassroots level to set up informal financial networks is an effective way of addressing the problem faced by potential borrowers with limited or no collateral, who are unlikely to obtain loans from established banks. For the Bank the findings suggest that such pilots are a useful way to test innovative approaches and leverage the positive results into larger investments. The findings of these pilot activities will be used to guide and influence larger investments in development.

The results are disseminated through the Africa Region's Findings and Best Practice Infobrief series <http://www.worldbank.org/afr/findings/infobeng/infoetoc.htm>.

Violence and conflict

Collier, P. (1999) 'On the Economic Consequences of Civil War' in *Oxford Economic Papers* vol. 51 no. 1, 1999. Oxford and Washington DC: Oxford University Press and World Bank.

http://econ.worldbank.org/files/13201_CollierEcConsequences.pdf

Abstract:

A model of the economic effects of civil war and the post-war period is developed. A key feature is the adjustment of the capital stock through capital flight. Post-war this flight can either be reversed or continue, depending partly upon how far the capital stock has adjusted to the war. The model is tested on data for all civil wars since 1960. After long civil wars the economy recovers rapidly, whereas after short wars it continues to decline. We then consider the effect on the composition of economic activity, distinguishing between war-vulnerable and war-safe activities. Evidence for Uganda shows such compositional effects to be substantial.

Deininger, K. (2001) 'Causes and Consequences of Civil Strife: Micro-level Evidence from Uganda' Working Paper Series no. 3045. Washington DC: World Bank.

<http://econ.worldbank.org/view.php?type=5&id=26384>

This paper departs from the conventional use of cross-country data to study determinants of civil strife. It uses household information, rather than aggregate data and allows empirical demonstration of the difference between civil strife and 'ordinary' theft or physical violence. Ultimately a distinction is made that suggests that the two types of phenomena arise from different reasons and have vastly different consequences. The paper argues that civil strife may be equally important in negatively affecting the investment decisions and business choices of international investors and the domestic population, beginning at the household level. Civil strife, in marked contrast to violence and theft, reduces investment and non-agricultural enterprise start-ups. The presence of 'greed' related factors are an important determinant of the emergence of civil conflict. It was found that distance from infrastructure (a proxy for scarcity of economic opportunities and government investment), asset inequality (social tension), presence of cash crops (expropriable wealth) and lower levels of human capital (ability to take advantage of opportunities in the 'regular' economy) all increase the propensity for civil strife. The probability of civil strife increasing with lower levels of education and infrastructure access and asset endowments by the poor suggests that policies aimed at improving economic opportunities could have an important impact on reducing the potential for civil conflict. There are other factors that are amenable to government policy that could be used to reduce the potential for civil strife.

Ehrhart, C. and Ayoo, S. (2000) 'Violence, Insecurity and Poverty in Uganda: Learning From the Poor' UPPAP Policy Briefing Paper. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development.

The is a policy briefing paper which draws its content from the first ever Participatory Poverty Assessment (PPA) in Uganda which was conducted in 24 rural and 12 urban communities in 9 districts of Uganda. It characterises the different forms of violence and insecurity, discusses the consequences of these phenomena, gives policy implications and makes recommendations. It highlights violence and insecurity as being both causes and consequences of poverty. The part of the country that is most affected is northern Uganda with other areas where rebel insurgency had been prevalent. It is argued that the nature of cattle raiding in Northern Uganda has changed (exacerbated) partly because of the deteriorating environmental conditions and mainly due to greed by the Karimonjongs who deploy heavy arms to raid cattle. The presence of soldiers of the Sudanese Peoples Liberation Army (SPLA) who are accused of theft, rape, torture, murder in the borders with Moyo, is yet another factor presented as a threat to the local population in which loss of productive assets makes it difficult for them to recover. Increased violence accounts for 824,112 internally displaced people where homes and livelihoods have been dislocated. Men, women and children experience violence and insecurity differently to a certain extent. The robbers and raiders target men because they are the ones who protect women and children. Women are raped and their genitals mutilated leading to trauma, suffering and isolation. The Lords Resistance Army has abducted children in large numbers since 1996 for recruitment into the rebel ranks. The paper finally makes policy recommendations to tackle the causes and effects of violence and insecurity especially in those adversely affected parts of Uganda.

WB (completed 01 June 2002) Programme on 'The Economics of Political and Criminal Violence'. Washington DC: World Bank.

<http://econ.worldbank.org/view.php?type=20&id=1348>

Abstract:

This research seeks to answer the following questions: Why do civil wars occur? What are the determinants of violent crime? What are the economic causes and consequences of political and criminal violence? Can we predict and prevent these phenomena? What economic policies are appropriate in countries that have undergone periods of large-scale violence and political conflict?

The project uses several methodologies, including game-theoretic modelling, econometric modelling, and hypothesis testing. Its multidisciplinary approach combines perspectives from law, economics, criminology, sociology, and political science.

The project has developed a large database on crime and violence in 161 countries, including most developing countries, combining social, economic, and political indicators. To build this database, the project has drawn on other World Bank databases and on related projects in academic institutions.

The project's findings are expected to contribute to the Bank's advice on the microeconomic and macroeconomic management of countries under risk of civil war and on policies during post-conflict reconstruction. In addition, it is hoped that the project will identify sets of optimal policies for countries under different levels of risk of war and for countries with different backgrounds of conflict. Toward this goal, the project has developed a close working relationship with the Bank's Post-conflict Unit and has begun to develop a set of conflict indicators that Bank country teams will be able to use to determine the optimal allocation of funds among countries that are or may be affected by violent conflict.

The project has built a strong local research capacity in developing countries by incorporating researchers from such countries; during the case study phase it will pair U.S.-based researchers with scholars in the countries studied. It has also built a strong network of researchers through its Web site, using it to disseminate information and research findings and to facilitate communication among researchers around the world who are interested in this topic.

The project was launched with a workshop in February 1999. Since then it has held a conference at Princeton University to present findings on the causes of civil war. The papers presented at that conference will be published as a special issue of the *Journal of Conflict Resolution*. Two more conferences are planned—one on war duration and post-conflict issues, at the London School of Economics and Political Science, and another to present final results, in Oslo, Norway.

Papers and data from the project are posted on its website, at <http://econ.worldbank.org/programs/subpage.php?sp=3102>

Associated Reports:

Azam, J.P (2000) 'Looting and Conflict between Ethno-Regional Groups: Lessons for State Formation in Africa' in *Journal of Conflict Resolution* vol. 46 no. 1, February 2002. Toulouse, France and Connecticut, USA: Institut d'Economie Industrielle, University of Toulouse and Sage Publications.

