



## **GENDER ASSESSMENT FINAL REPORT**

**BY**



**REEV CONSULT INTERNATIONAL**  
**2<sup>ND</sup> FLOOR REEV HOUSE, PLOT 515 BOMBO ROAD**  
**P.O BOX 28224 KAMPALA**  
**TEL: +256414287779/ 772402609**  
**FAX: +256414531116**  
**MAIL: [reevconsult@infocom.co.ug](mailto:reevconsult@infocom.co.ug)**  
**WEBSITE: [www.reevconsult.co.ug](http://www.reevconsult.co.ug)**

**DECEMBER 2018**

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

---

|                                                                      |     |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| Acronyms                                                             | ii  |
| List of Figures                                                      | iv  |
| List of Boxes                                                        | v   |
| Executive Summary                                                    | vi  |
| 1. Background:                                                       | vi  |
| <b>1</b> INTRODUCTION                                                | 1   |
| 1.1 Background to the Assignment                                     | 1   |
| 1.2 Overview of Gender Assessment thematic areas                     | 2   |
| 1.3 The Analytical Framework                                         | 2   |
| <b>2</b> GENDER MAINSTREAMING MACHINERY                              | 5   |
| 2.1 Introduction                                                     | 5   |
| 2.2 Machinery and Framework for Gender Mainstreaming                 | 5   |
| 2.3 The Legal Regime                                                 | 6   |
| 2.4 The Policy Framework                                             | 10  |
| 2.5 The Socio-Cultural Context                                       | 13  |
| <b>3</b> ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT AND DEVELOPMENT                        | 19  |
| 3.1 Introduction                                                     | 19  |
| 3.2 Ownership, Access and Utilization of Productive Resources        | 19  |
| 3.3 Sources of Household Income                                      | 30  |
| 3.4 Employment, Wage Disparities and Unpaid Work                     | 34  |
| <b>4</b> HEALTH SERVICES DELIVERY                                    | 41  |
| 4.1 Introduction                                                     | 41  |
| 4.2 Access to Health Services                                        | 41  |
| 4.3 Gender Based Reproductive Roles and Maternal Health              | 46  |
| 4.4 HIV /AIDS                                                        | 48  |
| 4.5 Gender and Adolescent Health                                     | 52  |
| <b>5</b> EDUCATION, TRAINING AND SKILLS DEVELOPMENT                  | 57  |
| 5.1 Introduction                                                     | 57  |
| 5.2 Enrolment                                                        | 57  |
| 5.4 Access to Higher Education                                       | 64  |
| 5.5 Access to Technical and Skills Training                          | 67  |
| <b>6</b> FREEDOM FROM VIOLENCE, ACCESS TO JUSTICE AND PEACE BUILDING | 72  |
| 6.1 Introduction                                                     | 72  |
| 6.2 Prevalence and Patterns of Gender Based Violence (GBV)           | 72  |
| 6.3 Access to Justice Services                                       | 82  |
| <b>7</b> LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE                                   | 92  |
| 7.1 Introduction                                                     | 92  |
| 7.2 Participation in Community and Local Governance                  | 92  |
| 7.3 National Leadership and Governance                               | 95  |
| 7.4 Public Sector Management                                         | 98  |
| 7.5 Recommendations                                                  | 101 |
| References                                                           | 104 |

## Acronyms

|         |                                                                              |
|---------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| AA      | Action Aid                                                                   |
| ACCU    | Anti-Corruption Coalition Uganda                                             |
| ACH     | Action Against Hunger                                                        |
| ACFODE  | Action for Development Report                                                |
| ACODE   | Advocates Coalition for Development and Environment                          |
| AFDE    | African Institute for Development Policy                                     |
| ARVs    | Anti-Retro Viral treatment                                                   |
| ASRH    | Adolescent Sexual and Reproductive Health                                    |
| BDS     | Business Development Services                                                |
| BTVET   | Business, Technical and Vocational Education and Training                    |
| CEDAW   | Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women   |
| <br>    |                                                                              |
| CEDOVIP | Center for Domestic Violence Prevention                                      |
| CEWIGO  | Centre for Women in Governance                                               |
| CSBAG   | Civil Society Budget Advocacy Group                                          |
| CSEC    | Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children                                   |
| CSMMU   | Coalition to Stop Maternal Mortality in Uganda                               |
| CSOs    | Civil Society Organizations                                                  |
| DENIVA  | Development Network of Indigenous Voluntary Associations                     |
| <br>    |                                                                              |
| DEVAW   | Declaration on Violence Against Women                                        |
| DFCU    | Development Finance Company of Uganda                                        |
| DFID    | Department for International Development                                     |
| DIIS    | Danish Institute for International Studies                                   |
| DV      | Domestic Violence                                                            |
| EAC     | East African Community                                                       |
| EASSI   | Eastern African Sub-regional Support Initiative for the Advancement of Women |
| ECD     | Early Childhood Development                                                  |
| eMTCT   | Elimination of Mother to Child Transmission                                  |
| EPRC    | Economic Policy Research Centre                                              |
| <br>    |                                                                              |
| FGM/C   | Female Genital Mutilation/Circumcision                                       |
| FHRI    | Foundation for Human Rights Initiative                                       |
| FIDH    | International Federation for Human Rights                                    |
| FOWODE  | Forum for Women and Democracy                                                |
| <br>    |                                                                              |
| GBV     | Gender Based Violence                                                        |
| GDP     | Growth Domestic Product                                                      |
| GEB     | Gender and Equity Budgeting                                                  |
| GED     | Gender Equality and Development                                              |
| GEM     | Girls' Education Movement                                                    |
| GoU     | Government of Uganda                                                         |
| GPI     | Gender Parity Index                                                          |
| GRI     | Gender Responsiveness Indicators                                             |
| ICRW    | International Centre for Research                                            |
| IDRC    | International Development Research Centre                                    |
| IFC     | International Finance Corporation                                            |
| ILO     | International Labour Organization                                            |
| JLOS    | Justice, Law and Order Sector                                                |

|         |                                                                           |
|---------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| KCCA    | Kampala Capital City Authority                                            |
| LCs     | Local Councils                                                            |
| LGs     | Local Governments                                                         |
| MDAs    | Ministries Departments and Agencies                                       |
| MFI     | Micro Finance Institutions                                                |
| MHCP    | Minimum Health Care Package                                               |
| MMR     | Maternal Mortality Rate                                                   |
| MoES    | Ministry of Education and Sport                                           |
| MoFPED  | Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development                    |
| MoGLSD  | Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development                         |
| MoH     | Ministry of Health                                                        |
| MoJ     | Ministry of Justice                                                       |
| MoLG    | Ministry of Local Government                                              |
| MP      | Member of Parliament                                                      |
| NAWAD   | National Association of Women's Action in Development                     |
| NDP     | National Development Plan                                                 |
| NGBVD   | National Gender Based Violence Database                                   |
| NGOs    | Non-Governmental Organizations                                            |
| NGP     | National Gender Policy                                                    |
| NHP     | National Health Policy                                                    |
| NPA     | National Planning Authority                                               |
| NPGEIs  | National Priority Gender Equality Indicators                              |
| NSGE    | National Strategy for Girls Education                                     |
| OAG     | Office of Auditor General                                                 |
| OECD    | Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development                    |
| PMTCT   | Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission                                |
| SDGs    | Sustainable Development Goals                                             |
| SDGEA   | Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa                           |
| SDP     | Sector Development Plan                                                   |
| SGBV    | Sexual and Gender Based Violence                                          |
| UBOS    | Uganda Bureau of Statistics                                               |
| UDHS    | Uganda Demographic and Health Surveys                                     |
| UJCC    | Uganda Joint Christian Council                                            |
| UNDAF   | United Nations Development Assistance Framework for Uganda                |
| UNDP    | United Nations Development Programme                                      |
| UNFPA   | United Nations Population Fund                                            |
| UNHS    | Uganda National Household Surveys                                         |
| UN-JPGE | United Nations Joint Programme on Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment |
| UPE     | Universal Primary Education                                               |
| USE     | Universal Secondary Education                                             |
| UWEAL   | Uganda Women Entrepreneurs' Association Limited                           |
| UWEN    | Uganda Women Entrepreneurs' Network                                       |
| UWEP    | Uganda Women Entrepreneurship Programme                                   |
| UWONET  | Uganda Women's Network                                                    |
| VAC     | Violence Against Children                                                 |
| VAW     | Violence Against Women                                                    |
| VSLA    | Village Saving and Lending Association                                    |
| WEAs    | Women Entrepreneurs' Association                                          |
| WED     | Women's Enterprise Development                                            |

WHHS            Women Headed Households  
WOUGNE       Women of Uganda Network  
T

## List of Figures

|          |                                                                     |    |
|----------|---------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Fig 1.1  | Gender assessment guiding model                                     | 3  |
| Fig 3.2  | Industry by Sex of Employed Population (%)                          | 34 |
| Fig 5.2: | Uganda Secondary Education Programme Enrolment Figures for Selected | 61 |
| Fig 5.3  | Percentage Ratio of Girls to Boys in Secondary Education FY         | 62 |
| Fig 6.1  | Trends of selected categories of crime                              | 74 |
| Fig 6.3  | The SASA Approach                                                   | 81 |
| Fig 6.3  | Reporting GBV cases                                                 | 81 |
| Fig 6.4  | Why Females do not seek Formal Justice on GBV                       | 83 |
| Fig 7.1: | Composition of cabinet by sex (Numbers)                             | 96 |

## List of Tables

|            |                                                                        |    |
|------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Table 3.1  | Ownership of agricultural and non-agricultural land (%)                | 20 |
| Table 3.2  | Ownership of selected household assets by sex of household members (%) | 23 |
| Table 3.4  | Persons aged 18 years and above by source of loan /credit (%)          | 26 |
| Table 3.5  | Reasons for no Accounts in Financial institutions by Gender            | 27 |
| Table 3.6  | Distribution of households by Main source of Earnings                  | 31 |
| Table 3.10 | Activity Status of Youth in Uganda (18-30 years), 2013 and 2015        | 35 |
| Table 3.11 | Median Main Job Monthly Nominal Wages for Wage Employees (Shs: '000)   | 36 |
| Table 5.1  | Primary School Enrolment, 2012-2016                                    | 58 |
| Table 5.2  | Key Secondary School Education Indicators (2014 – 2016)                | 62 |
| Table 5.4  | Tertiary Enrolment by Sex, 2012-2016                                   | 64 |
| Table 5.5  | Number of BTNET institutions and enrolment by type and sex, 2012-2016  | 67 |
| Table 6.2  | Access to JLOS Services                                                | 82 |
| Table 6.3  | Distribution of Judicial Officers                                      | 84 |
| Table 6.4  | Comparative Rates of men and women in the Judiciary 2015 and 2017      | 88 |
| Table 7.1  | Composition of the Local Government (2016)                             | 92 |
| Table 7.2  | Composition of Parliament by gender                                    | 95 |
| Table 7.4  | Gender Composition in Decision Making Positions in Public Service      | 98 |

## List of Boxes

|         |                                                                                                                          |
|---------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Box 2.1 | Some key constitutional provisions for equality between men and women                                                    |
| Box 2.2 | The African Union Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (Preamble)                                             |
| Box 3.1 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on land                                                          |
| Box 3.2 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on property                                                      |
| Box 3.3 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on financial services                                            |
| Box 3.4 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on production inputs, technology, extension services and markets |
| Box 3.5 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on household income and control                                  |
| Box 3.6 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on employment and wages                                          |
| Box 4.1 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on health infrastructure                                         |
| Box 4.2 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on medical equipment and medicine                                |
| Box 4.3 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on health personnel                                              |
| Box 4.4 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on maternal health services                                      |
| Box 4.5 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on HIV-AIDS                                                      |
| Box 4.6 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on adolescent health                                             |
| Box 5.1 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on primary school enrolment                                      |
| Box 5.2 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on secondary school enrolment                                    |
| Box 5.3 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on school dropout / retention                                    |
| Box 5.4 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on higher education                                              |
| Box 5.5 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on technical and skills training                                 |
| Box 5.6 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on literacy                                                      |
| Box 6.1 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on gender based violence (GBV)                                   |
| Box 6.2 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on justice infrastructure and services                           |
| Box 6.3 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on public awareness, trust and utilization of justice services   |
| Box 6.4 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on participation in peace building and conflict management       |
| Box 7.1 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on Participation in Community and Local Governance               |
| Box 7.2 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on National Leadership and Governance                            |
| Box 7.3 | Critical observations, implications and gender concerns Public Sector Management                                         |

## **Executive Summary**

### **1. Background:**

The gender equality agenda in Uganda is blessed with positive legal and policy environment. Over time, various provisions have been established within the National Legal Framework to foster gender equality. This has been followed by wide ranging initiatives to promote gender equality. However, it is apparent that achievements have been below expectation as most of the laws are not enforced leaving the vulnerable women susceptible to vices such as GBV and deprivation of economic opportunities.

It is against this background that UWONET commissioned a countrywide Gender Assessment to re-examine the gender equality situation in Uganda. The assessment was conducted through review of secondary data and field surveys covering twenty districts (20) from all the sub regions of Uganda. The assessment focused on: economic empowerment, education, health, violence & justice, and leadership and governance.

### **2. Policy framework:**

**2.1** The assessment established that Uganda's policy framework is supportive of the gender equality agenda. Even internationally, Uganda is always applauded as a benchmark on various well thought out policies. However, these policies remain good on paper while on the ground, actual implementation often falls short. This is because the country is characterized by *institutional weaknesses* across government, both at the central and local levels. These include high levels of corruption, lack of funding of critical services such as health, education, agricultural extension and judicial services. There are also mindset inertia where duty bearers have not appreciated the need for radical changes aimed at gender equality. But as shown later, this is elaborated as a result of heavily entrenched culture and tradition that relegates a woman's' position.

**2.2** Despite the many positive policy documents in place and some progress so far made towards gender equality; many facets of inequality between men and women; and boys and girls persist. The most critical gender equality in Uganda is in regard to: rights and access to economic opportunities/productive resources, education, health, participation in governance and access to justice.

**2.3** While some gains towards promoting gender equality have been reported, many aspects of the cultural norms, traditions, beliefs and practices are still in direct conflict with the progressive legal and policy frameworks which the country has adopted over the years to foster gender equality. The negative socio-cultural context premised on gender ideologies that discriminate against women appears to be the single most critical barrier underpinning the success and sustainability of the gender equality agenda in Uganda.

### **2.4 Recommendations**

- Radicalize effective implementation of programmes with more stringent enforcement of the laws aimed at fostering gender equality with strict reward and sanction of performance and deviance respectively;

- Effective implementation of strategic interventions to counter existing laxity across government to create gender equality, this should constitute heavy punishment to corrupt practices aimed at making corruption a high risk venture;
- Out-law cultural practices such as FGM, GBV by introducing heavy sanctions against culprits.

### **3. Economic Empowerment and Development**

**3.1** The existing gender imbalances are buttressed by household power relations underscoring men's fears that women's ownership of productive resources will tilt the balance of power relations at household level in favor of the women, hence reducing on men's authority. The Gender assessment survey 2018 established that 39% of women in the 20 districts own land compared to 73% men. This concurs with UBOS, 2017 survey which established that, only 31% of women aged 15-49 years own land as compared to 48% of men in the same age bracket.