- http://econ.worldbank.org/files/3103_Azam_Looting.pdf
- Bates, R., Geif, A. and Singh, S (2000) 'Organizing Violence' in *Journal of Conflict Resolution* vol. 46 no. 5, October 2002. Connecticut, USA: Sage Publications.
http://www.duke.edu/~munger/mirc/JCR_Organizing_Violence.pdf
- Collier, P. (1999) 'The Challenge of Ugandan Reconstruction, 1986–98'. Washington DC, World Bank.
<http://www.worldbank.org/research/conflict/papers/uganda.pdf>
- Collier, P. (1999) 'Doing Well out of War?'. Washington DC, World Bank.
<http://www.worldbank.org/research/conflict/papers/econagendas.pdf>
- Collier, P. (2000) 'Policy for Post-conflict Societies: Reducing the Risks of Renewed Conflict' Washington DC, World Bank.
<http://www.worldbank.org/research/conflict/papers/postpol.pdf>
- Collier, P. (2000) 'Economic Causes of Civil Conflict and Their Implications for Policy' in Crocker, C., Hampson, F. and Aall, P. (eds.) *Managing Global Chaos: Sources of and Responses to International Conflict*. Washington, D.C.: United States Institute of Peace Press.
<http://www.worldbank.org/research/conflict/papers/civilconflict.pdf>
- Collier, P. and Hoeffler, A. (2001) 'Greed and Grievance in Civil War' Policy Research Working Paper no. 2355. Washington DC: Development Research Group, World Bank.
http://www.worldbank.org/research/conflict/papers/greedgrievance_23oct.pdf
- Collier, P., Elbadawi, I. and Sambanis, N. (2000) 'Why Are There So Many Civil Wars in Africa? Understanding and Preventing Violent Conflict' in *Journal of African Economies* vol. 9 no. 3, October 2000. Oxford and Washington DC: Oxford University Press and World Bank.
<http://www.worldbank.org/research/conflict/papers/eca2000c.pdf>
- de Soysa, I. (2002) 'Natural Resources and Civil War: Shrinking Pie or Honey Pot?' in *Global Environmental Politics* vol. 2 no. 4, November 2002. Cambridge, MA USA: The MIT Press.
<http://www.environmental-center.com/magazine/mitpress/gep/gep1.pdf>
- Doyle, M. and Sambanis, N. (1999) 'Building Peace: Challenges and Strategies after Civil War'. New Jersey and Washington DC: Princeton University and World Bank.
<http://www.worldbank.org/research/conflict/papers/building.pdf>
- Doyle, M. and Sambanis, N. (2000) 'International Peacebuilding: A Theoretical and Quantitative Analysis' in *American Political Science Review* vol. 94 no. 4, December 2000. New Jersey and Washington DC: Princeton University and World Bank.
http://www.worldbank.org/research/conflict/papers/peacebuilding/pbapsr_finalv4.pdf
- Easterly, W. (2000) 'Can Institutions Resolve Ethnic Conflict?' Washington DC: World Bank.
http://www.worldbank.org/research/growth/pdfiles/ethnic_conflict.pdf
- Elbadawi, I. and Ndung'u, N. (2000) 'External Indebtedness, Growth and Investment in Conflict and Postconflict African Countries'. Washington DC, World Bank.

- Elbadawi, I. and Sambanis, N. (2000) 'External Interventions and the Duration of Civil Wars' Policy Research Working Paper no. 2433. Washington DC: Development Research Group, World Bank.
<http://www.worldbank.org/research/conflict/papers/lengthofwarv4.pdf>
- Fearon, J. and Laitin, D. (1999) 'Weak States, Rough Terrain, and Large-Scale Ethnic Violence since 1945'. Connecticut, USA: Stanford University.
<http://www.stanford.edu/group/ethnic/workingpapers/insurg1.pdf>
- Gates, S. (2000) 'Recruitment and Allegiance: The Microfoundations of Rebellion' in *Journal of Conflict Resolution* vol. 46 no. 1, February 2002. Oslo, Connecticut and Michigan, USA: International Peace Research Institute (PRIO), Sage Publications and Michigan State University.
http://econ.worldbank.org/files/3106_Gates_Microfoundations.pdf
- Herbst, J. (2000) 'The Organization of Rebellion in Africa' paper presented to the conference on *The Economics of Political Violence*, 18-19 March 2000. New Jersey and Washington DC: Center of International Studies and World Bank.
- Hess, G., Blomberg, S. and Thacker, S. (2000) 'Is There Evidence of a Poverty-Conflict Trap?' Wellesley College Working Paper 2000-06. Massachusetts, USA: Wellesley College.
http://www.wellesley.edu/Economics/wkpapers/wellwp_0006.pdf
- Regan, P. (2000) 'Third-Party Interventions and the Duration of Intrastate Conflicts' in *Journal of Conflict Resolution* vol. 46 no. 1, February 2002. Connecticut and New York: Sage Publications and Binghamton University.
http://econ.worldbank.org/files/3108_Regan.pdf
- Sambanis, N. (2000) 'Partition as a Solution to Ethnic War: An Empirical Critique of the Theoretical Literature' in *World Politics* vol. 52 no. 4, July 2000; World Bank Research Paper Series no. 2208. New Jersey, Maryland and Washington DC: Center of International Studies, Johns Hopkins University Press and World Bank.
<http://econ.worldbank.org/docs/933.pdf>

Service delivery

- Reinikka, R. (2002) 'Making Services Work for Poor People: A Research Program on Public Services'. Washington DC: World Bank.
http://econ.worldbank.org/files/15997_PS.Research.Program.Jul1.pdf

Abstract:

Success in reaching the Millennium Development Goals, particularly those related to human development outcomes, will depend not just on faster economic growth and the flow of

resources, but on the ability to translate those resources into services. Thus improving service delivery has become a higher policy priority. The purpose of this Research Program is to find new ways to measure the efficacy of public spending and service delivery, and analyze their determinants in the context of complex motivations, multiple outputs of varying measurability, multiple stakeholders and delivery systems, and user differentiation. The Program will generate new micro data through frontline provider surveys and randomized experiments. It will go a long way towards generating new analytic work and findings for the 2003/04 World Development Report on the same topic, but it will also continue well beyond the publication of the WDR. The Program is closely linked to the Bank's operational work as well as the in-country and international research community. While the research covers all developing regions, special attention is given to Africa and South Asia where the gap between current poverty and human development indicators and the Millennium Development Goals is the widest.

Reinikka, R. and Svensson, J. (2001) 'Explaining Leakage of Public Funds' Working Paper Series no. 2709. Washington DC: World Bank.

http://econ.worldbank.org/files/2595_wps2709.pdf

Unique survey data are used to explain variation in leakage across schools.

Abstract:

Using panel data from a unique survey of public primary schools in Uganda, Reinikka and Svensson assess the degree of leakage of public funds in education. The survey data reveal that on average during 1991–95 schools received only 13 percent of the central government's allocation for the schools' non-wage expenditures. Most of the allocated funds were used by public officials for purposes unrelated to education or captured for private gain (leakage).

The survey data also reveal large variations in leakage across schools. A small set of school-specific variables can explain a significant part of this variation. Specifically, the authors find that larger schools receive a larger share of the intended funds per student. Schools with children of wealthier parents also experience a lower degree of leakage, while schools with a higher share of unqualified teachers receive less. After addressing potential selection and measurement issues, the authors show that these school characteristics have a quantitatively large impact on the degree of leakage.

The findings are consistent with the view that resource flows—and leakage—are endogenous to schools' socio-political endowment. Rather than being passive recipients of flows from government, schools use their bargaining power relative to other parts of government to secure greater shares of funding. Public resources are therefore not allocated according to the rules underlying the government's budget decisions, with obvious equity and efficiency implications.

The survey findings had a direct impact on policy in Uganda. As evidence on the degree of leakage became public knowledge, the central government enacted a number of changes: it began publishing monthly transfers of public funds to the districts in newspapers, broadcasting them on radio, and requiring schools to post information on inflow of funds. An

initial assessment of these reforms shows that the flow of funds improved dramatically, from 13 percent on average reaching schools in 1991-95 to around 90 percent in 1999. These improvements emphasize the role of information in mobilizing "voice" for better public expenditure outcomes.

WB (completed 12 Dec 2001) Programme on 'Service Delivery'. Washington DC: World Bank.

<http://econ.worldbank.org/view.php?type=20&id=1613>

Abstract:

Removal of market and external distortions has exposed poor public sector performance as one of the most important constraints to growth and poverty reduction in many low-income countries. A large body of microeconomic literature on households and firms suggests that delivery of public services is important for reducing poverty and stimulating private sector growth. But another strand of literature finds that the link between public spending and growth and social outcomes is ambiguous at best. This contradiction points to an identification problem: public spending is not necessarily the same as public assets or services.

This research explores the process by which public expenditure is transformed into public goods. The work is based on public expenditure tracking surveys (PETS) of service facilities and, in some cases, surveys of firms on infrastructure services. PETS typically collect information on facility characteristics, financial flows, outputs, accountability arrangements, and so forth. These data can be used for multiple purposes. They can help diagnose operational problems, for example, and serve as the basis for empirical research on capture and cost efficiency.

Results to date show that information and transparency can be a cost-efficient way of overcoming systemic problems in service delivery. In Uganda, where the PETS was pioneered in 1996, the surveys revealed the capture of non-wage primary education spending by local bureaucrats. As a result, the central government launched an information campaign, both nationally and at the district and school level. A repeat survey in 1999–2000 shows that schools now receive 90 percent of non-wage education spending, up from just 20 percent in 1995. This remarkable improvement was achieved through the government's efforts to disseminate information, both through the media and by posting public spending information at schools and in district.