**3.2** The implications and real impact of lack of ownership of land rights especially by rural women in agriculture and urban women in business; goes beyond the land itself to the control of the output and sale of proceeds by the spouses/male. The most immediate effect of limited land rights is that women are denied collateral for securing credit from financial institutions.

**3.3** Despite noted slight improvements over time, the gender parity indicators in ownership of other property besides land are still way below acceptable levels. Just like in the case of land, disparities in economic opportunities (largely arising from the limited education and training attained), constrain women's income earning capacity hence, less ability to acquire property.

**3.4** In regard to financial inclusion; the current survey findings show that 21% of females compared to 42.6% of the males had bank accounts. These results are consistent with earlier research (EPRC, 2013) which established that only 18% of women as compared to 25% of the men had a Bank account. This situation is not surprising given the already highlighted deprivation among women emanating from limited land ownership rights, and constrained employment opportunities due to low education attainment.

**3.5** Many women are engaged in unpaid domestic work. The study findings show that 43% of the women in Uganda as opposed to 20% of the men are engaged in unpaid domestic work. Women spend 7.5 hours /day on unpaid care work, compared with 2 hours /day spent by the men. The effect is that the men use most of their time to engage in faithful employment, earn income and acquire property while the women spent most of their time on un-paid domestic work.

### **3.6 Best practices**

**3.6.1** Government has implemented programmes specifically tailored for women economic empowerment, prominent of which is UWEPP that focuses on enhancing entrepreneurship among women. This is in the right direction given the already constrained women's access to financial services. UWEPP is based on *group collateral* and has equipped more than 3,000 women entrepreneurs with business management skills and linked them to markets.

**3.6.2** The Uganda Women Finance Trust (UWFT) a CSO which transformed into a Commercial Bank is an initiative in the right direction. It focuses on financing women with friendly financial products that they would not have accessed through the conventional commercial banks.

**3.6.3** The Food and Agricultural Organization of United Nations (FAO) has implemented interventions based on “*family business*” aimed at enhancing women’s involvement in household economic activity. These initiatives have given women opportunity to engage in economic activities. A study by UNFPA in 2017 found that this model was effective in enhancing family stability given that many husbands supported their wives to start and expand their businesses; a situation that had greatly contributed to reduction of GBV (UNFPA, 2017).

### **3.7 Recommendations**

- Focus on programmes that promote ***joint ownership*** of land and other productive property by spouses as family property. Joint ownership of land by spouses is already provided for in the new Land Policy, 2013.
- Lobby Parliament to ***expeditiously enact*** the Marriage Bill (2017) into law. The Act proposes allowing married persons and those cohabiting to agree on how property will be owned during and after the relationship has been dissolved.
- Constructively engage cultural leaders/institutions to popularize the Land (Amendment) Act (2010), particularly provisions that promote ownership of land by the women. Secondly, engage these institutions to champion change in attitude towards the inheritance of land by women/girls.
- “*Group Collateral*”; an innovation by the Micro-finance Groups and SACCOs have made it possible for women to access credit without the traditional collateral such as land or other property (which women do not have) usually demanded by the formal financial institutions. Such groups and initiatives should be supported and strengthened. One way of supporting them can be capitalizing the groups so that more people can access credit. The *Grameen Bank* experience of “group collateral” propounded by Mohammed Yunus, is a compelling case for women economic empowerment.
- The *Certificate of Gender Equity* applied during planning at the National level should systematically cascade to the lower local governments to encourage gender responsive budgeting at all levels of governance. For this to be effective, it should have inbuilt mechanisms for “rewarding and sanctioning” compliance and non-compliance respectively.
- Promoters of gender equality should strongly lobby authorities (political and legislative) for ***instituting legal measures*** to protect widows from property and land grabbing predominantly by the late husband’s relatives and the “politically powerful” in their locality.
- Enforce work place policies that enjoin all employers to provide child care facilities at the place of work. Provision of such facilities allows working women to report to work with their babies; hence increasing the opportunities for lactating mothers to engage in productive work without worrying about the welfare of the baby or taking long maternity leave.
- Continuously sensitize communities against cultural biases that discriminate the girl children in fields of education; usually placing the boys ahead of the girls for technical disciplines. However, the girls too must be encouraged to take up the challenges.

- Advocate for gender equality in access to employment opportunities and *equal pay for work of equal value* between women and men.

The gender equality interventions seem to have failed under the weight of patriarchy. In spite of investment of efforts, available evidence suggests lack of economic transformation at the household level indicating that there are strategic gaps have not yet been filled.

#### **4. Health Services Delivery**

**4.1** The Government of Uganda has put in systems and processes to ensure efficient and effective delivery of health services. This include physical infrastructure facilities at all the seven levels of service provision ranging from Community Health Workers (CHW) HCII (Parish), HCIII (Sub County), HCIV (County), District Hospitals, Regional Referral Hospitals (RRH) and National Referral Hospitals. In addition, Uganda is reputed to have one of the best health policies as enshrined in the National Health Policy 2010, where service delivery is based on the Minimum Healthcare Package (MHCP). The essence is provision of integrated healthcare at HCIII/ Sub county level.

**4.2** however, despite the impressive physical infrastructural facilities, the health services delivery system faces many challenges leading to poor health indicators, manifesting in high MMR (336/100,000); IMR estimated at 56/1000 and 27% of the mothers still delivering outside formal health facilities (UDHS 2016). These indices are extremely undesirable given that regional neighbors namely: Kenya and Rwanda have far better indicators. For example, in these countries, delivery outside health facilities is only 7% and 17% respectively.

**4.3** Uganda shows high affinity for child bearing with a TFR of 5.4 as compared to Kenya, for example, with a TFR of 4 (UNDP 2017, World Bank 2017). The high fertility rate contributes to the high risk of maternal morbidity and mortality. These are reflections of limited sexual reproductive rights among the women given that many women confessed that the men decided the number of children the couple wanted to have. These coupled with low use of modern contraceptive methods and limited family planning which many men do not encourage results into high TFR with attendant health risks.

**4.4** Despite Uganda's population being largely youthful, most of them adolescents (girls and boys), the sexual and reproductive health services available to them are not user-friendly. For example, at the health facility the young people are served together with the adults and some of whom are their parents. Consequently, many of the youth shy away from the health facilities. This partly explains the prevalence of adolescent healthcare burdens, such as teenage pregnancy, which at 23%, is amongst the highest in sub- Saharan Africa.

**4.5** Uganda is reputed to have successfully controlled the spread of HIV/AIDS from 18.5% prevalence in the early 1990's to 7.2% in 2011. However, the rate has since increased to 7.3% (MoH, 2017). That notwithstanding, there is a discernable gender perspective to the resurgence of HIV prevalence with females (7.6%) presently infected compared to 4.7% men. The

explanation is that most men have less initiative to undergo HIV testing as compared to women which makes women vulnerable to infection. Adolescent females account for 3% while the males account for 1.7%. Even among those aged 20-24, more females (7.1%) than males (2.8%) were HIV positive (DFID 2014). The higher prevalence among the women has been attributed to socio-cultural norms that, among other things promote early marriages, early child bearing, polygamy, cross-generational sex, domestic violence. Furthermore, there is increased HIV prevalence among married persons reportedly due to extra marital relations among men, a phenomenon that is accepted for men but abhorred for women.

**4.6** Figuratively, the budget allocation to Health has been increasing from UGX 1.3 Tn in FY 2015/16; UGX 1.4 Tn in FY 2016/17; UGX 1.8 Tn in FY 2017/18 and 2.3 Tn in FY 2018/19 (MoFPED 2018). On average, the proportion allocation to health has been around 8% of the national budget. Despite the apparent increases, the proportionate allocation (to the national budget) remains far below the Abuja Declaration recommendation of 15% of the National budget that was agreed on by all African countries. Furthermore, like all the other sectors, the budget allocation to health has often suffered sporadic budget cuts, thereby exacerbating the challenges occasioned by inadequate financing of planned activities. The results include: drug stock outs, lack of appropriate diagnostic equipment and poor attitudes of health workers, largely resulting from their (health workers) poor remuneration.

**4.7** The low funding of the health sector negatively affects women given that the women use health services more than the men do. Women have therefore suffered the full brunt of these cuts more than men because it is largely women that look after the sick members of the family in addition to women themselves being vulnerable due to reproductive health status and outcomes. It is against this background that during FY 2016/17, a member of parliament moved a “*Private Members Motion*” seeking supplementary funding for maternal health services. Fortunately, the supplementary budget of UGX 120Bn was granted.

## **4.8 Best practices**

**4.8.1 The multi sectoral approach** characterized by openness was a very effective tool for the reduction of HIV from 18.5% in early 1990's to 7.4% in 2018. Because the approach was cascaded from the highest levels of government across all sectors at various levels, it attracted significant financial and technical support from Development partners, Government, CSOs and the Private sector with positive results.

**4.8.2 The Minimum Health Care Package (MHCP)** as a model for integrated health care delivery has proved to be a convenient, efficient and effective tool for healthcare delivery, the challenges notwithstanding.

## **4.9 Recommendations**

- There is need for a paradigm shift in healthcare delivery from curative to emphasizing primary healthcare at the grass root level. This is occasioned by the challenges in regard

to limited availability of essential medicines and health supplies, coupled with heavy brain drain of the highly trained/skilled health workers. The new approach will be akin to the “*bare foot doctors*<sup>1</sup>” model of health service delivery in China, which has proved to be very effective.

- The high cost of health services has constrained uptake of the services by the poor would-be clients. This calls for interventions such as **cost sharing or substantial subsidies** on health services to increase affordability by the poor women and men.
- Address *remuneration and facilitation challenges* the health workers face to increase retention of the existing skilled workforce and attract more health workers.
- Sensitize the population about the (negative) implications of high birth rates that increases the rate of child delivery and maternal health risks highlighting the advantages of a small family.
- Strengthen campaigns against harmful traditional practices, such as female genital mutilation, polygamy and extra marital relations which enhance spread of HIV.
- Actors in provision of reproductive health services need to increase availability of, and access to adolescent-friendly services (ARHS) for young people to encourage uptake of the services.

## 5. Education, Training and Skills Development

The sub themes here included: school enrolment; completion and retention; access to higher education; access to technical/skills training; and literacy.

### 5.1 Primary and secondary school enrolment

**5.1.1** In 1997, Uganda Government introduced Universal Primary Education (UPE) programme positively resulting into phenomenal rise in primary school enrolment from about 7 million pupils in 1999 to 11 million in 2012.

**5.1.2** It is apparent that UPE achieved gender parity at primary school level. In 2013, total enrolment in primary schools was 4,185,286 girls and 4,205,388 boys. However, at secondary level, gender parity tilts in favor of the boys because many girls drop out before completing primary school. Currently, the completion rate is 30%; meaning that for every ten girls admitted to primary schools, only three complete to proceed to secondary level.

**5.1.3** Further disparities are reflected in statistics of children “*who never went to school*”: 23% of females of school going age compared to 12% males in the surveyed population have never attended primary school education, indicating that the UPE policy has benefited the boys more than the girls.

---

<sup>1</sup> In China, the training of Medical doctors is largely based on traditional Medicine. The focus is on indigenous knowledge with primary health care as the main strategy. The “bare foot doctors” *traverse the country treating people at community level*.

**5.1.4** The low completion rate for girls arises largely from heavily entrenched culture and tradition including early marriages, traditional gender roles resulting in heavier work load for the girl child; and gender discrimination that favored the boys against the girls in situations such as scarcity of money (school fees) at household level.

## **5.2 Higher education**

**5.2.1** Liberalization of education in Uganda in the 1990's attracted heavy private sector investment in education institutions (primary, secondary and tertiary). The immediate result has been phenomenal increase in enrolment in post primary and tertiary institutions.

**5.2.2** The penetration of private investment into higher education institutions created wide space for enrollment into higher education institutions, reducing on the high competition before; that used to disadvantage the girls more. This created a general increment in post primary school enrolment for both boys and girls, although this may still be fundamentally locationally and regionally skewed. It is therefore important to take note of this important contribution to the educational sector widening and deepening of spaces in post primary educational opportunities as a result of the liberalization of investment in higher education. Gender parity however remains an issue here.

**5.2.3** The introduction of the affirmative action policy (1.5 bonus points) for the girls being admitted to universities, further enhanced girls' enrolment to tertiary institutions. However, studies (MoES 2017) show that enrollment at tertiary level is heavily skewed in favor of urban areas (68%) as compared to rural areas (32%). An analysis of admission records of many Universities indicate that girls admitted come from urban based schools where students already qualify for University entry. The students in remote rural areas suffer from heavy supply side constraints (long distances, lack of electricity, poor school infrastructure among others). Many thus cannot be admitted, given their very poor performance even if the 1.5-point bonus is considered. This was corroborated in a key informant interview with FIDA staff in Kampala where it was noted that "the 1.5 bonus help for girls comes in late because many drop out at primary and lower level and are thus unable to benefit from it"

## **5.3 Technical and skills training**

**5.3.1** The gender gap remains a worry in BTVET institutions and PTCs with much fewer females (41.5%) than males (58.5%) enrolling. A study by the Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES, 2017) largely attributed the discrepancy to 'fear' of science subjects such as physics and mathematics by the females.

**5.3.3** The Government of Uganda has put in place a BTVET policy. There is also a "Skilling Uganda" Strategic Plan, aimed at promoting skilling and girls' participation in BTVET institutions. Fruits from these interventions are yet to be realized given that these are still relatively new initiatives.

**5.3.4** There is also an issue of negative attitude toward technical/vocational skills institutions. Most parents in Uganda prefer their children to pursue formal University programmes. Graduates of vocational/BTVET institutions are derogatorily referred to as “*academic dwarfs*” hence, not attractive to potential students.

## **5.4 Best practice**

5.4.1 Universal Primary education introduced in 1997 has greatly enhanced enrolment and literacy. Because of this initiative, in 2012, Uganda attained gender parity in enrollment of boys and girls for primary education.

5.4.2 The liberalization policy resulting in private sector investment in education relaxed the competition to the few post primary institutions which in most cases disadvantaged the girls. Space was created for more girls to participate in areas where they hitherto had limited opportunities.

5.4.3 Affirmative Action at Tertiary/University in regard to the 1.5 bonus points has further enhanced girl child enrolment particularly in tertiary institutions. The results of similar interventions targeting girls show significant progress. For example, admission statistics for 2017/18 academic year show that 63% of the 173 government sponsored students at Makerere University Business School (MUBS) were female; and so were 60% of the Law students at Makerere University and 81% of Accounting and Finance students at Kyambogo University. However, girl participation in science courses like Medicine and Engineering; boys are still dominant up to 90% of total admissions.

5.4.4 Re-admission into school after delivery of school girls who become pregnant; the morality of it notwithstanding supports retention of girls in the school system. This issue is particularly instructive given that the instant survey found that 25% of the pregnant mothers were teenagers and that cohort contributed 29% of the reported total maternal mortality in Uganda.