This research has provided technical support to Bank country teams in Albania, Ghana, Honduras, Macedonia, Mali, Rwanda, and Zambia, which are beginning to implement PETS. In addition, the project is setting up a cross-country database for empirical analysis.

The PETS will be carried out in close collaboration with local research institutions in order to obtain reliable data and build capacity in diagnostic survey work. Dissemination includes publications and in-country seminars.

Associated Reports:

Ablo, E. and Reinikka, R. (1998) 'Do Budgets Really Matter? Evidence from Public Spending on Education and Health in Uganda' Policy Research Working Paper no. 1926. Washington DC: World Bank.

<http://econ.worldbank.org/docs/539.pdf>

Reinikka, R. (2001) 'Recovery in Service Delivery: Evidence from Schools and Clinics' in Reinikka, R. and Collier, P. (eds.) *Uganda's Recovery: The Role of Farms, Firms and Government* Regional and Sectoral Studies Series. Washington DC: World Bank.

Reinikka, R. and Svensson, J. (2001) 'Explaining Leakage of Public Funds' Policy Research Working Paper no. 2709. Washington DC: World Bank.

http://econ.worldbank.org/files/2595_wps2709.pdf

WB (completed 07 July 2000) 'Delivery of Social Justice in Decentralized Arrangements: A Study of the Uganda Situation' Public Sector Management study. Washington DC: World Bank.

<http://econ.worldbank.org/view.php?topic=21&type=20&id=1603>

Abstract:

This study examines whether decentralization has improved the delivery of judicial services to both men and women in Uganda. Specifically, the study:

- Assesses whether the decentralized mechanism for dispute resolution at lower levels is fully used to help women resolve differences in an appropriate and equitable manner.
- Assesses how social evils such as corruption affect men's and women's efforts to use local council courts.
- Identifies factors that influence women's preference for alternative systems in seeking social redress.
- Makes recommendations that address the inequities in the legal framework within a decentralized setting.

The study is based on interviews with women and local council members and a review of lower court records, local council records, and secondary sources on procedures, jurisdiction, capability of justices, supervision of decisions, institutional capacity, and other factors. The findings help understand the environment in which Bank-supported projects operate—by showing, for example, whether newly decentralized structures have enabled women to enforce their socioeconomic rights at the local level. The study's recommendations will provide insight into the need for investing in improving local judicial institutions.

The study's results are applicable to other countries, especially those that have embarked on the process of decentralization as a way of including the ordinary person in development decision-making and creating local judicial and administrative structures as avenues for adjudicating local disputes.

Infrastructure

Reinikka, R. and Svensson, J. (1999) 'How Inadequate Provision of Public Infrastructure and Services Affects Private Investment' Policy Research Working Paper no. 2262. Washington DC: World Bank.

<http://econ.worldbank.org/docs/998.pdf>

Evidence from Uganda shows that poor public provision of infrastructure services - proxied by an unreliable and inadequate power supply - significantly reduces productive private investment.

Abstract:

Lack of private investment is a serious policy problem in many developing countries, especially in Africa. Despite recent structural reform and stabilization, the investment response to date has been mixed, even among the strongest reformers. The role of poor infrastructure and deficient public services has received little attention in the economic literature, where the effect of public spending and investment on growth is shown to be at best ambiguous.

Reinikka and Svensson use unique microeconomic evidence to show the effects of poor infrastructure services on private investment in Uganda. They find that poor public capital, proxied by an unreliable and inadequate power supply, significantly reduces productive private investment. Firms can substitute for inadequate provision of public capital by investing in it themselves. This comes at a cost, however: the installation of less productive capital.

These results have clear policy implications. Although macroeconomic reforms and stabilization are necessary conditions for sustained growth and private investment, without an accompanying improvement in the public sector's performance, the private supply response to macroeconomic policy reform is likely to remain limited.

Tusubira, F., Gebreab, F. and Haggarty, L. (2002) 'Telecommunications Reform in Uganda' Policy Research Working Paper no. 2864. Washington DC: World Bank.

http://econ.worldbank.org/files/15972_wps2864.pdf

Abstract:

The paper documents the case of Uganda's telecommunications reform. Uganda is one of only two countries in Africa that decided to privatize telecommunications in a competitive

framework by selling a second national operator license. The authors find that Uganda did not sacrifice significant sales proceeds by choosing competition, but instead gained tremendously in both the speed and scale of investment from its early focus on competition.

This paper – a product of Macroeconomics and Growth, Development Research Group – is part of a larger research program analyzing the effects of regulatory, legal, political and bureaucratic institutions on telecommunications reform in Africa.

Constraints to rural development

Deininger, K. and Okidi, J. (2001) ‘Rural Households: Incomes, Productivity and Non-Farm Enterprises’ in Reinikka, R. and Collier, P. (eds.) *Uganda’s Recovery: The Role of Farms, Firms and Government* Regional and Sectoral Studies Series. Washington DC: World Bank.

The paper notes the critical importance of rural income growth for overall poverty reduction in Uganda using descriptive evidence and econometric analysis. The paper highlights accomplishments of the past and outlines the challenges of the future. Major changes that occurred in the rural sector between 1992 and 1999 are reviewed revealing that levels of per capita income grew significantly without deterioration in income distribution. Households with low income levels in 1992, but with human and physical capital assets, were able to benefit the most from overall growth. It shows that cotton output recovered, livestock ownership increased significantly and use of high yielding varieties (HYVs) increased considerably. The functioning of rural factor markets improved, the number of land rental transactions and the share of producers with access to credit increased strongly, with most of the credit obtained used for productive investment. The share of farmers who have access to extension services and primary school enrolments have increased greatly in rural areas. Rural farmers have diversified into non-farm income generation and established non-agricultural enterprises of which education and access to financial markets play a crucial role.

The paper uses information from 1992/1993 and 1993/1994 national surveys to explore production, input demand, and establishment of non-farm enterprises. It is argued that enabling the poor to accumulate additional human and physical capital, increasing the returns to assets they already own through technical progress, increased diversification, market integration, commercialisation, and growth of rural non-farm enterprises are key elements of any strategy aimed at equitable growth and broad based poverty reduction. The paper suggests a regional balance in policies aimed at promoting education, infrastructure, and agricultural productivity to ensure broad access to economic opportunities. The failure of which as in the past will not only cut tight link between growth and poverty reduction but also threaten the sustainability of economic growth in a more fundamental way.

Deininger, K. (2001) ‘Uganda’s Agricultural Sector 1992 to 2000. Accomplishments and Challenges’. Washington DC: World Bank.

McDonagh, J. and Bahigwa, G. (2002) 'Crop-based Farming Systems and diverse Livelihoods in Uganda' LADDER Working Paper no. 7. Norwich, UK: Livelihoods and Diversification Directions Explored by Research.

<http://www.odg.uea.ac.uk/ladder/doc/wp7.pdf>

The paper is based on an analysis of agriculturally based livelihoods in Uganda, which is part of the LADDER research project. It examines the current policy discourse in relation to agriculturally based livelihoods in Uganda. It paints an emerging picture that most farmers want to shift from predominantly subsistence farming to market-oriented agriculture if support is given. The authors argue that 'the National Agricultural Advisory Services (NAADS) proposal appears to underestimate the size of the ready to intensify market sector and there is a danger that resources allocated to the poorer more vulnerable majority may be woefully inadequate.' (p19). The need for well formulated research in the agricultural sector, based on recognition of the resource constraints under which small-holder subsistence farmers operate, is underscored given the danger that research will be under-emphasised in the new NAADS. The report points out the rural diversification trends where households are moving away from agriculture in areas where land pressure exists with overwhelmingly positive outcomes. It is proposed that policies associated with the PMA need to facilitate the diversification of the majority of households, particularly in intensively farmed areas away from agriculture to generate resources that could be re-invested towards agricultural intensification. They assess the success of the NAADS in its current form as far from certain. 'All the signs that the required effective, well co-ordinated agricultural services with strong links to research and an explicit undertaking to focus on the needs of the poor subsistence will be difficult to deliver via the current proposals' (p19). It is suggested that although it is less radical, it may make more sense to address the undoubted weaknesses of the existing Extension Service and build on its strengths.