## **5.5 Recommendations**

- Local authorities should institute and implement strict sanctions for parents who fail to enroll children in school given the highly generous initiatives by government through UPE and USE.
- A revitalized inspection function would form the basis for addressing the plight of teachers through provision of motivators such as housing accommodation which should go hand in hand with sanctions for flouting school regulations particularly absenteeism.
- Gender specific interventions targeting girls to address issues of sanitation and hygiene more particularly in mixed schools. The embarrassment related to menstruation has been cited many times among the reasons for the girls dropping out of school.
- Strengthen advocacy to authorities to consider the positive side of re-admitting to school teenage girls who get pregnant in school; with a view to adopting it as a policy;
- Support deliberate efforts aimed at increasing incentives and affirmative action for women pursuing science disciplines and continuously encourage mind set change for girl child education at all levels.

## **6. Freedom from violence, access to justice and peace building**

**6.1** From the Gender assessment survey, 22% of the women aged 15-49 reported that they have experienced sexual violence at some point in time. On the other hand, only 8% of the men reported to have experienced sexual violence. The implication of these results is that in Uganda women are more than twice as likely to experience sexual violence as men.

**6.2** The prevalence of GBV is heavily buttressed in culture, with some traditions espousing violence against girls/ women as a value system; hence, the different levels of prevalence. For example, 54.6% of the women in Karamoja reported having ever experienced abuse compared to 48.7% of the women in Northern Uganda (UNFPA 2017). Interestingly, in some societies, wife beating is interpreted as a “*sign of love*”. In certain areas like North Eastern Uganda, GBV remains high (71.4% as compared to Ankole 52.5%) despite significant investments implying need for specific tailored interventions that respond to the uniqueness of the context.

**6.3** The most prevalent forms of GBV include: wife battering (30%), defilement (25%), rape (20%), marital rape (13%) and sexual exploitation at 12% (MoH, 2007).

**6.4** Much as ***no kind of GBV should be accepted whatsoever***; it is paradoxical that GBV was justified in some cases including the victims. Findings of this survey show that 58% of women and 44% of men believed that a man was justified to beat his wife under certain circumstances.

**6.4 Sexual violence against children is high;** with 74% of the girls and 52% of the boys reporting that they had ever experienced sexual violence. However, the forms were different with the boys mainly suffering physical violence while the girls mainly experienced sex related violations.

**6.5** It was noted that 68% of the violations against the girls/women were not reported. The explanation here is the unfair judicial processes for prosecuting cases against sexual violence. This is exacerbated by corruption in JLOS institutions taking advantage of poor women that are not only unaware of the judicial system but are also in most cases too poor to afford costs involved such as fees for legal representation.

**6.6** In 2014, government through MoGLSD established a National Child Help Line Centre – a toll free line (116). Since 2014 -2016, the CHL centre has received 478,048 cases and all of them have been responded to promptly.

**6.7** There are effective models for prevention and response to GBV prominent of which include the *SASA Model*, *MAGs* (UNFPA) the *Free Toll Line* (Government and UNICEF), and *He-for- She* campaigns (UN Women). These models have been effective in addressing violence against children; hence, scaling them up would go a long way in combating violence against children.

**6.8** FIDA working with UNFPA, MoGLSD and other CSOs developed models of legal representation of victims of GBV through establishment Safe Shelters for victims of GBV; establishment of *Special Courts* for handling cases of VAC and training and equipping Uganda Police Force for handling GBV. This is a good practice which should be scaled up.

**6.9** High dependency of women on their husbands is detracting efforts targeting eradication of GBV perpetration by the men. This Gender assessment survey established that 92% of the respondents who were GBV victims did not report because the husbands were the sole bread

winners for the family. Despite the abuses, the woman” protected” her husband, so that he continues providing for the family.

**6.10** land related conflict and women access to justice. Most of the policies on oil and gas do not address themselves very well on aspects of conflict management at community level arising from process of oil and gas exploration, say compensation for family land<sup>2</sup>. Women are more likely to lose out if a transaction is entered into with a family, as control of resources in most rural communities’ rest squarely on male family members. This is an area which need sustained intervention and dialogue with the community in the affected areas.

**6.11** Available evidence and field studies by civil society organizations such as Action Aid Uganda, and ACODE<sup>3</sup> suggest that firstly the levels of women awareness on land right issues in the Albertine region is extremely low, with most women assuming that land belong to men only. It is possible that women’ lack of understanding of their land rights is propelled by skewed nature of access to information, limited awareness about the availability of both formal and informal justice process. The lives of most women in rural areas is strongly dictated by cultural ideals and values, which many times puts women below the male members of society, as explained by patriarchal theories. Moreover, the minority of the women who knows about their rights also have significant challenges in accessing legal services in terms of fees that turn up to always be quite prohibitive in the justice process.

**6.12** Within the Albertine region, studies suggest that land disputes is caused by several factors including high community expectations because of discovery of oil in the region, which complicated land cases. There has been a momentous rush by people from elsewhere in Uganda, mainly richer business or salaried people to acquire land within the Albertine graben. Moreover, the process of resettlement in northern Uganda as people returned home after displacement also heightened land disputes within the Acholi (especially Nwoya) sub region. In Masindi, Buliisa and Hoima, the main cause of land disputes has been land grabbing by powerful and richer individuals, denial of access to land, land sales and eviction due to increase demands and speculations on oil.

**6.13** Available studies also suggest that men report most disputes cases regarding land, something which puts women on a disadvantaged defensive side. Many land cases are also among family members and extended family and rarely among between clans. Moreover, in recent years the oil regions saw massive migration of people from other parts of Uganda for such reasons as employment and other opportunities, further putting pressures on the land available for local communities. This was exacerbated by oil speculations which further complicated land disputes including the inability to effectively address land rights or issues of the immigrants. The slow speed at which civil cases are disposed of in Uganda’ court system is another major

---

<sup>2</sup> While clauses may exist promoting gender equity, lack of monitoring mechanism may see this not met.

<sup>3</sup> See for example Action Aid 2014 commissioned baseline study to assess the land rights of women in oil region, covering Nebbi, Hoima, Nwoya, Buliisa and Masindi districts.

challenge affecting resolutions of land disputes; with higher levels of dissatisfaction with the way land cases are handled.

**6.14** Women are further disadvantaged on land matters as court fees and time becomes very expensive for them. The heavy court time also infringe significantly on the abilities of the women to perform both their productive and reproductive roles. In other cases, women are either bribed off or threatened to give up their interests on land which have been grabbed off them. As a result, many lose their resolve and abandon the pursuit of justice.

### **6.15 Recommendations**

- Strengthen programmes such as UWEP that promote women empowerment given that empowered women are less likely to be held captive to violent relationships and will be more likely to report GBV cases without fear.
- Encourage male involvement and engagement as champions in elimination of all forms of GBV in institutions such as the family, community, schools, places of worship and as well as workplace. This can be effectively done through adopting the SASA Model.
- Commit adequate resources through adoption of gender budgeting for implementation of activities and programmes that promote gender equality. CSBAG advises on Certificate of Gender Compliancy to ensure that all budgets (institutional, local and national) are compliant before approval.
- Sensitization of the communities especially through cultural and traditional leaders across the different ethnic groups in the country; about their rights and the availability of justice services for redressing cultural issues. This is important given that GBV is deeply entrenched in cultural beliefs and practices.
- Increase awareness-raising and education efforts, targeted at both men and women, in order to completely eliminate retrogressive practices such as FGM and its underlying cultural justifications. Such efforts should include the design and implementation initiatives providing alternative livelihoods to those who were benefitting from the practice.
- Initiate conscious and concerted efforts to address women information access and knowledge about their land rights and redress mechanism. This is even more required in resource induced conflict such as matters arising within the oil exploration and production areas, and post conflict areas such as northern Uganda.

## **7. Leadership and Governance**

**7.1** Uganda boasts of a strong system of governance based on Local council system stretching from the district (LCV), through the county (LCIV), Sub County (LCIII), parish/Ward (LCII) to the village/Cell (LCI). However, the participation of women at the various levels has been dismal. According to a recent report on gender participation in governance; only 3 district councils (LCV) out of 116 are headed by women.

**7.2** Commercialization of politics has been cited as the main reason for low women participation in elective parliamentary elections. Unverified information by some members of parliament indicated that currently, a campaign for election as Member of Parliament costs in the range of UGX 350,000,000! This amount is farfetched a dream for many women. In addition, this study established that political leaders are heavily burdened by their electorates who demand favors

such as food, school fees of their children, burial expenses and wedding ceremonies. For women, this is too costly given their constituent coverage of a whole district as compared to men who represent much smaller constituencies.

**7.3** Civil Society organizations have focused on advocacy and lobbying for increased participation/representation of women in positions of leadership resulting in Government's adopting of the *Affirmative Action* in governance, management and civic leadership .

**7.4** Despite the initiatives to achieve gender equality (EOC, Open access to education institutions, employment among others), there are still wide disparities between men and women in positions of governance, leadership and public sector management and service delivery.

**7.5** There has been progress of women representation in parliament from 14 in 1989 - 1996 (5<sup>th</sup> Parliament) to the current 35 in 2016 - 2021 (10<sup>th</sup> Parliament), implying that only 35% of the Members of Parliament are women with 65% men while cabinet comprises 24% females and 76% men. Similarly, out of the entire public service of over 250,000 employees, females account for only 33%. However, the added value of women representation in leadership and governance positions and how it cascades downwards is not clear and needs further assessment. Interviews with staff at FIDA Uganda suggest that "while Affirmative action is not a bad thing, its benefits have been mixed, especially in governance, where for example women in parliament have not mentored others at either national or local levels"

**7.6** The most constraining barrier to women progression to the top has been attributed to lack of requisite qualifications and skills. This limitation is traced to the structural barriers to equitable education for the girl child such as preference for educating the boy child. Worth noting is also the discriminatory practices in regard to the fields of training, where women were long relegated to fields which trains them as mothers and "good wives", with other courses considered too hard or *unfeminine* for women. These played a key role in diminishing women's confidence and self-esteem.

### **7.7 Best practice**

Affirmative action spearheaded by CSOs as a best practice in governance and leadership has greatly enhanced women participation in leadership and governance. This has resulted into significant representation of women in parliament, cabinet and councils in local governments. Even areas with deeply entrenched negative gender ideologies against women as leaders were able to have women representation in local council leadership. What remains however is the empowerment of women in such affirmative action positions to build a greater constituency for women to influence policy, practice and development agenda.

### **7.8 Recommendations**

- Take deliberate action to transform cultures that discriminate women, through for example, enlarging political space to allow in more women participants; and women leaders to mentor and support emerging leaders in both political and civil spaces.
- More awareness is needed on why women should participate in political leadership. Women political leaders are role models for other women or younger women to aspire to run for

political office as well. Women leaders should therefore model for other women so as to increase space for political participation at all levels.

- Increase women participation in public sector management by offering more leadership positions by way of affirmative action where the positions are appointive. Affirmative action has proved effective in promoting women participation in public affairs.
- Women should be affirmatively encouraged to undertake career development as a basis for promotion and appointment to top positions. This is because these positions are technical, require knowledge, skills, experience and career progression all which cannot be easily achieved within the current social cultural environment that relegates women to domestic realm.

**1.1 Background to the Assignment**

The quest for gender equality in Uganda has been high on the national agenda since independence and especially gained even further traction over the last three decades. While some commendable achievements have been registered, gender equity outcomes for women and men, boys and girls are still far from the ideal. Under this particular assignment, Uganda Women's Network (UWONET) commissioned a consultant (REEV Consult International) to conduct a countrywide gender assessment. UWONET is an advocacy network with a membership of 16 national women's organizations/institutions and 9 individual women. The network was formed in 1993 to champion a united voice and create space for women to collectively address and take action on gender based discrimination in spheres of social, economic and political life of women in Uganda at all levels.

The aim of the assessment was to re-examine the gender equality situation in Uganda, and identify critical issues such as gender-based barriers to economic opportunities, to social services, and to leadership and decision-making positions. Specifically, the assessment was intended to:

1. Assess the socio-economic, cultural and political situation and current disparities between women and men in Uganda;
2. Identify and review social, economic, political, traditional and legal barriers to the progress of women in the context of Uganda, based on an overview of national policy frameworks, the Ugandan Constitution and national development goals;
3. Identify new emerging women's rights and gender inequality concerns that undermine development.
4. Identify successful initiatives that have advanced the status of women and girls and promoted non-discrimination across the country over the past 20 years
5. Provide recommendations for policy reform, government programme implementation, monitoring and evaluation including specific strategies to support the achievement of Uganda's gender equality commitments
6. Provide recommendation for other stakeholders including CSOs on concrete strategies for the empowerment of women and reduction of gender inequalities in Uganda
7. Identify potential areas for further research

The assignment was divided into two parts namely:

- a) **Part 1: Literature Review** – This focused on gathering and analyzing secondary data from existing research, national statistics, policy documents, legal documents, journal papers, academic documents, published books, newspaper publications and other relevant sources. Annex .....shows the documents reviewed.
- b) **Part 2: Field Survey** – This entailed the collection of primary data (quantitative and qualitative) from randomly selected households, key informants and Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) across 20 districts in Uganda. The methodology for selecting respondents followed scientific procedures including random sampling of 20 districts from all the 8 sub regions in the country. This was followed by random selection of sub counties/town councils from each district; 2 parishes from each sub county; 2 villages from each parish/ward and specific

households from each village/cell proportionate to the population size of each administrative unit. Annex.....shows the distribution of household respondents.