Okidi J. (1999) 'Regional Growth Disparities and Household Economic Performance in Uganda' EPRC Research Series no. 17. Kampala, Uganda: Economic Policy Research Centre.

The paper provides household level statistical evidence of significant regional growth disparities in Uganda and investigates the qualitative and quantitative importance of the key constraints to household agricultural development. One of the major findings is that although limited access to road transport constraints agricultural productivity, the marginal impact is much smaller than that of household characteristics. Accordingly, regional growth disparities, especially between North- Northeast and the rest of the country could be reduced significantly by improvements in household-specific agricultural productivity factors, such as the number of literate members, and size and quality of family labour and land. The implication is that an intervention programme that seeks to improve household welfare and reduce regional inequality would have the most impact if it alleviated constraints to factor market operations and improves the educational and health status of the family (p.i).

WB (completed 29 Dec 2000) Programme on 'The Impact of Public Spending in Uganda'

<http://econ.worldbank.org/view.php?topic=22&type=20&id=11694>

Abstract:

This research used data from a series of household surveys (spanning 1992–99) in Uganda to investigate a set of questions about social and economic development in the country's rural areas. The study produced two main findings.

First, while education, access to roads, and access to extension have a significant positive impact on agricultural production, rural producers overuse non-traded inputs (home-grown seed) and under-use purchased inputs (fertilizer). Credit constraints significantly affect demand for inputs. Lack of access to financial services (as measured by distance to the closest bank) negatively affects the start-up of non-agricultural enterprises and integration into markets for agricultural produce, supporting the government's emphasis in its rural development strategy on improving access to financial services.

Second, knowledge about the causes and treatment of diseases, in addition to access to health services and their quality, has a significant impact in reducing individuals' propensity to fall sick. Even under conservative assumptions, the monetary benefits (derived by valuing the number of days lost at the local wage rates) can be very high.

Associated Reports:

Deininger, K. (2000) 'Does Cost of Schooling Affect Enrollment by the Poor? Universal Primary Education in Uganda' Washington DC: World Bank.

Deininger, K. (2001) 'Causes and Consequences of Civil Strife: Micro-Level Evidence from Uganda' Policy Research Working Paper no. 3045. Washington DC: World Bank.
http://econ.worldbank.org/files/26384_wps3045.pdf

Deininger, K. (2001) 'Long-Term Welfare and Investment Impacts of Sudden Changes in Family Composition: Evidence from Uganda' Washington DC: World Bank.

Deininger, K. and Larson, D. (2001) 'Crop Markets and Household Participation in Uganda' in Reinikka, R. and Collier, P. (eds.) *Uganda's Recovery: The Role of Farms, Firms and Government*. Washington DC: World Bank.

AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda

Deininger K., Kempaka, G. and Crommelynck, A. (2002) 'Long-term welfare and investment impact of AIDS – related changes in family composition: Evidence from Uganda' EPRC Research Series no. 29. Kampala, Uganda: Economic Policy Research Centre.

[http://wbln0018.worldbank.org/HDNet/hddocs.nsf/0/7fd768a81413e81785256bc0004c81ea/\\$FILE/0207.pdf](http://wbln0018.worldbank.org/HDNet/hddocs.nsf/0/7fd768a81413e81785256bc0004c81ea/$FILE/0207.pdf)

Abstract:

Although availability of quantitative information on the extent of AIDS in Africa is improving, the socio-economic implications of the epidemic remain poorly understood. This paper explores this issue for Uganda focusing on households who received foster children between 1992 and 2000, a phenomenon that affected more than 15% households. We find that addition of the foster child resulted in significant reduction of per capita consumption, income, the household investment, which were more pronounced for the poor. Initial disadvantages in foster children's access to education for this group were overcome in the course of UPE implementation while new inequalities have emerged in access to health services. Foster children's ability to access services will thus be affected by the broader policy environment as well as programmes more specifically targeted at this group.

UAC/UNAIDS (2002) *The National Strategic Framework for HIV/AIDS Activities in Uganda: 2000/1-2005/6*. Kampala, Uganda and Geneva, Switzerland: Government of Uganda AIDS Commission and Joint United Nations Programme on AIDS.

This document reviews past performance of the nation's planned response to the HIV/AIDS problem particularly in the period 2000/1-2005/6. This framework is sequel to and builds upon similar previous documents, namely; the multi-sectoral approach to the control of AIDS (MACA) concluded in 1993, and the National Operational Plan for the HIV/AIDS/STD Prevention, Care and Support 1994 –1998. It identifies gaps in the earlier version of the National Strategic Framework for HIV/AIDS activities drawn up to cover the period 1998-2000. In particular, the need to place the HIV/AIDS problem in the broader context of national development and relate it to other national policies on health and the poverty eradication programme. This report addresses these gaps and updates the 1998-2000 framework.

The National Strategic Framework for the HIV/AIDS Activities 2000/1-2005/6) in Uganda was an outcome of a consultation among a wide range of stakeholders involved in the field of HIV/AIDS in Uganda. This comprised Government and Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs), networks and associations of persons living with HIV/AIDS (PLWAs), research institutions; religious and socio-cultural institutions; individuals knowledgeable in the field of HIV/AIDS and a team of consultants. The process also benefited from inputs from AIDS Control Programmes (ACPs) of line ministries that were simultaneously undertaking their planning exercises.

- The objectives of the national Strategic Framework are:
- To provide a brief review of trends in HIV sero prevalence;
- To describe the efforts undertaken to prevent HIV infection and mitigate the adverse health and socio-economic effects of the epidemic in Uganda;
- To provide overall guidance for activities geared towards preventing the spread of HIV/AIDS and mitigating its effects; and
- To serve as the basis for the mobilisation of resources to implement the national AIDS programme.

It gives the situation analysis of the HIV/AIDS problem. It contains information on trends, differentials by age, sex, and geographical regions. It reviews the progress made so far, identifies the critical needs and makes recommendations. Implementation and co-ordination arrangements for the identified HIV/AIDS activities are articulated and suggestions for monitoring implementation are put forward. It finally gives main observations relating to the fight against HIV/AIDS in Uganda.

UAC (1997) *HIV/AIDS Prevention and Poverty Reduction Programme* Draft Terminal Report. Kampala, Uganda: Programme Management Unit, Government of Uganda AIDS Commission.

The overall purpose of the HIV/AIDS Prevention and Poverty Reduction Programme was to contribute to the Government's efforts aimed at reducing the social economic causes and consequences of the HIV/AIDS epidemic. The programme was designed to meet 18 capacity building targets within, which were 51 outputs further broken down into 164 benchmarks. The benchmarks were used as output indicators for tracking down the progress of the implementation of the programme and they had four components including; prevention of HIV transmission (n=59), caring (n=9), mitigating of socio-economic impact of HIV/AIDS (n=17), and capacity building (79). At least 70% of the capacity building targets set were attained and many of them were exceeded. A total of 18 benchmarks were not carried out.

UAC/UNAIDS (2002) *The National Strategic Framework for HIV/AIDS Activities in Uganda: 1998-2002*. Kampala, Uganda and Geneva, Switzerland: Government of Uganda AIDS Commission and Joint United Nations Programme on AIDS.

The purpose of the National Strategic Framework for HIV/AIDS activities in Uganda (1998-2002) is twofold. To provide overall guidance for all activities geared towards preventing the spread of HIV/AIDS and mitigating the adverse health and socio-economic effects of the epidemic in Uganda, and serving as a basis for the mobilisation of resources to implement the National HIV/AIDS programme. The drafting of the National Strategic Framework for HIV/AIDS was done following a wide range of consultation with past research work on HIV/AIDS. Relevant information was obtained from a range of commissioned studies which included: The National AIDS Control Policy Proposals (1996); HIV/AIDS Research Results and its Summary (1997); HIV/AIDS Status Report (1997); HIV/AIDS Research Inventory

(1997); STD/HIV Sentinel Surveillance Reports of the Ministry of Health (1991-1997); Progress Review Reports for a number of local and international agencies; and interviews with individual specialists and partners in the field of HIV/AIDS.

Key observations are highlighted in the document ranging from vaccine or cure for HIV/AIDS, prevalence rate of HIV/AIDS, the declining trend of prevalence rate, current interventions to stop the spread of HIV/AIDS, sub-populations that are vulnerable to HIV infection, non-awareness of individual's sero-status, distribution of HIV/AIDS services over space and socio-economic groups, economic and psycho-social problems encountered by people having AIDS and their families etc. The framework further makes recommendation based on the general observation during the implementation of the National Operational Plan for 1993-1997 as follows:

The framework therefore outlines national goals, strategies and activities for fighting the HIV/AIDS epidemic in Uganda in a holistic manner. It serves as a guide to all partners in designing appropriate interventions and re-defining their roles in the fight against HIV/AIDS over the next few years.

UAC (1992) *The Uganda AIDS Commission Statute*. Kampala, Uganda: Government of Uganda AIDS Commission.

The statute provides for the establishment of the Uganda AIDS Commission with the mandate to prevent and control the AIDS epidemic in Uganda. It spells out the composition of the Commission's management and the appointing authority. It goes further to give the roles and personnel that shall carry out the day to day activities of the secretariat. The overall function of the commission is given as overseeing, planning and co-ordinating AIDS prevention and control activities in Uganda. Specifically this involves:

- Formulating policy and establishing programme priorities for the control of the AIDS epidemic and management of its consequences throughout the country;
- Ensuring proper planning and co-ordination of all AIDS control policies and programmes within the overall programme strategy;
- Identifying obstacles to the implementation of AIDS control policies and programmes to ensure the implementation and attainment of the programme activities;
- Mobilising and monitoring resources for the AIDS control programme and activities;
- Disseminating information on the AIDS epidemic and its consequences in Uganda and on the programme activities for its control;
- Supervising all activities related to the control of the AIDS epidemic in Uganda;
- Finding a drug for the cure of the AIDS disease ;
- Performing such other functions relating to the prevention and control of the AIDS epidemic in Uganda deemed necessary by the commission;

It spells out whom the commission is responsible to and the sources of its funds.

Ministry of Health (2001) *Policy Guidelines on Feeding of Infants and Young Children in the Context of HIV/AIDS*. Kampala, Uganda: Ministry of Health.

The main objective of this policy was to reduce HIV transmission through breastfeeding, identify infant feeding options and promote, protect and support breastfeeding. The policy reviews national policies since early 1980s to mitigate the impact of the HIV/AIDS epidemic related to the subject of breastfeeding. It is the gaps identified that form the basis for this policy.

The policy arises from the fact that transmission of HIV from mothers to their babies accounts for about 15% of all the HIV infections in Uganda and it is the main mode of transmission of the virus to children accounting for more than 90% of the HIV infections in this age group. The policy guidelines on feeding of infants and young children in the context of HIV/AIDS, attempt to integrate into the existing policy programmes particularly in the prevention and control of HIV/AIDS, the food and nutrition, reproductive health and child care policies.

Ministry of Health (2001) *Policy for Reduction of the Mother-to-child HIV Transmission in Uganda*. Kampala, Uganda: Ministry of Health.

UAC (2003) *An Overarching HIV/AIDS Policy for Uganda*. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda AIDS Commission.

The document traces the evolutionary development of policies and institutions in Uganda to fight HIV/AIDS since mid 1980s. Through a brief discussion of the previous policies, the document argues for a more supportive and conducive policy environment to foster positive behaviour change and facilitate well co-ordinated implementation of HIV/AIDS national priorities. The policy environment in which HIV/AIDS interventions are implemented is presented and the gaps in the existing policy guidelines, as developed by Uganda AIDS Commission, are identified to form the basis for the new overarching HIV/AIDS policy for Uganda. The gaps are:

- Lack of a publicised national policy and legislative framework that all actors can perform their mandates in an open manner.
- Reflection of HIV/AIDS in most local government plans HIV/AIDS as a health sector issue, while, the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) treats HIV/AIDS as a development issue
- Ongoing HIV/AIDS interventions have not fully benefited from reference to a common national programme, consequently limiting the potential contribution of various stakeholders, due to lack of an appropriate policy.

- Local government's lack of specific policy guidelines to design and implement relevant interventions within their areas of jurisdiction and to monitor the delivery of services. although the Local Government Act 1997 brings issues of HIV/AIDS prevention, control, care, support and mitigation to the grassroots in line with the decentralisation policy.

The mission of the policy is to create an environment in which a national response to HIV/AIDS is coherently and systematically guided. It aims at harmonising national policy and regulatory framework for all actors; government sectors, the private sector, NGOs including faith based organisations and CBOs to develop and implement HIV/AIDS activities in a co-ordinated manner. The document further presents the proposals for an overarching HIV/AIDS policy for Uganda and delineates administrative and legislative proposals.

UAC (2001) 'Inventory of Agencies With HIV/AIDS Activities and HIV/AIDS Interventions in Uganda: A Review of Actors, Interventions, Achievements and Constraints Relating to the HIV/AIDS Challenge in Uganda'. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda AIDS Commission.

The inventory gives results of a countrywide survey of agencies participating in HIV/AIDS activities. It was carried out by African Medical and Research Foundation (AMREF) and Uganda AIDS Commission in 2001. The objective of the study was to identify the various agencies having activities on HIV/AIDS, the interventions being carried out and the level at which individual agencies operate. The study also looked at the resource strength of the various actors their perceived achievements and constraints. It was found that various actors intervened to tackle HIV/AIDS at different levels. At Policy level, Central Government organs; the Cabinet, Parliament and the President's Office do policy formulation and establishment of necessary legal framework. The Uganda AIDS Commission links the policy formulation and development of the strategy. The liaison Committee made up of multilateral and bilateral agencies, donors, and other development partners advises on policy, does resource mobilisation, technical and strategy development.

The survey identified 717 agencies involved in direct and indirect service delivery to various community groups. There was a drop in the number of agencies listed in 2001 compared to 1997 by 30%. Based on ownership, administration and affiliation as criteria, the agencies were categorised as institutions of Central government, local government, sectoral departments, departments of the district administration, NGOs, faith based organisations and CBOs. Geographical distribution varies from location to location but higher concentrations are found in districts that have high prevalence of HIV infection.

The activities carried out for prevention include sensitisation and education to foster positive behavioural change, prevention of blood-borne HIV transmission, voluntary counselling and testing as well as control of STDs. Activities to mitigate the health and social impact of HIV/AIDS focus on health care for the PLWAs with emphasis on home based care. Social economic and psychosocial support targets at improving the quality of life of PLWA, their families, widows and the orphans. The other form of intervention is concerned with resource mobilisation, institutional and community capacity building.

Most of the agencies have not had definitive evaluation of the impact of their activities, however, they express their achievements in qualitative terms. These include positive behavioural change in the community, improved health care seeking behaviour and improved

access to both health care and social services by PLWA. Constraints differed from institutions to institution. Government run projects experienced organisational problems or bureaucracy and operational delay. CBOs experience lack of support in developing and managing their projects leading to loss of trust by funders. General constraints include inadequate human resource, equipment, logistics and operating facilities. 'Poverty and low social status of most of the target population make integration of HIV/AIDS intervention into mainstream development efforts difficult' (p. ix).

Despite the successful reduction of the prevalence rate from 30% in 1992 to less than 10%, there are some significant gaps. There is inadequate co-ordination of the agencies and their HIV/AIDS activities in the country. Finally the document discusses Uganda's HIV/AIDS Programme Resource Tracking, detailing the sources, the amount of funds, the recipient institution and the intervention targeted.

UAC (1997) Inventory of Agencies with HIV/AIDS related Activities in Uganda, 1997. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda AIDS Commission.

The principle aim of the inventory was to collect data on who is doing what, where and how in the area of HIV/AIDS control in Uganda. Over 1020 agencies were reportedly engaged in HIV/AIDS control activities in Uganda (1997). Nearly one third of the agencies are institutions of the local government (districts departments, health units inclusive). About one in three (32%) were operating at district level, 23% at national level, 21% at regional level 7% (in a number of districts), 16% at sub-district and about 6% at international level. About 35% of the agencies are located in the central region, 25 in the northern region, 20% in the eastern region and 20% in the western region. While external donors provided assistance to 64% of agencies, the rest (36%) were financially supported locally. The document gives a long list of interventions planned/being carried out by the agencies and target groups reached.