## **1.2 Overview of Gender Assessment thematic areas**

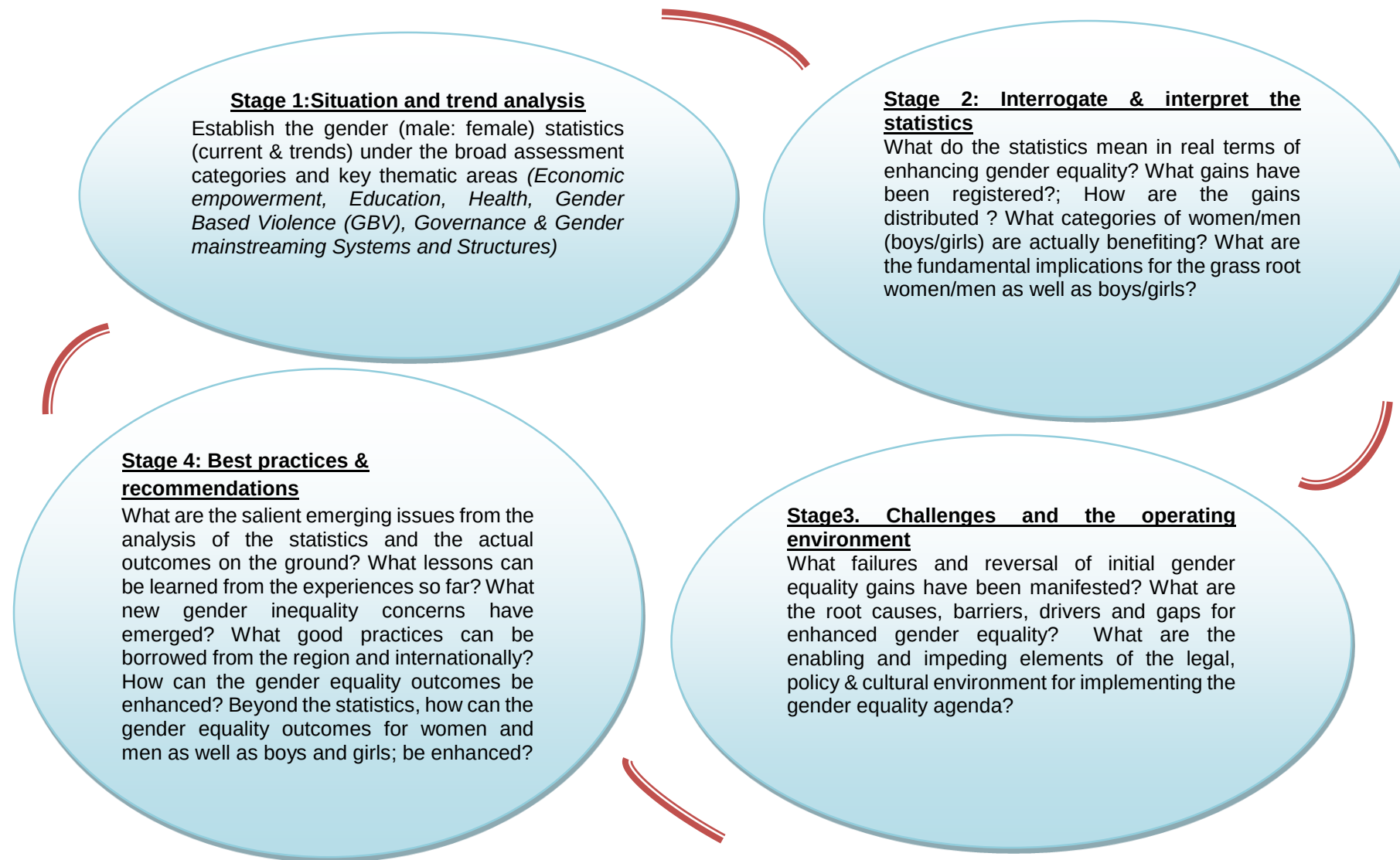
The literature review explores the critical issues on the progress towards achieving gender equality across the different socioeconomic and political sectors of Uganda as well as the challenges encountered. It highlights sector-specific gender analyses and thematic entry points for promoting gender equality and protecting women's rights. As guided under the ToR, the key sectors and themes of the review comprised the following:

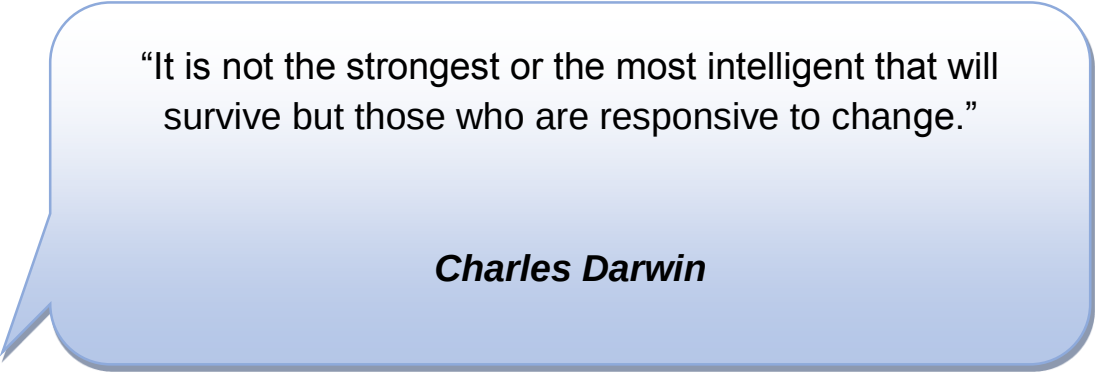
- Gender equality framework and mainstreaming in national development processes
- Gender equality and women's right to education
- Gender equality and women's right to good health
- Gender equality and women's rights in decision making, leadership political participation and governance
- Gender equality and women and girls' right to freedom from all forms of violence against women and girls /
- Gender-based violence and access to justice
- Gender equality and women's rights in peace building
- Gender equality and women's rights to poverty reduction, a livelihood, and full and equal participation in the economy
- Access to resources: employment, livelihoods, natural and economic resources
- Gender, agriculture and rural development
- Underlying root causes of the gender inequalities and abuse of women

## **1.3 The Analytical Framework**

The assessment was guided by a four stage analytical model (Fig1.1). This framework informed the format of this report for each theme. The assessment sought to establish gender equality results in terms of those achieved for women and girls compared to those attained for men and boys in the specific areas outlined before. It also focused on analysis of the changing character in gender relations between men and women, the drivers for such changes and the challenges encountered. Fig 1.1 shows the analytical framework.

**Fig 1.1 Gender Assessment Guiding Model**





“It is not the strongest or the most intelligent that will survive but those who are responsive to change.”

***Charles Darwin***

### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the gender mainstreaming machinery in Uganda for the gender equality agenda. It focuses on four critical impact aspects: i) machinery/systems and framework for gender mainstreaming; ii) the legal regime; the policy framework; and iv) the socio cultural context for gender mainstreaming.

### **2.2 Machinery and Framework for Gender Mainstreaming**

This section highlights the structures and mechanisms in place to deliver gender mainstreaming in the country. They are critical as entry points for building alliances to promote gender equality. They fall under 3 broad categories: (a) institutional structures; (b) advocacy and civil society engagement; and (c) development partners.

#### **a) Institutional Structures**

The lead government agency for gender mainstreaming is the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development (MoGLSD). It was established in February 1998 with a mandate to spearhead and coordinate gender responsive development and provide support to other sectors to mainstream gender in service delivery. At the Local Government level, the ministry has community based services/gender departments which are meant to ensure gender mainstreaming in district development plans.

In actual implementation of gender equality programmes across government, the MoGLSD is aided by the government ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) who have a presence across the country with specific mandate in different areas of operation. Lead MDAs include the Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC) and Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (MoFPED) who superintends over MDAs to ensure the integration of gender equality in the respective sector plans, budgets and public finance management as provided for by the Public Finance Management Act, 2015. The *Gender and Equity Certificate* is used to assess the gender responsiveness of sector plans and budgets

#### **b) Advocacy and civil society engagement**

This category comprises of non-state organizations working towards achieving gender equality. These organizations can be categorized in three categories as shown in table 2.1.

**Table 2.1: Some of active organizations engaged in advocacy for gender equality**

| Type of Organization | Name of the organization                                                                                                     | Assessment of role                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                   |
|----------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Development Agencies | UN Women; UNFPA; UNICEF, UNDP, USAID, DFID, GiZ, Irish AID, SIDA, DANIDA, ,                                                  | These derive their mandate from UN system resolutions such as CEDAW. These agencies have played a significant role in funding gender activities and they wield great clout in advocacy. For instance, UNFPA played a big role in elimination of FGM while UNICEF has been the lead advocate for elimination of GBVC. |
| International NGOs   | Action Aid Uganda (AAU); Oxfam –Uganda                                                                                       | These agencies have taken lead in advocacy against exclusive growth, land grabbing, mostly affecting the poor/ women/widows. However, they have suffered mistrust by government who has misconstrued their activism to imply ant- government.                                                                        |
| National NGOs        | UWONET, FOWODE, CEEWA, WOUGNET, UWEAL, UMWA, UWOPA,FIDA,ACFODE,CED OVIP,CSBAG Church of Uganda, and the Catholic Women Guild | These have played a big role because of the relatively open space guaranteed by government. However, of recent, there has been shrinkage of this space accruing from the mistrust of CSOs by government, which has actually gone further to freeze Bank accounts of some NGOs because of this mistrust.              |
| <b>CBOs</b>          | These are numerous and spread across the entire country                                                                      | Most CBOs are viable entities because of their nearness to the communities where they work. Their main challenge has been limited funding to sustain the good programmes for achieving gender equality.                                                                                                              |

### (c) The role of Development partners and agencies

Many international agencies and donor organizations have overtime contributed to the gender equality agenda in Uganda. Some of the very active organizations here include: UNFPA, UNICEF, UNWomen and UNDP DFID, GiZ, Irish AID, SIDA, DANIDA. The scope of their intervention normally includes targeted budget support to government for specific gender responsive programmes like maternal health; funding of the gender centric civil society; advocacy groups; as well as actual implementation of programmes in various parts of the country. However, the significant contribution of development partners faces a number of challenges including: shrinking budget support by government to gender programmes, leaving development agencies solely funding gender programmes; lack of adequate political will for promoting gender equality (for instance the stalling of DRB/Marriage Bill I Parliament); corruption and mismanagement of donor funds; and programme implementation paralysis on the part of public officials.

## 2.3 The Legal Regime

The gender equality agenda in Uganda is blessed with a positive legal framework (Article 32 (b), 33 and 34. Over time, various provisions have been established within the national legal framework to foster gender equality. Proceeding from the national constitution (Republic of Uganda 1995), to the various laws cutting across the various gender equality themes, tremendous strides have been made to promote gender mainstreaming. The gender parity principle is

embedded in all the major legal and policy frameworks of the country (GoU-SDGEA, 2018:17; OAG, 2013:14).

**(a) Gender equality and non-discrimination**

Discrimination on the basis of sex is outlawed under the Constitution of the Republic of Uganda, 1995 (as amended). In the same vein, the Constitution also provides for affirmative action in favor of marginalized groups, including women (Articles 31, 32 and 33). Article 21 (1) of the Constitution guarantees equality of all persons under the law in all spheres of political, social and cultural life, and the enjoyment of equal protection by the law in all aspects. Under the national objective and direct principles of state of policy, the Constitution provides for gender balance and fair representation of marginalized groups; accords equal citizenship rights, freedom from discrimination and affirmative action in favor of women; recognizes the role of women in society and articulates specific rights for women such as outlawing customs, traditions and practices that undermine the welfare, dignity and interests of women.

According to the Uganda Gender Policy, a number of laws have been reformed to be in line with the constitutional provision of gender equality. These include; the Local Governments Act (Cap 243), the Land Act (Cap 227), Land Acquisition Act (Cap 226) and National Agricultural Advisory Services Act (NAADS) (MoGLSD, 2007:6). The Government of Uganda revised its family law in 2000 and its criminal law and constitution in 2005 to protect and guarantee the rights of women and children and to promote gender equality and equity (UBOS, 2017d:53).

**b) Affirmative action**

Uganda has institutionalized affirmative action in its Constitution. Some of the key provisions under Article 32 include the following:

- 1) Notwithstanding anything in this Constitution, the State shall take affirmative action in favor of groups marginalized on the basis of gender, age, disability or any other reason created by history, tradition or custom, for the purpose of redressing imbalances which exist against them.
- 2) Laws, cultures, customs or traditions which are against the dignity, welfare or interest of women or any marginalized group to which clause (1) relates or which undermine their status, are prohibited by this Constitution.
- 3) There shall be a commission called the Equal Opportunities Commission whose composition and functions shall be determined by an Act of Parliament.
- 4) The Equal Opportunities Commission shall be established within one year after the coming into force of the Constitution (Amendment) Act, 2005.
- 5) Parliament shall make relevant laws for the purpose of giving full effect to this Article.

A gender equality review of the constitution highlights a number of positive provisions. Box 2.1 presents some of the critical ones.

### **Box 2.1: Some key constitutional provisions for equality between men and women**

*“... a person shall not be discriminated against on the ground of sex...” (Article 21 (2)).*  
*“...the State shall take affirmative action in favor of groups marginalized on the basis of gender... for the purpose of redressing imbalances which exist against them.” (Article 32(1))*

- ❖ Women shall be accorded full and equal dignity of the person with men.
- ❖ The State shall provide the facilities and opportunities necessary to enhance the welfare of women to enable them to realize their full potential and advancement.
- ❖ The State shall protect women and their rights, taking into account their unique status and natural maternal functions in society.
- ❖ Women shall have the right to equal treatment with men ... rights shall include equal opportunities in political, economic and social activities.
- ❖ Women shall have the right to affirmative action for the purpose of redressing the imbalances created by history, tradition and custom.
- ❖ Laws, cultures, customs or traditions which are against the dignity, welfare or interest of women or which undermine their status are prohibited by this Constitution.” (Article 33)

**Source: Amanda E, et al, 2006:16; The Constitution of the Republic of Uganda, 1995**

### **(c) Ownership and access to productive resources**

Ownership and access to land is one of the most critical themes under the assessment of gender equality. In Uganda, land is a critical productive resource. Land ownership and access heavily impacts economic empowerment and power relations. The Land Act (2010) provides a framework for land ownership, distribution, utilization management and control. Section 28 of the Land Act outlaws discrimination against women (GoU-SDGEA, 2018:20). Section 27 provides for the rights of women, children and persons with a disability while Section 39 restricts the transfer of land by family members without spousal consent (OAG, 2013:16).

### **(d) Access to justice**

On the theme of Justice, a review of the Constitution and also a JLOS profile by the Uganda Bureau of statistics (UBOS,2012c:6), highlights some of the key aspects of the Constitution that are supportive of eliminating gender related constraints in accessing justice as follows:

1. Gender balance and fair representation of marginalized groups (Obj. VI).
2. Recognition of the role of women in society (Obj. XV).
3. All laws and customs that are inconsistent with the Constitution are void to the extent of the inconsistency (Art.2.2).
4. Women can confer citizenship to their children (Chapter 3).
5. Equality and freedom from discrimination (Art.21).
6. Rights of the family (Art.31).
7. Affirmative action in favor of marginalized groups (Art.32).
8. Rights of women (Art.33).
9. Rights of Children (Art.34).
10. Composition of Parliament (Art.78).
11. Principles for the exercise of judicial power (Art.126).
12. Composition of Local Government Councils (Art.180).

On the same theme of Justice, a number of specific laws have been enacted to protect the rights of women and men, against violence and to promote access to justice as noted in various UNDP reports. The laws noted include the 2010 Law on Domestic Violence and the 2011 Domestic Violence Regulations; (UNDP, 2017: 39), the anti-Female Genital Mutilation Act of 2010; the anti-trafficking in Persons Act (2009); and the Equal Opportunities Commission Act (2007) (UNDP, 2015:14)

#### **(e) Participation in governance**

On the theme of governance, the 1995 constitution recognizes the equality of women and men. It promotes women's participation in decision-making by setting representation threshold quotas (UNDP, 2015:14). Furthermore, the Local Governments Act (1997) provides for one-third representation of women in local councils (UNDP, 2017:10; OAG, 2013:16) The Act also is specific that at least one of the representatives for special groups must be a woman. These provisions have helped to boost the participation of women in decision making and politics. The National Women's Council Act, 2015 and National Women's Council (Councils and Committees) Elections, Regulations, 2011 have also been instrumental in the enhancement of women's participation (GoU-SDGEA, 2018:19).