UAC (1993) Uganda National Operational Plan For HIV/AIDS/STD Prevention, Care and Support 1994 –1998. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda AIDS Commission.

The Operational Plan was a result of a consensus building process involving a large number of ministries, NGOs and donor agencies. It was the first step of bringing the National Multi-Sectoral Strategy for AIDS Control in Uganda into operation. It refines and defines the priority activities for prevention and care, and identifies how these are to be implemented, and who is responsible for what. It spells out priorities for AIDS and STD control during the planning period which include:

- Prevention of transmission of HIV infection;
- Mitigation of socio-economic impact of AIDS;
- Strengthening the national capacity to respond to the epidemic;
- Establishing a national information base; and
- Strengthening national capacity to undertake research.

UAC (1993) *AIDS Control in Uganda, The Multi-sectoral Approach*. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda AIDS Commission.

The document gives the history of varied government responses to the AIDS epidemic from the time it was first discovered in Rakai District in 1982. It goes further to give the evolutionary process of institutions that were put in place to respond to the challenges posed by HIV/AIDS. The document spells the direction and defines the process of changes required to address the problem of AIDS in Uganda. Past efforts to address the problems of AIDS, and in particular recommendations of the national task force on AIDS, plus observations of several international technical missions, and resolutions of workshops and meetings on AIDS and related issues, provided the foundation of the articulation of the approach. This process was instrumental in identifying of particular goals, strategies, interventions, activity areas and key implementing sectors. Five goals to serve as guiding principles for AIDS control activities during national, district, organisational and community planning, programme identification were established. These goals were

- To stop the spread of HIV infection;
- To mitigate the adverse health and socio-economic impacts of HIV/AIDS epidemic;
- To strengthen the National capacity to respond to the HIV/AIDS epidemic;
- To establish the national information base on HIV/AIDS; and
- To strengthen the national capacity to undertake research relevant to HIV/AIDS.

Over 50 interventions to realise the above goals and strategies were identified in the process. The organisation and management roles of different institutional players in the fight against AIDS are described. The Uganda AIDS Commission was charged with the responsibility of formulating plans, policies and national guidelines for the HIV/AIDS control programmes and activities in the country. Finally the roles of the different institutions in the fight against AIDS are spelt out within the multi-sectoral approach to ensure harmony and achievement of set targets.

UNASO (2002) *Directory of UNASO Member: NGOs, CBOs and Faith Based Organisations*. Kampala, Uganda: Uganda Network of AIDS Service Organizations.

UNASO has the mission of co-ordinating HIV/AIDS service organisations in Uganda so that prevention, quality care and support services are available. It is charged with the responsibility of collecting, generating and sharing information among NGOs/CBOs/FBOs and other stakeholders, building capacity, advocating and lobbying for, NGOs/CBOs/FBOs. The directory is a list of contact details and service profiles including contact names, addresses telephone and fax numbers, email addresses of UNASO member organisations throughout the country working in the field of HIV and AIDS. It is produced to facilitate awareness of the HIV/AIDS activities being carried out in the country by

NGOs/CBOs/FBOs¹³. The network totals 236 organisations. It aims at facilitating the sharing of skills, experiences, information, and best practices among member organisations and partners.

TASO (2002) *Strategic Plan For The Period 2003-2007*. Kampala, Uganda: The AIDS Service Organisation.

The overall goal of TASO's 2003-2007 strategy is 'to contribute to the Uganda National HIV/AIDS plan that aims at achieving a comprehensive national HIV/AIDS response resulting in sustained reduction of HIV infection rates and improved access to quality and equitable prevention, care, support and impact mitigation services for people infected with and affected by HIV/AIDS in Uganda' (p. vii). The strategy has four set immediate objectives to meet this goal:

1. To ensure continuity in improving the quality, range and coverage of TASO's HIV/AIDS prevention, care and support services.
2. To ensure continuity in improving the competence of HIV/AIDS service providers through training, capacity building and consultancy in HIV/AIDS for government institutions, CBOs and NGOs including TASO.
3. To ensure continuity in improving the existing social, political and economic environment for people living with HIV/AIDS.
4. Developing and sustaining the organisational capacity of TASO to carry out this strategy.

Details of how these four objectives are to be achieved are given in the document outlining the outputs, activities, targeted performance, indicators to verify objectives and the means of verification.

TASO (2001) *Annual Report*. Kampala, Uganda: The AIDS Service Organisation.

www.taso.co.ug

The report gives an account of key TASO programme activities carried out, client characteristics and important events that happened between 1999 and 2002. Among the programme activities carried out to meet TASO objectives are counselling, provision of medical services, provision of homecare to bed ridden patients, conducting child support initiative, etc. Programmes aimed at reaching the public include, sensitisation seminars, drama performance in different communities, Radio and TV programmes.

TASO is a voluntary organisation created in 1987 to provide psychosocial support to people living with HIV/AIDS. TASO operates in seven centres in Uganda which include Masaka,

¹³ Faith Based Organizations

Mulago, Tororo, Mbarara, Mbale, Entebbe and Jinja. The total cumulative number of clients served by TASO between 1987 and the end of 2001, was 72,419. Registration is based on testing positive and expressing interest in getting continuous care at any of the seven centres. The number of those registering each year almost doubled from 4,787 clients in 1997 to 8,703 clients in 2001. 17,881 individuals registered clients were counselled in 45,958 sessions in 2001, and this focussed on pre-test and post-test concerns. 19,918 clients received medical services in 2001. Home based care was given to 1,323 clients out of the 2,201 very ill patients. Clients that were specifically referred for nevirapine treatment were 119 while 6,677 clients were referred to TASO from other agencies. A child survival project which trains children above the age of 14 years in specific skills forms one of the important social support programmes. The other component of this programme is the child support scheme at primary, secondary and tertiary levels. At the grassroot community level, each centre trained volunteers in at least two parishes.

TASO (1995) *TASO Uganda the Inside Story: Participatory Evaluation of HIV/AIDS Counselling, Medical and Social Services 1993-1994*. Kampala, Uganda: The AIDS Service Organisation.

It is an evaluation report that seeks to measure the effectiveness of TASO programmes in meeting the needs of People Living With AIDS (PLWA) and their families. The programmes evaluated include provision of counselling services, medical and home care support services, social support services and monitoring services. The evaluation:

- Explored whether TASO counselling services were helping to promote safer sex practices among clients and their families;
- Investigated whether TASO counselling services enabled clients to formulate strategies for the present and future;
- Explored whether TASO clients receive treatment for opportunistic infections, and if they are satisfied with the treatment;
- Explored whether People With AIDS (PLWAs) and their families receive material support;
- Examined whether TASO day centre activities benefit PLWAs;
- Investigated whether income-generating activities funded by TASO promote self-reliance among clients;
- Examined whether clients' needy children benefit from the educational support provided by TASO.

'The evaluation found that TASO has assisted clients and their families to live positively with HIV/AIDS. TASO has achieved this through a package of counselling and medical care as well as material support to clients and their families. Clients have been supported to reveal their sero-status; family and community acceptance of PLWAs has been high and clients have demonstrated positive attitudes through their responsible sexual behaviour and seeking early

treatment for opportunistic infections' (xv). The report makes recommendation based on the findings, which forms a major input in designing future strategic plans for TASO activities.

World Vision (2001) *World Vision Uganda FY'2001-2005 HIV/AIDS Strategy*. Kampala, Uganda: World Vision Uganda.

The strategy illustrates the ultimate objective of World Vision Uganda (WVU) in the fight against HIV/AIDS. It outlines and lays down the activities and programmes to be pursued in the next five years. It spells out the intended outcomes and the indicators to measure the outcomes, and the management and coordination mechanisms to achieve the desired goal. Possible partners and resource mobilisation forms an instrumental part of the strategy. The document gives a historical background of WVU double-pronged strategy that combines prevention of the spread of diseases and care for the infected and affected.