#### **(f) Engendering the national budget framework**

The progress on the legal provisions for gender equality is also reflected under the enactment of the Equal Opportunity Act (2010) and the Public Finance Management Act (PFMA) of 2015. The PFMA requires all MDAs and Local Governments to allocate resources for the delivery of gender equality and equity in Uganda (MoES, 2016:4). In the same vein, the EOA lays emphasis on ensuring gender mainstreaming in MDA budgets. The EOA assesses the annual Budget Framework Papers and Ministerial Policy Statements for Gender and Equity compliance in accordance with the Law (GoU-SDGEA, 2018:4). A *Gender and Equity Certificate* is used to assess the gender responsiveness of sector plans and budgets, as provided for by the PFMA, sections 9 [6] and 13 [15(g)] (UNDP, 2017:25). The PFMA is also used as a tool to enhance adherence to the principles of equity and equality. This has resulted into improvements towards gender and equity compliant plans and budgets for MDAs (GoU-SDGEA, 2018:17).

From the foregoing assessment, it is evident that the country's legal framework, is progressive with regard to the promotion of the gender equality agenda. However, the practice and indeed the outcomes on the ground, seems not to be as progressive to the letter and spirit of the law. According to (UNDP, 2015), there is a "disconnect" between Uganda's very positive legal framework and the lack of effective implementation or enforcement of gender-positive laws. This is manifested in the women's status which remains precarious; their economic capacity grossly limited, and their rights which are not guaranteed (UNDP, 2015:3). The in-depth and specific aspects of law that impact gender equality, including the initiatives implemented, the successes registered, the beneficiaries/victims, the barriers, challenges and the root causes; are discussed in more specific reference to the respective themes under the proceeding respective chapters.

## **2.4 The Policy Framework**

The policy environment for the gender equality agenda in Uganda, just like the legal framework, is also fairly progressive. Over the last two decades, many strides forward have been made in terms of establishing a positive gender policy environment in the country.

### **(a) The National gender policy**

In 1998, the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development (MGLSD) was established as the focal point for championing gender mainstreaming (UNDP, 2017: 9).

One of the most critical steps in the institutionalization of gender equality across government was the introduction of The National Gender Policy (NGP) in 2007. The NGP has since been instrumental in raising awareness on the campaign for gender equity. The main objective of the Policy is “to mainstream gender concerns in national development processes through guiding resource allocation in all sectors to address gender inequality”. It provides national guidance on tackling gender issues in the various sectors. The policy requires sector ministries to undertake and implement funded sector-specific strategies and activities to promote gender equity (UBOS, 2012d:9).

### **(b) Other Sector policies**

Besides the NGP, various other gender equality progressive policies have been put in place by government and these include inter alia: i) Universal Primary Education Policy; ii) The Health Policy 2001, (which focuses on maternal health); iii) Education Policy (1.5 points provision for admission of female students to tertiary institutions); iv) The National Elimination of GBV Policy 2016; v) National Land Policy (2013);vi) The National Housing Policy 2016); vii) Equal opportunities policy among others.

### **(c) Operationalization of gender policies and action plans**

As has already been indicated, the legal and policy framework have been fairly progressive but the problem remain constraints in implementation strategies to achieve gender equality. There have been a number of Strategies and action plans but they glaringly not been effective in delivering gender equality as shown in table 2.2.

**Table 2.2: Assessment of efficacy of Action, National plans and strategies for gender equality**

| Strategy/Activity                                                           | Level of efficacy                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| National Development Plan II 2015/16-2019/20                                | The NDP I was reviewed in 2013 and the main findings were that the plan was not aligned with the budget. The plan lacked the locus of implementation; hence most of the targets were not achieved.                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                      |
| The National Gender Strategy on land (2016);                                | Was put in place to operationalize the Land Act, (2010) Cap 227 and to address the injustices and deprivation faced by vulnerable groups of society like women and children whose access and control of land is seriously compromised (GoU-SDGEA, 2018:20-21).                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                          |
| The National Action Plan on Women (2012)                                    | The Affirmative Action policy is being implemented in the areas of politics and education as provided for in the Constitution (GoU-SDGEA, 2018 :17). Each district and LG councils are represented by women in Parliament and in LGs in accordance with the law.                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                        |
| Gender Mainstreaming Human Resource Call Circular and Manual (2010)         | Gender mainstreaming in MDAs is buttressed by the national budget call circular which was adopted by Cabinet in 2010 and guides the alignment of gender policies, sector plans and budgets to the NDP (OAG, 2013:16). However, there was glaring evidence that most MDAs were not compliant and yet, there were no sanctions in place to enforce compliance.                                                                                                                                                                                                                                            |
| The National Elimination of GBV Action Plan (2016)                          | The aim is the promotion of human rights in general, gender equality, male involvement and community participation in efforts to stem the vice (UN JPGBV, 2015:14). However, evidence showed that GBV is on the increase, particularly arising from negative cultural ideologies that support wife beating, alcoholism, and lack of consensus in sharing household returns from produce; and failure by government to institute severe sanctions against culprits. Women in Northeastern Uganda were found to be highly vulnerable to GBV because of culture and tradition that support wife battering. |
| National Gender and Equity Budgeting Capacity Development Plan 2017         | The overriding goal was to enhance gender and equity responsiveness in financial management by government through MDAs (GoU-SDGEA, 2018:18). However, there was evidence of gross under budgeting in critical areas such as maternal health, where an MP had to raise a private member's bill seeking supplementary budget for maternal health for FY 2016/17. Fortunately, UGX 120Bn was raised (MoFPED 2018).                                                                                                                                                                                         |
| National Action Plan on Women, Gender Equality and HIV/AIDS 2016/17-2020/21 | It is aligned to the Global Strategy on fast tracking to end AIDS by 2030. The overall is to promote gender responsiveness in the national HIV and AIDS response (GoU-SDGEA, 2018:5). However, the DHS (UBOS 2016) showed that HIV was increasing particularly among married couples. The problem here was found to be high extra marital relations which are culturally allowed for men but abhorred for women.                                                                                                                                                                                        |

#### (d) International conventions on Gender

Government policies in respect of gender equality are also reflected in a number of international and regional conventions and protocols to which the country has subscribed (UNDP, 2015:14; OAG, 2013:16). According to the Uganda Gender Policy, the global level instruments that have been ratified by Uganda government are shown in table 2.3.

**Table 2.3: International level instruments**

| Instrument                                                                                                                                                                  | Impact on Gender equality in Uganda                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                               |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Global instruments on gender equality</b>                                                                                                                                |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                   |
| The Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW, 1979) and its Optional Protocol (adopted October 1999 entered into force December 2000); | Discrimination is still apparent as manifested in low retention levels of girls at primary level, low enrollment ratios at secondary and tertiary levels and extremely low participation of girls in BTVET institutions (MoES 2018).                                                              |
| The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995);                                                                                                                     | Here, there has been some progress in the area of women participation in governance (Parliament and LG councils), though the benefits have not effectively cascaded to local levels.                                                                                                              |
| The Commonwealth Plan of Action on Gender and Development; and Advancing the Commonwealth Agenda into the New millennium (2005-2010);                                       | Here Equal Opportunities Policy and Commission were developed and established respectively but women are still marginalized in areas of ownership of productive resources particularly land.                                                                                                      |
| The International Conference on Population and Development (1994);                                                                                                          | The issue here is unwanted reproductive outcomes largely arising from limited sexual reproductive rights among women. Consequences are high MMR, IMR and low CP.                                                                                                                                  |
| The United Nations Declaration on Violence Against Women (DEVAW, 1993                                                                                                       | Here, the critical issue is that GBV is instead increasing particularly buttressed by culture in many parts of the country that supports wife beating.                                                                                                                                            |
| The Millennium Declaration (2000                                                                                                                                            | These were the MDGs which focused on human development. The outcomes were slight as manifested in MMR declining from 438/100,000 live births pa to 336/100,000 in 2016 which is still very high.                                                                                                  |
| The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC, 1990) (MGLSD, 2007:3; ACFODE, 2009:12; GoU-SDGEA, 2018:19; UBOS, 2012c: 8).                                                 | Here, there has been very slow progress as manifested in high capital offences against children (defilement, rape) and rampant general child abuse.                                                                                                                                               |
| <b>Regional instruments on gender equality</b>                                                                                                                              |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                   |
| The Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) Gender Policy (May 2002),                                                                                        | Here, the critical issue is the free movement of women and men within the EAC partner states in such for economic opportunities. The constraint however is the cultural norm that still perceives women as domestically oriented rather than free to operate in the global/regional public realm. |
| The Protocol on the Rights of Women in Africa (July 2003);                                                                                                                  | As indicated above, women/girls have continued to score poorly on retention in primary schools with very low participation at higher levels.                                                                                                                                                      |
| Inter Government Authority on Development (IGAD)                                                                                                                            | Here, the critical issue is sustainable environment management where women are the kingpins as they experience the highest interface with the environment. However, high energy costs dictate that women collect fuel wood and all other wherewithal as they fend for their families.             |

The New Partnerships for African Development (NEPAD) through its programmes and The AU Heads of State Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality (July 2004) (MGLSD, 2007:3).

The major tenets here is similar to CEDAW but as re-iterated earlier, discrimination against women/girls is still apparent largely premised on culture and tradition that promotes negative gender ideologies but most of which are buttressed by power relations skewed toward men.

### **(e) Critique of the policy framework, action plans and protocols on gender equality**

Generally, indications are that Uganda's policy framework is supportive of the gender equality agenda. However, the actual implementation of the otherwise progressive policies is severely constrained. The country is characterized by *policy implementation paralysis* across government, both at the central and local levels. Even internationally, Uganda is always applauded as a benchmark on various well thought out policies. Many of these policies however, remain good on paper while on the ground, actual implementation often falls short. Despite the positive policy documents therefore, and indeed some progress so far made towards gender equality, many facets of inequality between men and women as well as boys and girls persist. Presently, gender equality in Uganda across key themes including rights and access to economic opportunities/productive resources, education, health, participation in governance and access to justice still manifests sub optimal outcomes.

The in-depth and specific policy aspects that impact gender equality, including the initiatives implemented, the successes registered, the beneficiaries/victims, the barriers, challenges and the root causes; are discussed in more specific reference to the respective themes under the proceeding respective chapters.

## **2.5 The Socio-Cultural Context**

The socio-cultural context is a critical component of the operating environment for the gender equality agenda in Uganda. This comprises of the traditional gender relations, the cultural norms and practices, the peoples' attitudes and perceptions, and other related aspects of Ugandan society. The cultural practices are deeply entrenched in gender ideologies. For example, FGM mainly serves to reduce a woman's sexual sensitivity and arousal, hence weakening a woman's sexual life, thus making the woman sexually docile. Secondly, cultural practices such as FGM are greatly beneficial to some people such as 'surgeons' who may not give up the practice unless alternative source of income is provided to them". Such practices are a very critical impediment in the progress and sustainability of the gender equality interventions.

### **2.5.1 Patriarchal patterns of behavior**

According to the UBOS water & sanitation profile, despite some progress towards gender equality, imbalances still exist due to cultural attitudes and practices favoring men over women (UBOS,2012d:12). The social environment in the country is characterized by persistent patriarchal patterns of behavior and discrimination against women and girls as manifested in the areas such as preference for male to female employees, women's limited access to information, and discrimination against women and girls with regard to inheriting property (GoU-SDGEA, 2018: 19).

### **(b) Inheritance practices**

Unequal inheritance practices particularly in regard to land place limitations on women's access to ownership. The majority of land is acquired through customary and traditional inheritance,

which favors men. This discrimination limits women's economic and decision-making power at the household and community levels (OECD, 2015:22). Almost one-third of Ugandans believe that women and men should not enjoy equal rights to inherit land and non-land assets, and furthermore, half declare this is standard practice. Restrictions appear to be particularly stark for land assets and this is especially so in the rural areas (OECD 2015:50).

### **c) Culture and male child preference**

Access to and rights over land have more to do with culture than economics. Uganda has four systems of land tenure: *Customary*, *Mailo*, *Leasehold*, and *Freehold* (Constitution 1995). The customary system of land ownership predominates, which largely vests land control and management rights in the men. This type of land administration further prevents women from owning land due to socio-cultural biases. Men are viewed as the head of the family, which gives them sole authority over the land. Women could only access land through marriage or as daughters or sisters (UNDP, 2017:9; OECD, 2015:69). This is even more pronounced in northern Uganda where culture strongly limits land ownership to the men. Participants in a recent OECD survey submitted that "Women cannot own land culturally in Lango region. If a woman attempts to acquire land, the community may curse her" (OECD, 2015:69).

Women lack the right to own or control other resources such as motorcycles, houses and electronics, which would act as the required collateral to access credit. The fact that cultural institutions put the control of land in the hands of men accounts for this. In addition, women are disadvantaged in accessing information and skills due to their household responsibilities, which prevent them from networking or obtaining information typically shared in small village centers (OECD, 2015:71). Despite the Ugandan Constitution upholding women's rights to have access to property other than land, discrimination against women is still persistent in Uganda. According to the law, women are free to administer their property without their husbands' consent, but social norms prevent women from exercising these rights (OECD, 2015:68).

The male child preference sub-index plays a key role in perpetuating discrimination and inequality across generations. Discrimination against the girl child (e.g. unequal resources allocated for her health or education) spills over and affects her empowerment opportunities across her life course. Lower status accorded to the girls compared to the boys explains persistent gender inequality in other Uganda SIGI (Social Institutions and Gender Index) sub-indices. A family preference for sons over daughters reflects the lower status given to girls, which is reinforced in discriminatory family codes restricting women's decision-making power and status within the family (OECD 2015:40).

### **(d) Community Perceptions on Governance**

Governance, politics and community development are seen as male prerogatives. According to findings from a recent OECD survey, the main obstacles to women's voice have been attributed to negative attitudes towards women speaking in public. It is reported that men perceive women as productive at home rather than in the public domain. A proposal made by a man is apparently considered more seriously and is more vital for setting strategies and decisions for the community. In some communities, women noted that men did not offer them a platform to attend the public

debates and that many shield away from speaking in public. Men argued that women's participation is lower due to their household responsibilities (OECD, 2015:77).

Persistent negative attitudes towards female political leadership limit women's access to leadership positions. Even if the majority of the population agrees that women and men should have equal opportunities to run for political office, 60% of Ugandans believe that men make better political leaders. Such discriminatory opinions are mirrored in practice (OECD, 2015:77). Attitudes, beliefs and practices that serve to exclude women are still deeply entrenched in societies across the country. This negatively impacts women, their human capital development, and their ability to contribute equitably to Uganda's growth and prosperity (UNDP, 2015:3).

The discriminatory social norms, child marriages, teenage pregnancies and violence against girls and women, which in turn hamper social cohesion and lower girls' years of schooling and women's participation in productive activities, has a negative impact on girls' education or to make good decisions about their reproductive health (UNDP, 2016) . Access by girls to education at all levels is undermined by the socio-cultural beliefs and practices which favors boys' education to that of girls (OAG, 2013:14).

#### **(e) Marriage Customs and Beliefs**

Although the Ugandan Constitution guarantees equality, marriage customs discriminate against women: early marriage is more widespread for women than men (OECD, 2015:49). The most prominent reasons for girls leaving school were pregnancy and marriage. Two in every ten girls left school due to pregnancy and three in every ten girls left school for marriage (UBOS, 2017c: viii). Whereas girls are forced to abandon education as a result of pregnancy, boys who are responsible for impregnating girls are able to continue their education unhindered and this contributes to inequities later in life. Boys, however, were reported to leave school due to lack of interest. Four in every ten boys left school because they had no interest (UBOS, 2017c:30).