The strategy summarises the achievements made in the fight against AIDS/HIV in the past. In 1989 WVU joined the move with other key partners dealing with HIV/AIDS among communities in Masaka and Rakai. This was followed by several interventions in 1990 and 1992 at household level. These interventions include activities that directly benefit children, including provision of medical care. Over 25,000 children now receive tuition support through primary schools to secondary school level. Over 1000 older orphans are equipped with vocational skills. Through the shelter programme, over 250 households were constructed for children living alone in Rakai and those living with old guardians. In some cases some of the children are provided with items like blankets and utensils. Counselling is provided as well to dealing with emotional and social aspects. At community level, health facility construction is among the activities carried out in Rakai and Masaka. These are done to enable communities to access medical services for children and guardians/parents who are infected with HIV/AIDS. Over 40 schools were constructed in collaboration with the communities in both Masaka and Rakai districts.

World Vision (2000) *Bunyole HIV/AIDS Project: Mid Term Evaluation Report*. Kampala, Uganda: World Vision Uganda.

The evaluation report highlights issues on a World Vision supported project funded by USAID (US\$ 325,265). The project is located in Tororo District targeting a population in a County. The goal of the project is to lower morbidity and mortality rates, related to HIV/AIDS in the county over a period of three years. The project targeted:

- Establishing effective community organisations and mobilisation to support interventions against HIV/AIDS.
- Providing health education on topics including HIV/AIDS and STDS, to 10,000 people in 8 parishes.
- Providing skills for employment and income generation to 300 youths and orphans.
- Establishing community home based care, counselling and medical treatment to reduce the burden of HIV/AIDS for 500 people living with AIDS and their families.

Thematic areas that the project handled include assessment of HIV/AIDS activities, magnitude of HIV/AIDS in the area, raising awareness, behaviour change, sexual behaviour, quality of life of those infected and affected by HIV, counselling, home care, training and education, development of skills, and use of existing community structures.

The report highlights the lessons learnt, mentions constraints encountered and makes recommendations. It is then concluded that overall, the project succeeded in building community awareness on HIV/AIDS, developed a structure for an appropriate response for counselling and care. The project also created an opportunity for the youth to acquire the necessary skills for employment and income generation. The report concludes that there is potential in this kind of intervention to impact people infected and affected by HIV/AIDS.

World Vision (2000) 'Kituntu Integrated Community Development Project: End of Phase I Evaluation report'. Kampala, Uganda: World Vision, Uganda.

The evaluation report provides an insight in the outcome of an integrated development intervention of a three-year project. Results show that there was a positive change in people's attitudes and reduction in social stigma regarding persons living with HIV/AIDS. This was attributed to the work of a community team comprising community counsellors, and caretakers. They used organised village events such as funeral rites and community celebrations to pass on HIV/AIDS awareness and education messages. By May 2000 more than 20,000 people in 7 parishes had been reached. Eight HIV/AIDS patient's caretakers were trained to help PLWAs who did not have relatives or others people to meet their daily needs for care. 305 HIV/AIDS patients in this category were beneficiaries of these services. They are provided with food, blankets as well as medication. Consequently, there was a noticeable change in attitudes towards PLWAs and in personal sexual behaviour.

Miscellaneous

Adato, M. and Haddad, L. (2001) 'Targeting Poverty through Community-Based Public Works Programs: A Cross-Disciplinary Assessment of Recent Experiences in South Africa' FCND Discussion Paper no. 121. Washington DC: Food Consumption and Nutrition Division, International Food Policy Research Institute.

<http://www.ifpri.org/divs/fcnd/dp/papers/fcndp121.pdf>

The paper examines poverty targeting of 7 programs in South Africa's Western Cape Province using mixed-method research, both quantitative and qualitative, and economic and sociological perspectives. It analyses the role of government, community-based organisations, trade unions, and the private sector in explaining targeting outcomes. It shows that the programs were not well-targeted geographically in terms of poverty, employment, or

infrastructure. That within localities, jobs went to the poor and unemployed, though not always the poorest. The programs did well in reaching women, despite local gender bias.

Lampietti, J. and Stalker, L. (2000) *Consumption Expenditure and Female Poverty: A Review of the Evidence* Policy Research Report on Gender and Development, Working Paper Series no. 11. Washington DC: World Bank.

<http://www.worldbank.org/gender/prr/wp11.pdf>

This paper sets out to find out whether poor females are at a significant disadvantage compared to males and non-poor females in terms of welfare indicators and whether female-headed households are over represented among the poor. The consumption expenditure definition of poverty is maintained in the review of 60 poverty assessment studies carried out by the World Bank since 1994 and other recent studies. The paper reveals that there is a considerable variation in the nature and extent of gender inequality across countries, making it difficult to generalise that disparities between women and men are systematically larger below the poverty line. While females are found to be worst off over a range of welfare indicators (health nutrition, education, labour force participation and time use), this difference is not necessarily amplified below the poverty line. The evidence surrounding the incidence of poverty in female-headed household was also found to be country and case specific. The aggregate evidence on headship on poverty is mixed, therefore female-headed households may not be targeted as a group by public policy. A more nuanced analysis, which can identify important sub-groups of the population such as *de jure* female-headed households, is recommended.

Bigsten, A. (1995) *Approaches to Poverty Reduction in Rural Development*. Gotteborg, Sweden: Department of Economics, Gotteborg University.

The paper discusses approaches to poverty reduction in development. The policies include macroeconomic policies, administrative reforms, physical and financial infrastructure policies, direct support to agriculture and non-agricultural production in rural areas, social policies such as education, and health services and targeting of individual groups.

Brett, E. (1993) *Providing for the Rural Poor: Institutional Decay and Transformation in Uganda*. Kampala, Uganda: Fountain Press.

Masiye, G., Chisanga, B. and Chigunta., F. (1998) *Will the Poor Always Be with Us? Poverty Experiences in Zambia*. Lusaka: OXFAM.

The report uses a combination of the poor people's narratives and personal experiences, a review of existing reports on poverty to highlight the extent of poverty in Zambia. The poor are identified in both rural (lack assets) and urban areas (lack money). The report identifies the poor as women, girl-children, children, youth, the new poor (poor because of retirement

and retrenchment) the disabled and destitutes. The poor are characterised by lack of access to education, health care and adequate shelter, poor clothing, disability, low self esteem, powerlessness, lack of political voice, lack of access to legal institutions and prone to food insecurity and starvation.

Kabananukye, K. (1996) *The Plight of Indigenous Groups of People in East Africa: The Case of Pygmies of South Western Uganda*. Kampala, Uganda: Makerere Institute of Social Research.

The paper highlights the plight of a group of ethnically segregated people (a pygmies group referred to as the Batwa but prefer to be called Abayanda) scattered in many districts of Uganda. Before their plight their lifestyle is described as sedentary life where hunting and gathering predominated. They hunted wild animals, gathered fruits, nuts, roots, and collected honey, insects, mushrooms in the bounties of their unlimited forests. This so far changed with the coming of the 'invaders' which impacted their economy (bartering forest products with other products from outsiders) and denial of access to the forests. The historical perspective of their forest based livelihood is given with a thorough discussion of adaptation difficulties they have encountered as a result of being moved out of the forests to begin a new lifestyle with new livelihood strategies. The inability of government, policy makers and society to help improve the lives of these people given the transformation of forests (their habitats) into national parks and reserves is fully discussed. It is argued that although the pygmies population constitutes a numerically insignificant and negligible proportion of the total population, their situation is not. That non-pygmies (including pygmies neighbours, politicians, policy makers) suffer from ethnocentrism because they continue to marginalise and look down upon the pygmies as less humans.

AUTHOR'S INDEX

Author (s)	Theme	Page
Appleton, S.	Education	1
CRDN ¹⁴	Education	1
CRDN	Education	1
Deininger, K. & Crommelynck, A.	Education	2
World Bank	Education	2
MFPED ¹⁵	Health	3
World Bank	Health	4
Foster, M. & Mijumbi, P.	National debt and poverty	5
Mijumbi, P.	National debt and poverty	5
Mijumbi, P., Ayoki, M., Obwona, M. & Kempaka, G.	National debt and poverty	5
Mwaba, A.	National debt and poverty	5
Balihuta, M. & Sen, K.	Poverty in policy perspective	6
Brock, K., McGee, R. & Ssewakiryanga, R.	Poverty in policy perspective	6
CDRN	Poverty in policy perspective	7
Dollar, D.	Poverty in policy perspective	7
Mackinnon, J. & Reinikka, R.	Poverty in policy perspective	8
Mackinnon, J. & Reinikka, R.	Poverty in policy perspective	8
Kakande, M.	Poverty in policy perspective	9
MFPED	Poverty in policy perspective	9
MFPED	Poverty in policy perspective	9
MFPED	Poverty in policy perspective	10
MAAIF ¹⁶ /MFPED	Poverty in policy perspective	10
Brock, K., McGee, R., Okech, R. & Ssuuna, J.	Poverty in policy perspective	11
Okidi, J.	Poverty in policy perspective	11
Opio, F.	Poverty in policy perspective	12
Babirye, D.	Measuring and characterising poverty	13

¹⁴ Community Development Resource Network

¹⁵ Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development

¹⁶ Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industry and Fisheries

Darlington, L.	Measuring and characterising poverty	13
McGee, R.	Measuring and characterising poverty	13
Mijumbi, P. & Okidi, J.	Measuring and characterising poverty	14
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	14
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	16
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	16
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	17
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	18
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	19
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	20
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	20
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	21
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	22
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	23
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	24
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	25
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	25
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	26
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	26
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	26
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	27
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	27
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	27
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	28
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	28
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	29
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	29
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	30
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	30
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	31
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	31
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	31
MFPEd	Measuring and characterising poverty	31
Namara, S.	Measuring and characterising poverty	32

Okidi, J. & Mugambe, G.	Measuring and characterising poverty	32
Okurut, F., Odwee, J. & Adebua, A.	Measuring and characterising poverty	33
Okwi, P.	Measuring and characterising poverty	33
Appleton, S.	Poverty trends in Uganda	34
Appleton, S.	Poverty trends in Uganda	34
Appleton, S.	Poverty trends in Uganda	35
Appleton, S.	Poverty trends in Uganda	35
Appleton, S.	Poverty trends in Uganda	35
Deininger K. & Okidi, J.	Poverty trends in Uganda	36
Jones, C. & Xiao, Y.	Poverty trends in Uganda	36
MFPEd	Poverty trends in Uganda	37
Okidi, J., Okwi, P. & Ddumba, J.	Poverty trends in Uganda	37
Campos, E. & Pradhan, S.	Poverty in institutional and governance context	38
Collier, P.	Poverty in institutional and governance context	39
Ellis, F. & Bahiigwa, G.	Poverty in institutional and governance context	40
Fisman, R. & Svensson, J.	Poverty in institutional and governance context	40
MFPEd	Poverty in institutional and governance context	41
MFPEd/UGCAP ¹⁷	Poverty in institutional and governance context	41
James, R., Francis, P. & Pereza, G.	Poverty in institutional and governance context	42
World Bank	Poverty in institutional and governance context	42
World Bank	Poverty in institutional and governance context	43
Dollar, D., Fisman, R. & Gatti, R.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	44
Eskeland, G. & Thiele, H.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	44
Fisman, R. & Gatti, R.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	44
Fisman, R. & Svensson, J.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	44
Gatti, R.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	44
Gatti, R.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	44
Kaufmann, D. and Wei, SJ.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	44
Kaufmann, D., Kraay, A. & Zoido-Lobaton, P.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	44
Kaufmann, D., Kraay, A. & Zoido-Lobaton, P.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	45
Smarzynska, B. & Wei, SJ.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	45

¹⁷ Uganda Governance Capacity Project

* Outputs associated with a World Bank project and not necessarily applicable directly to Uganda.

Svensson, J.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	45
Svensson, J.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	45
Wei, SJ.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	45
Wei, SJ.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	45
World Bank	Poverty in institutional and governance context	45
Easterly, W.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	46
Filmer, D., & Pritchett, L.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	46
Heil, M. & Wodon, Q.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	46
Heil, M. and Wodon, Q.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	46
Hoy, M. & Jimenez, E.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	47
Muthukumara, M. & Wheeler, D.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	47
Ravallion, M.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	47
Ravallion, M. & Chen, S.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	47
Ravallion, M., Heil, M. & Jalan, J.	* Poverty in institutional and governance context	47
Newman C & S Canagarajah	Gender aspects of poverty	47
Reinikka, R. & Svensson, J.	Credit Accessibility	48
World Bank	Credit Accessibility	48
Collier, P.	Violance and conflict	49
Deininger, K.	Violance and conflict	50
Ehrhart, C. & Ayoo, S.	Violance and conflict	50
World Bank	Violance and conflict	51
Azam, J.P	* Violance and conflict	52
Bates, R., Geif, A. & Singh, S.	* Violance and conflict	52
Collier, P.	* Violance and conflict	52
Collier, P.	* Violance and conflict	52
Collier, P.	* Violance and conflict	52
Collier, P.	* Violance and conflict	52
Collier, P. & Hoeffler, A.	* Violance and conflict	52
Collier, P., Elbadawi, I. & Sambanis, N.	* Violance and conflict	52
de Soysa, I.	* Violance and conflict	52
Doyle, M. & Sambanis, N.	* Violance and conflict	52
Doyle, M. & Sambanis, N.	* Violance and conflict	53

* Outputs associated with a World Bank project and not necessarily applicable directly to Uganda.

Easterly, W.	* Violence and conflict	53
Elbadawi, I. & Ndung'u, N.	* Violence and conflict	53
Elbadawi, I. & Sambanis, N.	* Violence and conflict	53
Fearon, J. & Laitin, D.	* Violence and conflict	53
Gates, S.	* Violence and conflict	53
Herbst, J.	* Violence and conflict	53
Hess, G., Blomberg, S. & Thacker, S.	* Violence and conflict	53
Regan, P.	* Violence and conflict	53
Sambanis, N.	* Violence and conflict	53
Reinikka, R.	Service delivery	54
Reinikka, R. & Svensson, J.	Service delivery	54
World Bank	Service delivery	55
Ablo, E. & Reinikka, R.	* Service delivery	56
Reinikka, R.	* Service delivery	56
Reinikka, R. & Svensson, J.	* Service delivery	56
World Bank	Service delivery	56
Reinikka, R. & Svensson, J.	Infrastructure	57
Tusubira, F., Gebreab, F. & Haggarty, L.	Infrastructure	58
Deininger, K. & Okidi, J.	Constraints to rural development	58
Deininger, K.	Constraints to rural development	59
McDonagh, J. & Bahiigwa, G.	Constraints to rural development	59
Okidi J.	Constraints to rural development	59
World Bank	Constraints to rural development	60
Deininger, K.	* Constraints to rural development	60
Deininger, K.	* Constraints to rural development	60
Deininger, K.	* Constraints to rural development	60
Deininger, K. & Larson, D.	* Constraints to rural development	61
Deininger K., Kempaka, G. & Crommelynck, A.	AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda	61
UAC ¹⁸ /UNAIDS ¹⁹	AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda	61
Uganda AIDS Commission	AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda	62

* Outputs associated with a World Bank project and not necessarily applicable directly to Uganda.

¹⁸ Uganda AIDS Commission

¹⁹ Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS

UAC/UNAIDS	AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda	63
Uganda AIDS Commission	AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda	63
Ministry of Health	AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda	64
Ministry of Health	AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda	64
Uganda AIDS Commission	AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda	64
Uganda AIDS Commission	AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda	65
Uganda AIDS Commission	AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda	66
Uganda AIDS Commission	AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda	66
Uganda AIDS Commission	AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda	67
Uganda Network of AIDS Service Organizations	AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda	68
The AIDS Service Organisation	AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda	68
The AIDS Service Organisation	AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda	69
The AIDS Service Organisation	AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda	69
World Vision	AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda	70
World Vision	AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda	70
World Vision	AIDS/HIV experience and policy in Uganda	71
Adato, M. & Haddad, L.	Miscellaneous	72
Lampietti, J. & Stalker, L.	Miscellaneous	72
Bigsten, A.	Miscellaneous	72
Brett, E.	Miscellaneous	73
Masiye, G., Chisanga, B. & Chigunta., F.	Miscellaneous	73
Kabananukye, K.	Miscellaneous	73