Extreme poverty means that girls may be considered as an economic burden and a source of wealth through bride price. In the recent survey by OECD, one parent stated that family poverty "forces parents to marry off their young girls because the girls are a source of wealth in the form of bride price" (OECD, 2015:46). One of the factors behind high prevalence rates of gender based violence incidences is the widespread cultural acceptance of such violence. The UBOS and (ICF, 2012) survey found that wife battering is widely accepted, with 58% of women and 44% of men believing that it is justified for a man to beat his wife for some specified reasons (UNDP, 2016:5). Social norms justifying violence against women help explain such high prevalence rates amongst women. According to the earlier referenced OECD survey, more than half of Ugandans (57%) agree that domestic violence against women is justified under certain circumstances. Disaggregating data by region shows that two-thirds of the population in the West Nile and Mid-Eastern sub-regions hold this view (OECD, 2015:14).

#### **(f) Traditional Household Roles**

Men are traditionally the primary breadwinners for households and spend more time in paid and unpaid GDP work than women. In contrast, women are the primary caregivers and, although

many engage in some GDP work, this is generally considered as secondary. A UNDP study indicated that women spend more than 3 hours per day on GDP work, compared with men spending around 8 hours per day. By contrast, women spend around 7.5 hours per day on unpaid care work, compared with less than 2 hours per day for men. The implication is that the women's workday is around 10 percent longer than men's, where women work around 11.5 hours per day, compared with men working 10.3 hours per day (UNDP, 2015:6).

Women typically assume a larger role in child-care and household responsibilities than men, and this is likely to restrict their ability to work on their own farms or manage their laborers. The constraints presented by childcare duties are a major factor in explaining the difference between male and female productivity in Uganda (World Bank, 2014:19). The common perception is that the girls' role is to support their marital homes. In addition, compared to the boys, the girls are more likely to drop out of school due to pregnancy so parents viewed their daughters' education as a waste of family resources. Findings of the OECD study show that girls have fewer chances of continuing studies beyond S.4, as they are pressured to get married (OECD, 2015:63).

Deep structural inequalities and disparities are some of the causes that keep girl children especially the girls out of school. These are hinged on a number of factors such as child labour with more girls helping at home, and poverty which usually favors early marriages. The focus on getting girls in schools without addressing underlying challenges in the learning process puts girls at a disadvantage. Evidence from the UBOS education sector gender profile shows that six percent of the females did not attend school because they had to help at home. This is rooted in the socially constructed roles of females in society. The findings further reveal that about seven percent of the girl children did not attend school due to long distance (UBOS, 2012f:21).

#### **(g) Barriers and binding constraints to gender equality**

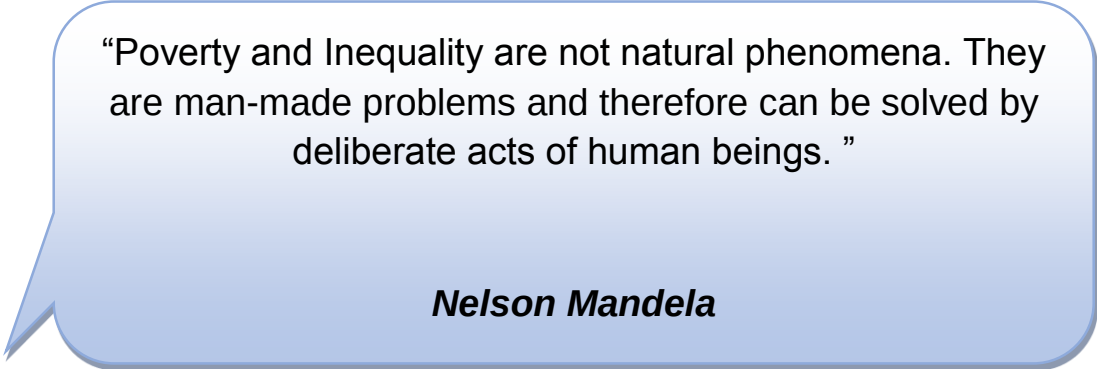
Despite the positive legal framework, Policy environment and various institutions for implementation of gender equality initiatives, there are binding constraints that need breaking. Box 2.2 shows the barriers.

##### **Box 2.2: Barriers and binding constraints to gender equality**

- ❖ Mind set of society's perception of "a woman" - Who is a woman in society. This is premised on ideological socialisation of gender discrimination against women that manifests "grooming a girl" to feet in a woman's position in this society.
- ❖ These discriminative gender ideologies have discounted the zeal for girls to extend their horizons in areas of education, economic opportunities, leadership and governance.
- ❖ Because of socialisation into "a good girl/ woman" being meek/ humble, many women have been perceived to be enemies of themselves e.g. some women activists who champion women's rights and tilting the balance to attain gender equality.
- ❖ Manifestations of ideological discriminatory socialisation are "wait for daddy syndrome" where children are ingrained to believe that it is a man (father) who owns money to pay for households needs.
- ❖ Implementation paralysis arising out of corruption, weak institution capacity, and lack of funding of planned interventions.

## 2.6 Recommendations

- Break social and cultural barriers focusing on mind set change of beliefs, values, attitudes and perceptions toward revamping a woman's position in society. This requires sustained initiatives through socialization at family level, involving cultural, religious, and community leaders.
- Strict enforcement of laws and effective implementation of strategic interventions to counter existing laxity across government.
- Make corruption a high risk venture through heavy sanctions of corrupt practices. Countries such as South Korea and Rwanda have made significant strides in service delivery due to effective implementation of *zero tolerance to corruption policy*. This can only be successful if the anti-corruption institutions are not only effectively empowered but seen to be effectively empowered to perform their duties. Furthermore, public servants should be under continuous monitoring through such instruments as declaration of wealth and made to account for properties acquired fraudulently; or whose sources cannot be justified.
- Outlaw cultural practices such as FGM, GBV and introduce heavy sanctions against culprits.
- In all these it is imperative that dialogue be sought with the community and their participation made paramount in the planning and implementation of the activities.



“Poverty and Inequality are not natural phenomena. They are man-made problems and therefore can be solved by deliberate acts of human beings. ”

***Nelson Mandela***

### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter analyses the key gender equality phenomenon under the theme of economic empowerment and development. The proceeding discourse on economic empowerment is guided by a standard four-stage analytical framework adopted for this report as expounded under section 1.3 of Chapter 1, namely: (i) situation and trend analysis; (ii) critical review of the statistics/evidence (iii) challenges, barriers and drivers; and (iv) recommendations. The specific sub themes discussed under economic empowerment include the following: a) Ownership, access and utilization of productive resources; b) Patterns in household income generation and control; c) Labour, employment and remuneration.

### 3.2 Ownership, Access and Utilization of Productive Resources

#### 3.2.1 Land

Uganda's economy is an agrarian economy. The agricultural sector employs about 72 % of the total labour force, with women accounting for approximately 80% (UWONET et al, 2016:15).

#### (a) Situation and Trends

##### i) Ownership of land

Evidence on various parameters of land ownership, control and access over various years show gender differences in favor of men compared to women. The findings of this survey (gender assessment) show that only 26.6% of the women compared to 73.4% of the men owned land. These findings are consistent with the results of the Uganda National Household Survey (UNHS) 2016/2017, which reported that only 31% of the women aged 15-49 years owned land compared to 48% of the men in same age range. Land ownership was further analyzed to determine the mode of acquisition and Figure 3.1 (b) shows that both the women (30.2% and the men (49.1%) who owned land had bought it. However, more men (45.3%) than women (22.4%) had inherited the land they owned; indicating that males were more likely to inherit land than their female counterparts.

ii) **Fig 3.1 (a) Land ownership by Gender**

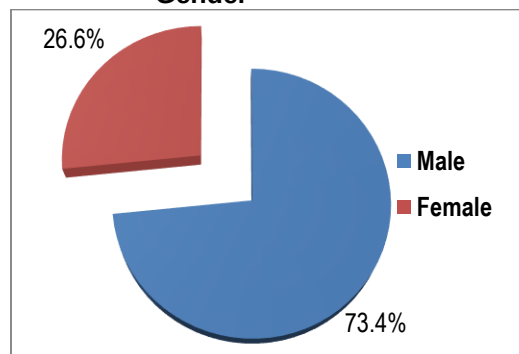
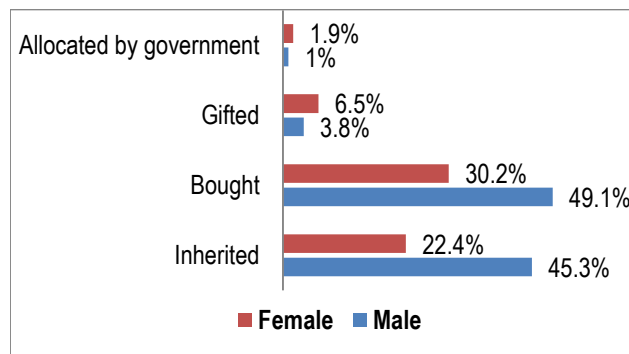


**Fig 3.1 (b) Land acquisitions by Gender**



Similar studies such as one by WOUGNET (2015:16) reported that just 20% of the women in Uganda own land while reports by Oxfam (Oxfam, 2016) and the National Women's Manifesto (UWONET et al, 2016:15) reported the proportion of women's ownership of land at just 7%. On a positive note, later studies show improvement in the women's ownership of land as shown in Table 3.1 showing trends in ownership of agricultural and non-agricultural land by gender.

**Table 3.1 Trends in ownership of agricultural and non-agricultural land (%)**

| Period                    | 2012/13       |            |              |          |       | 2016/17       |            |              |          |       |
|---------------------------|---------------|------------|--------------|----------|-------|---------------|------------|--------------|----------|-------|
|                           | Ownership (%) |            |              |          |       | Ownership (%) |            |              |          |       |
| Type of Assets            | Has asset     | Males only | Females only | Both M&F | Total | Has asset     | Males only | Females only | Both F&M | Total |
| Agric Land                | 72.2          | 62.3       | 14.3         | 23.3     | 100   | 63.1          | 33.5       | 26.7         | 39.8     | 100   |
| Land excluding Agric land | -             | -          | -            | -        | 100   | 38.9          | 37.1       | 26.6         | 36.3     | 100   |

**Source:** UBOS, 2017e:103 (UNHS 2016/17 Main Report)

The results in table 3.1 show that in 2013, among the households that owned agricultural land; in 62.3% of such cases the land was owned by the men only while in 14.3% of the cases the land was owned by the woman only. Joint ownership accounted for 23.3%. In 2017; results of a similar study show significant gains in women's ownership of agricultural land: ownership of family land by the woman alone had increased to 26.7% from 14.3% while ownership by the man alone had declined from 62.3% to 33.5%. Joint ownership (by the man and the woman) had leapt from 23.3% to 39.8%. These findings concur with other recent estimates (WOUGNET, 2015:16) which established the number of registered women ownership of rural/urban plots/houses or land at 906,551 females and 2,916,179 males with a gender parity indicator of 0.311. These findings imply that over the last decade and a half, there has been improvement in women's ownership of registered land though it is still tilted to men.

### iii) Control rights over land

Estimates in the Uganda National Women's Manifesto 2016-2021 indicate that while about 83% of the women are engaged in agriculture; only 25.5% control the land they cultivate (UWONET et al, 2016:15). In confirmation of these findings, other studies (UWONET, 2015:16) report that even among the women who own land, many of them do not have power to administer their land holdings as decision-making powers are vested in the men

### iv) Access rights to land

Women generally have access to agricultural land. However, this access is derived from their relationship with the men who are largely the real owners of the land. The woman is a wife, sister, daughter or mother (WOUGNET, 2015:16). Traditionally, the women are responsible for producing food for the family on land to which they gain access upon marriage but do not automatically have ownership and control (UWONET, 2015:6). Though the Land Act (2004) stipulates that spousal consent be provided for disposal of registered land on which the family depends for livelihood; ownership and management rights over the land are often customarily

guaranteed through a male spouse or relative. Consequently, the decisions relating to what to plant; what inputs to use; when and how much to harvest; what the gains from the harvest will be used for; and how to distribute the incomes generated are largely made by the men (UNDP, 2014:5). Discussion with CSOs also reveal the deep gaps in women's accessibility and ownership of land:

In many communities women are not allowed own land...there are also cases where women have been displaced by such projects as mining and oil explorations without adequate or proper compensation. Spouses and other relatives sell land used by the women without informing them or in other cases grabbing it all together, and justifying their actions by heavily entrenched cultural biases

### **(b) Initiatives, programmes, successes and achievements**

A number of initiatives have been implemented and some strides have been registered towards gender equality on land ownership and access. The Land Act, 1997 was amended in 2010 to provide some level of protection to women and children above 18 years to have a say before the sale of matrimonial property (DFID & Irish Aid, 2014:26; MoGLSD, 2016:29). The significant sections in the Act are: Section 28, which outlaws discrimination against women and children in respect of ownership, occupation and use of land, and Section 40, which requires mandatory spousal and children consent before disposal, mortgaging or transferring of land where the family derives sustenance (Gou-SDGEA, 2016:24). Women's land rights have been recognized in the Land Act (Cap 227) and Land acquisition Act (Cap 226), spousal consent is a requirement on all matters relating to land from which the family derives sustenance (MoGLSD, 2007:5). The National Gender Strategy on Land (2016) was put in place to operationalize the Land Act, (2010) Cap 227 and the Land Policy (2013). Other initiatives targeting the women include the Marriage Act and the Succession Act. The National Land Policy 2010, provides that the government will undertake further legislative measures to protect the rights of access to inheritance and ownership of land for women and children and that it will address gender inequality and ensure equal rights to land before marriage, in marriage, after marriage and at succession without discrimination (FIDH and FHRI, 2012:23). The Uganda SIGI (Social Institutions and Gender Index) country report notes that widows now have the right to inherit 15% of a deceased husband's property under the Marriage Act (OECD, 2015:20). Furthermore, the Succession Act, provides for appropriation of property among the deceased's family members including the widows. These instruments contain provisions for security of tenure and safeguards of the land rights of women and children as well as other vulnerable persons (GoU-SDGEA, 2018:21).

If the objective is achieved, these initiatives will have succeeded in addressing the historical and cultural injustices and inequalities in women's access to and control of land. Indeed, recent studies (DFID & Irish Aid, 2014:33) have noted that despite the persistent legal constraints on inheritance rights, there has been some progress on the proportion of women owning registered land; increasing from 20% in 2009 to 39% in 2011.

### **(c) Root causes, barriers, drivers and challenges for gender equality**

In Uganda, the match towards gender equality outcomes in land access and ownership is impeded by many obstacles rooted in the cultural attitudes and practices, among them control over productive resources (UBOS, 2012d:12). The situation is buttressed by internal household power relations where men believe that women's increased ownership of productive resources will tilt the balance of power relations at household level, hence reducing on men's authority. The most basic productive resource is land.

The Constitution of the Republic of Uganda (Article 237) recognizes four systems of land tenure: *Customary, Mailo, Leasehold, and Freehold*. The customary system of land ownership which predominates, largely vests rights of control and management of land in the men. Women mainly access land through marriage or as daughters or sisters (UNDP, 2017:9). Unequal inheritance practices place limitations on women's ownership of land given that land is mostly acquired through customary and traditional inheritance, which favors the men. The presumption is that the girls get married and acquire property of the prospective husband. The paradox here is that not all girls get married and even if they did; not all of them get married to well to do husbands. These structural injustices limit women's economic independence and decision-making power at the household and community levels (OECD, 2015:22). Furthermore divorce rules limit women's control over land. Upon divorce, it is difficult for a woman to claim rights over matrimonial land, given that under customary law, she has no rights to it, (Amanda E, et al 2006: 51). Further constraints to the women emanate from limited education which in turn limits their awareness of the law. Even where the law protects their rights to land; many women are unaware of the existence of such law or unable to assert their legal rights. For example, while a woman in Uganda, can claim rights to assets on the death of her husband under the Succession Act, most women are limited in pursuing such protection rights due to low education and lack of confidence (Amanda E, et al 2006:52).

From the foreseeing analysis, it is apparent that social status has a significant bearing on the woman's rights to access, utilize and/or own land. The Government of Uganda has passed a series of reforms to improve land governance, and also to provide better protection of women's rights to land. Implementation has, however, been slow. For example; the DRB/Marriage and Divorce Bill<sup>4</sup>/ Marriage Bill (2017) has "stalled" in parliament for more than 10 years. The major constraint here has been the fear by men to lose power. The barriers to land ownership by women were aptly reflected in a statement by the late former President of Tanzania, at the 1984, at the third World Conference on Women who asserted that:

*... "Women of Africa toil all their lives on land that they do not own, to produce what they do not control, and at the end of their marriage, through divorce or death, they can be sent away empty handed"*

**(Mwalimu Julius K Nyerere)**

---

<sup>4</sup> This was initially the DRB and has recently changed into the Marriage Bill (2017)

#### (d) Summary of critical observations, implications and gender concerns

Box 3.1 highlights the key points to note in terms of real impact and implications for the gender equality agenda.

##### **Box 3.1: Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on land ownership**

- Despite slight improvements over time, the aspect of gender parity indicators in ownership of land is still very dismal. Most critical barriers and challenges are cultural and therefore, the drivers for improved outcomes for gender equality must address cultural impediments to gender equality in land ownership.
- Most initiatives on gender equality in land ownership are in the area of legal and policy, but the practice is more dictated by culture/tradition hence, little impact to the disfavor of women.
- More educated, elite and informed urban women have benefited from the initiatives and are increasingly owning land (or at least in joint ownership with spouses), especially titled land, but the uneducated majority rural women who depend on agriculture mainly use customarily owned land whose control is by the husbands or male family members.
- The implications and real impact of lack of ownership of land rights especially by rural women in agriculture and urban women in business goes beyond the land itself to the control of the output and sale of proceeds by the spouses/male. Lack of land rights especially by women denies them collateral which is key in accessing credit from financial institutions

**Source:** Parliament of Uganda, June, 2018; Public Finance Management Act, 2015

#### 3.2.2 Ownership of other property

This section is about the ownership of property other than land. The specific types of property have been selected for this assessment based on the range normally used under the periodic UNHS surveys by UBOS to facilitate trend analysis for comparison purposes over a period of time. They among others include a mobile phone, a radio and livestock.

##### (a) Situation and trends

Just like in the case of land, gender differences are also reflected in the ownership and access to non-land land properties. However, indications are that there has been some progress in the women's ownership of the selected assets. The 2016/17 UNHS established the trends as shown in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2 Ownership of selected household assets by sex of household members (%)**

| Period         | 2012/13       |            |              |          |       | 2016/17       |            |              |          |       |
|----------------|---------------|------------|--------------|----------|-------|---------------|------------|--------------|----------|-------|
|                | Ownership (%) |            |              |          |       | Ownership (%) |            |              |          |       |
| Type of Assets | Has asset     | Males only | Females only | Both M&F | Total | Has asset     | Males only | Females only | Both F&M | Total |
| Mobile Phone   | 52.2          | 67.1       | 13.3         | 19.5     | 100   | 74.3          | 39.4       | 26.7         | 33.9     | 100   |
| Radio          | 52.0          | 69.6       | 12.7         | 17.6     | 100   | 45.2          | 50.8       | 21.8         | 27.4     | 100   |
| Livestock      | -             | -          | -            | -        | 100   | 44.9          | 29.8       | 28.1         | 42.1     | 100   |

**Source:** UNHS 2016/17 Main Report (UBOS, 2017e:103)

According to table 3.2; the proportion of the women who solely owned the mobile phone reported as household property increased from 13.3% in 2013 to 26.7% in 2017. Joint ownership of the mobile phone increased from 19.5% to 33.9% over the same period. Meanwhile sole ownership by the men declined from 67.1% in 2013 to 39.4%. Similarly, females who solely owned the family radio increased from 12.7% in 2013 to 21.8% in 2017. Joint ownership of the radio increased from 17.6% to 27.4% over the same period while sole ownership by the men declined from 69.6% to 50.8% over the same period. It is also important to note that although the trends in ownership of livestock cannot be established; 28.1% of the women owning livestock; is notable because ownership of livestock has traditionally been dominated by the men. These trends generally show some progress in regard to women owning the selected household assets. And the progress can be attributed largely to the various interventions targeting women empowerment over the last few years. However, detailed findings show that this progress is largely among the urban women who have comparatively been more empowered than their rural counterparts. The constraining factors manifesting in low education limited opportunities for employment to earn monetary income are more pronounced in the rural than urban areas. This situation calls for interventions targeting the rural women in order to balance the benefits of the gender equality programmes.

#### **(b) Initiatives, programmes, successes and achievements**

Unlike land which is a key asset and productive resource, not many initiatives and programmes have been implemented about gender equality on ownership and access to other property (non land). However, the **Succession Act (2017)** where widows can now inherit up to 15% of the deceased husband's property is an initiative in the right direction.

#### **(c) Root causes, barriers, drivers and challenges for gender equality in ownership of property other than land**

Despite the Ugandan Constitution upholding rights to own property (Article 26), discrimination against women is still persistent. According to the law, women are free to administer their property without their husbands' consent. However, social norms have often prevented the women from exercising these rights (OECD, 2015:68). This is consistent with the results of the UDHS 2011 which revealed that tradition more than socio-economic status plays a bigger part in ownership of property by the women (UBOS, 2012e:225). Customary norms, issues of inheritance rights weaken women's ability to own and manage assets (OECD, 2015:20).

Box 3.2 below highlights the critical observations, implications and gender concerns in regard to the implications for the gender equality agenda.

##### **Box 3.2: Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on property ownership**

- Despite slight improvements over time, the gender parity indicators in ownership of property are still way below acceptable levels. Just like in the case of land, disparities in economic opportunities (largely arising from the far long limited education and training), limit women's income earning capacity hence, less ability to acquire property.
- There are very limited initiatives specifically for promoting gender equality in property ownership apart from a few general legal and policy provisions about property rights.
- More educated, elite and informed urban women have taken advantage of the economic the initiatives and are increasingly acquiring property, but the uneducated, poor rural and urban women, still do not own property, except a few like small domestic animals.
- The implications include continued poverty and economic deprivation of women as compared to men.

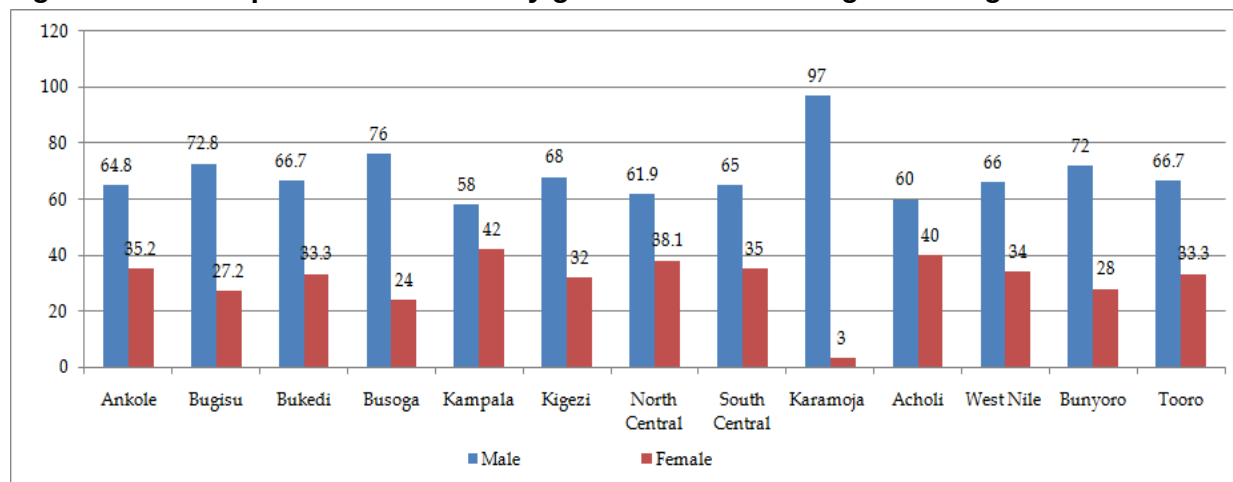
**Source: Parliament of Uganda, June, 2018; Public Finance Management Act, 2015**

### 3.2.3 Access to Financial Services

#### (a) Situation and trends

Financial services are critical elements to productivity and key elements in the gender equality agenda. Findings of studies on access to financial services show that women are more disadvantaged than the men in accessing financial services. The situation is manifested in the variances in ownership of a bank account between then and the women. Findings of this study presented in figure 3.2, clearly illustrate the variations

**Fig 3.2: Ownership of bank account by gender across the regions of Uganda**



**Source: Gender assessment survey, 2018**

According to Fig3.2; access to financial services for the men is higher than for the women across the thirteen regions surveyed. Most women as compared to men do not transact with formal financial institutions. They are more likely to deal with informal systems such as VSLA, which unfortunately have limited financial asset base, hence limited access to start-up capital for business enterprises. This comparison is based on analysis of ownership of a *Bank Account* between the men and the women. The highest variance was reported in Karamoja where ownership of a bank account comprised 97% men and only 3% women. The variance was similarly high in the Busoga region with the men accounting for 76% against 24% women. The situation was fairly balanced in Kampala where results show that those who owned a bank account comprised 58% men and 42% women. Acholi region too reported fairly balanced results showing 60% men and 40% women owning a bank account. These results show that fewer women than men transacted any business with financial institutions; hence the wide variance between men and women in accessing financial services. In fact, studies on financial inclusion (EPRC 2013) show that only 18% of the women in Uganda as opposed to 25% of the men; have a Bank Account. The main reason for the low banked phenomenon among the women, according to this study, was that “most women (61%) reported that they did not have money to transact with the formal financial institutions. In most cases, the formal financial institutions are commercial banks. Furthermore, the study contends that as a result of the inability to transact with the commercial banks, a significant proportion (84.3%) of the women has resorted to informal sources, mainly VSLAs and SACCOs. Findings of UNHS 2016/17 presented in Table 3.4 show updates of access to credit by gender and the various sources.

**Table 3.4 Persons aged 18 years and above by source of loan /credit (%)**

| <b>Sex of household member</b> | <b>Formal</b>          |                            |                        |               | <b>Informal</b> |               |               |              |
|--------------------------------|------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------|---------------|-----------------|---------------|---------------|--------------|
|                                | <i>Commercial Bank</i> | <i>Credit Institutions</i> | <i>MDIs &amp; MFIs</i> | <i>SACCOs</i> | <i>VSLAs</i>    | <i>ROSCAs</i> | <i>Others</i> | <i>Total</i> |
| Male                           | 4.7                    | 2.9                        | 3.4                    | 5.7           | 37.5            | 6.9           | 38.9          | 100.0        |
| Female                         | 12.1                   | 2.1                        | 2.5                    | 8.8           | 25.4            | 4.9           | 44.2          | 100.0        |
| <b>Uganda</b>                  | 8.6                    | 2.5                        | 2.9                    | 7.3           | 31.1            | 5.8           | 41.8          | 100.0        |

**Source:** *UNHS 2016/17 (UBOS, 2017e:114)*

According to table 3.4; informal sources of loans accounted for 79% of the sources. More than 31% of the people who borrowed sourced the loans from VSLAs. The “others” category comprises many kinds of borrowing including from friends/relatives and money lenders. It is striking that only 11% (8.6% commercial banks and 2.5% credit institutions) of the borrowers sought credit from formal sources. The underlying explanation for the poor performance by the formal financial institutions and the emergence of the informal groups as alternative sources of credit; is born out of the frustration disadvantaged potential borrowers, especially women suffer at the hands of the stringent conditions the formal institutions attach to accessing credit. The most prominent of the conditions is collateral in form of land and/or other physical assets to secure the loans. The challenge is that most women own neither land nor tangible physical assets. Faced with the hurdle posed by collateral, the women have actively turned to participating in the informal saving mechanisms especially group lending and micro finance to support their businesses (Amanda E, et al, 2006:51). According to a survey by the International Finance Corporation and the DFCU Group, Ugandan women own 39% of all the businesses with registered premises, despite only 9% of them accessing commercial credit (IFC, 2008:1).

#### **(b) Initiatives, programmes, successes and achievements**

##### *i) State actors*

In 2015, government developed the Uganda Women Entrepreneurship Programme (UWEP).<sup>5</sup> The Programme is implemented under three components;

- Capacity building and skills development
- Women enterprise fund for projects, and
- Institutional support. (MoGLSD, 2016:30-31).

Since 2012, the government has also implemented a Women Entrepreneurship Development and Economic Empowerment (WEDEE) Project<sup>6</sup>. By end of 2017, 3499 projects had been

<sup>5</sup> UWEP focuses on improving access to financial services by women and equipping them with entrepreneurship skills, value addition and marketing of their products and services.

<sup>6</sup> This four-year Project (2012-2015) has equipped more than 3,000 women entrepreneurs with business management skills and linked them to markets (MoGLSD, 2016:30). The Uganda Women Entrepreneurships Programme targets women in business by giving them startup capital. The Youth Livelihoods Programme targets 30% female youth with startup capital.

financed to the tune of UGX 18.5 Billion, benefitting 44,570 women. Some of the major achievements of the programme include acquiring assets such as land, household items and livestock. Participation in the programme has led to women's empowerment through having a voice at household and community levels, self-employment, financial inclusion and reduction of the dependency syndrome (GoU-SDGEA, 2018, 21-22).

The government introduced the *Certificate of gender equity* for all programmes and projects to be implemented by all MDAs and this has slightly enhanced gender considerations in project design and budgeting, but largely at central government level of operations.

## ii) Non-State actors

DFCU under its "Women in Business Program" extends lending to women entrepreneurs, supported by a \$6 million credit line from IFC, of which at least \$2 million is dedicated to the women's program. The program includes advisory services by experts in the women's market, including training for women entrepreneurs. The new program addresses these issues, such as through emphasizing equipment lease financing instead of traditional loans. IFC-provided training covers banking requirements and processes, as well as financial literacy, business networking, and mentoring for businesswomen (IFC, 2008:1).

Uganda Women Trust was established as a Non-state financial institution to assist women entrepreneurs source financing for their enterprises. The institution has progressed and is now a fully-fledged commercial Bank. It has over 12,000 customers largely women.

## (c) Root causes, barriers, drivers and challenges for Gender Equality

The "financial inclusion insights" survey (2017) established that 61% of women as compared to 52% of men did not have money to make any transaction with a bank. Similarly, 14% of women as compared to 12% of men did not have money to transact on mobile money platform.

**Table 3.5 Reasons for no Accounts in Financial institutions by Gender**

|                                                           |                                                                                       | Gender (%) |       |
|-----------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------|-------|
|                                                           |                                                                                       | Men        | Women |
| <b>Reasons for not registering a bank account</b>         | I do not have money/I do not have money to make any transactions with such an account | 52         | 61    |
|                                                           | I do not know how to open one                                                         | 5          | 5     |
|                                                           | There no banks close to where I live                                                  | 4          | 4     |
|                                                           | I do not need one, I do not make any transactions                                     | 3          | 3     |
|                                                           | I do not know what it is                                                              | 3          | 3     |
| <b>Reasons for not registering a mobile money account</b> | I do not have money/I do not have money to make any transactions with such an account | 12         | 14    |
|                                                           | I do not need one, I do not make any transactions                                     | 5          | 6     |
|                                                           | I do not know what it is/I do not understand what I can use it for                    | 2          | 3     |
|                                                           | There is no point-of-service/agent close                                              | 1          | 1     |

**Source:** *Inter Media, 2017:38 (Financial Inclusion Insights Survey)*

The Inclusive Green Growth Programme targets young people with startup capital for enterprises that focus on the protection of the environment; among others

The other major impediments include the following:-

- The very common requirement by banks for land as collateral operates as an absolute impediment to many enterprises headed by women, because land is not readily accessible to women, due to land allocation practices that favor men (Amanda E, et al 2006: 46; MoGLSD, 2014: 11).
- Discriminatory practices that hinder women from accessing land and other property are a major obstacle to women's access to credit.
- Compounding the problem, women have little low education and therefore, less access to financial management training to help them successfully plan and access credit IFC, 2008:1).
- Despite the availability of loan providers in urban areas across Uganda, the cost of borrowing is still prohibitively high. There is an obvious mismatch between women micro entrepreneur's needs and MFIs willingness and ability to offer affordable loans with little or no collateral (MoGLSD, 2014: 51).
- Apparently, sometimes women are told that they cannot open a personal bank account without their husband's consent (co-signature), despite the fact that the law does not require such consent (Amanda E, et al, 2006: 45/46).

#### **(d) Summary of Critical Observations, Implications and Gender Concerns**

The key points of note from the evidence and the implications for the gender equality agenda are highlighted under Box 3.3.

##### **Box 3.3: Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on financial services**

- Indicators for access to financial services are very poor for both men and women, but much worse for the latter. The main challenges include lack of collateral (especially land and property for women), lack of information and knowledge among women on financial services, lack of freedom in decision making about financial matters.
- Some initiatives have been implemented including increase in bank branches upcountry, the advent of mobile money services and the promotion of micro finance institutions/ SACCOS where women are the main clients but interest rates remain prohibitively high.
- More educated, elite and informed urban women and men have taken advantage of the improved formal banking services while the rural ones have mostly benefited from the SACCOS and VSLAS. The implications are that both women and men are still constrained in using financial services, but women are more financially excluded than men.

#### **3.2.4 Production Inputs, Technology, Extension Services and Markets**

Access to inputs, technology and extension services for production as well as markets for selling the produce are critical elements in gender equality.

##### **(a) Situation and Trends**

The available evidence shows that women have less access to inputs including fertilizers and have lower rates of adoption of technologies (NPA, 2015:74). They generally have smaller plots and have less access to inputs and technology (UNDP, 2017:8). There is lower extension service contact to women farmers as compared to men - 14% women and 30% men (NPA/UN-JPGE, 2012:19). Women who participate in marketing of produce are a paltry 15% as compared to 70% men (UNFPA, 2017). The problem is exacerbated by exploitation by middlemen who buy produce

at extremely low prices while selling at much higher prices<sup>7</sup> with little value addition. Furthermore, women have been out maneuvered by aggressive men in urban markets such as those in Kampala where underhand methods of blockage are pervasive. The contradiction is that while women toil in cultivation, planting, weeding and harvesting, men take control of the produce and control income. This is the paradox of the production–gender nexus. The aim is to control economic power relations in favour of men. In fact, UNFPA has established that most GBV occurrences are rooted in the tilt of this balance, hence the tradition that has socialized most women into taking refuge into “silence is golden”.

Thirty three (33%) of male headed agricultural households use improved or hybrid seeds compared to 24% among female headed agricultural households and 44% of male-headed agricultural households used veterinary drugs compared to 36% among female headed agricultural households(UBOS, 2012b:16).

On markets, it has been established that women headed households (WHHs) have less access to trader networks and the market information. WHHs also engage in less value addition like transporting to markets and milling. Women find themselves limited to marketing channels with very low transaction costs, but also lower prices. The main challenge for women is accessing marketing channels that allow value addition (Combaz 2013:5).

#### **(b) Initiatives, programmes, successes and achievements**

A few programmes like NAADS, UWEF and YLP have contributed to improved access inputs and seed capital for business enterprises (MoGLSD 2017). However, these initiatives are riddled with lack of effective planning, monitoring and supervision of projects. The results have been dismal as reflected in very low recovery of the revolving fund (less than 10%) for others to benefit (MoGLSD 2017). Earlier programmes include: Rural Farmers Scheme (1980s), Poverty Alleviation Programme (PAP), of early 1990s, *Entandikwa* Scheme late 1990s), *Bona Bagagawale* (2010s), Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP, 1997) and the current blue-print National Development Plan (NDPI, 2010/11-2014/15) and NDPI 2015/16-2010/21.

The golden thread that runs through all these initiatives has been –well intentioned programmes but poor gender considerations in planning and implementation. The *implementation paralysis* already elucidated in the foregoing, has been manifested in corruption, politicization of the initiatives, failure to align the budget and the action plans, rendering the plans grossly ineffective. The Oxford Policy Management- an international consulting firm that comprehensively reviewed the PEAP established that the major problems of dismal performance of the PEAP were largely twofold: 1) lack of focus of the good planned activities; 2) lack of locus for monitoring of programmes. Similarly, REEV Consult International conducted the MTR for NDP I -2010/11-2014/15 and similar results were established in addition to failure of many programmes in ‘gender equality’ compliance, as originally required by all programmes and projects (NPA 2013).

---

<sup>7</sup> For example, a kilogram of maize is purchased at UGX 100 but posho (processed maize) is sold at UGX 1200.

### **(c) Root causes, barriers, drivers and challenges for Gender Equality**

The barriers to gender equality in access to inputs, services and markets are many and varied. The key ones include the following:-

- Limited literacy, education and training among women results in limited access to financial services because of lack of collateral (especially land and other property).
- Women do not typically have access to intermediate means of transport (IMTs) such as bicycles. A bicycle is perceived as a mode of transport for men. In many cultures in Uganda, women are banned from riding bicycles<sup>8</sup>, yet it is the affordable mode of transport mostly in rural areas. A bicycle is also an expensive asset and most women cannot afford to buy it.

### **(d) Summary of Critical Observations, Implications and Gender Concerns**

The key points of note from the evidence and the implications for the gender equality agenda.

#### **Box 3.4: Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on production inputs, technology, extension services and markets**

- Women are comparatively, worse off in access to inputs, technology and markets.
- More poverty incidence for women and relative immobility of women due to other household burdens prevent them from accessing markets.
- Government programmes like NAADS have been generally designed and do not focus on gender considerations. The real impact of lack of affirmative action for women for access of these aspects has translated into lower productivity and continued economic deprivation for women as compared to men.

**Source:** *Parliament of Uganda, June, 2018; Public Finance Management Act, 2015*

## **3.3 Sources of Household Income**

The essence of this section was to examine patterns in the comparative contribution of the women /female members to household income overtime.

### **(a) Trends in sources of income**

In order to establish the trends; this study examined secondary data for the years 2013/14 and 2016/17 respectively; sourced from the national household surveys conducted by UBOS. Table 3.6 presents the findings.

---

<sup>8</sup> In western Uganda, a woman found riding a bicycle is perceived to be uncultured/unruly and therefore, a social misfit.

**Table 3.6 Main source of household income by selected background characteristics and year (%)**

| Sex    | 2013/14                 |                 |                  |             |       |       | 2016/17                 |                 |                  |             |        |       |
|--------|-------------------------|-----------------|------------------|-------------|-------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------|------------------|-------------|--------|-------|
|        | Main Source of Earnings |                 |                  |             |       |       | Main Source of Earnings |                 |                  |             |        |       |
|        | Substance Farming       | Wage employment | Non-agricultural | Remittances | Other | Total | Substances farming      | Wage Employment | Non-Agricultural | Remittances | Others | Total |
| Male   | 44.4                    | 26.3            | 24.0             | 2.2         | 3.2   | 100   | 44.1                    | 28.1            | 20.6             | 2.2         | 4.9    | 100   |
| Female | 38.5                    | 19.1            | 23.8             | 16.0        | 2.5   | 100   | 39.6                    | 19.3            | 19.3             | 17.7        | 4.2    | 100   |
| Rural  | 51.9                    | 19.7            | 19.4             | 6.1         | 2.9   | 100   | 53.9                    | 19.6            | 15.9             | 6.3         | 4.3    | 100   |
| Urban  | 16.4                    | 36.3            | 36.6             | 7.5         | 3.1   | 100   | 14.1                    | 40.4            | 31.3             | 8.5         | 5.7    | 100.  |
| Uganda | 42.6                    | 24.1            | 23.9             | 6.5         | 3.0   | 100   | 42.7                    | 25.4            | 20.2             | 6.9         | 4.7    | 100   |

Source: UNHS2016/2017 Main Report (UBOS, 2017e:104)

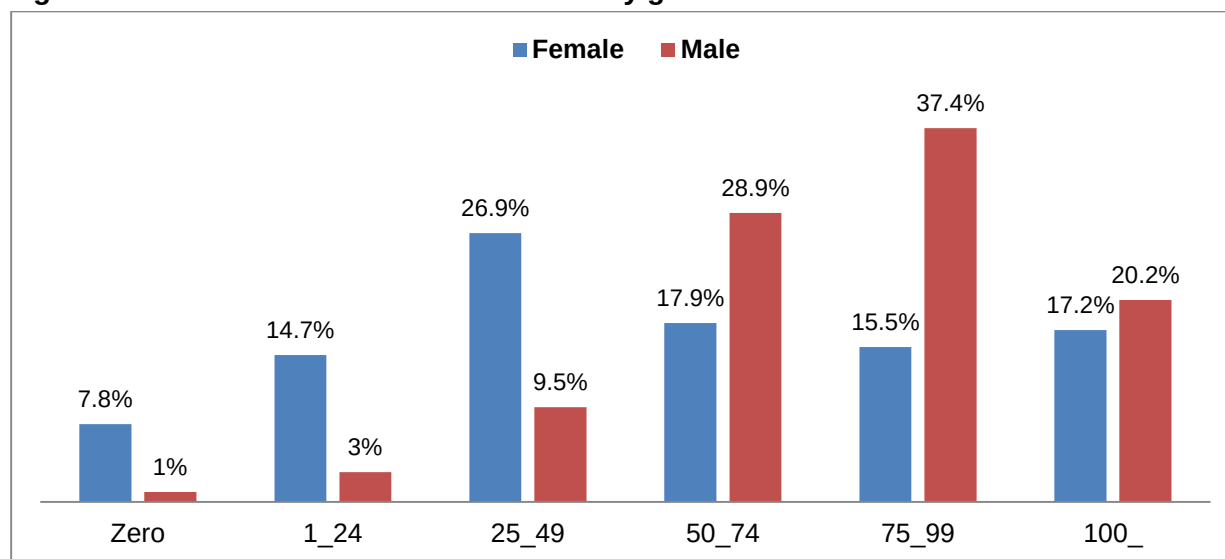
The results in Table 3.5 show that subsistence farming is the main source of household income in Uganda with 42.6% of the household reporting this source in 2014 and 42.7% in 2017. In both years; wage employment followed at 24.1% and 20.2% respectively. The aspects of these results that can be “genderized” are in regard to remittances where it is conspicuously shown that more women than the men earned from this source. In 2014 remittances were the main source of income for 16% of the female-headed households and this had slightly grown to 17.7% by 2017. The implication here is that female-headed households are more vulnerable given that remittances are simply transfer payments which in most cases are direct support to a person in need. The disadvantage with this income is that it is simply transfer payments which are adhoc and therefore cannot be relied on, hence sustained vulnerability of the receiver.

Regarding contribution to household income, the gender assessment survey established that fewer women contribute significantly. The results are shown in figure 3.3.

### b) Contribution to household income by gender

The agenda for gender equality; and more specifically, women empowerment is about recognizing the contribution the women make in all spheres of life compared to the men. Given that the family unit is the most basic social organization, it is imperative to examine the woman’s contribution starting with the contribution she makes towards the welfare of her family. Fig3.3 presents the findings of this study on this aspect.

**Fig 3.3: Contribution to household income by gender?**



**Source: Gender Assessment Survey, 2018**

The results in Fig 3.3 show that women make substantial contribution to household income; with 17.2% contributing all the household income and 15.5% contributing more than 75 percent of total household income. Overall, 40.6% of the women contributed at least half the household income. However, on the other hand, 7.8% of all women did not contribute anything towards total household income while 14.7% contributed less than 25 percent (one quarter) of total household income.

### **(c) Initiatives, programmes, successes and achievements**

Government has implemented various programmes for improving household incomes<sup>9</sup> ; however, the programmes target the entire household in general not specifying gender differences. The initiatives implemented by the government to address poverty including those targeting women such as UWEF; have not made much foot print largely because they have been abused through corruption by government officials. In other cases, the programmes have been heavily politicized, implemented with partisan biases. Consequently, they have not been taken seriously as they are considered as handouts to thank them for their political support.

### **(c) Root causes, barriers, drivers and challenges for Gender Equality in household income**

The main challenges include the following:

- i) Women do not have control over the incomes from the proceeds of their labour as they are culturally and socially marginalized from owning, inheriting and controlling the land and property in the family and in marriage (UWONET, 2015:40).
- ii) The major explanation is the power balance that tends to tilt towards the income earner and hence the temptation to keep women out of earning bracket.

### **(d) Summary of Critical Observations, Implications and Gender Concerns**

The key gender concerns from the evidence and the implications for the gender equality agenda are highlighted under Box 3.5.

#### **Box 3.5: Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on household income and control**

- While women remain dominant especially in agricultural production, they remain deprived as the major decisions and control of the proceeds are controlled by men.
- The most critical barriers for improved incomes include women`s lack of ownership to productive resources particularly land and inputs.
- While there are major programmes (e.g. under the NDP) for improving HH incomes, the programmes have not been gender sensitive in planning and implementing, hence limited outcomes on gender equality in income distribution at household level

**Source:** Parliament of Uganda, June, 2018; Public Finance Management Act, 2015

---

<sup>9</sup> These include: NAADS, UWEF among others

### 3.4 Employment, Wage Disparities and Unpaid Work

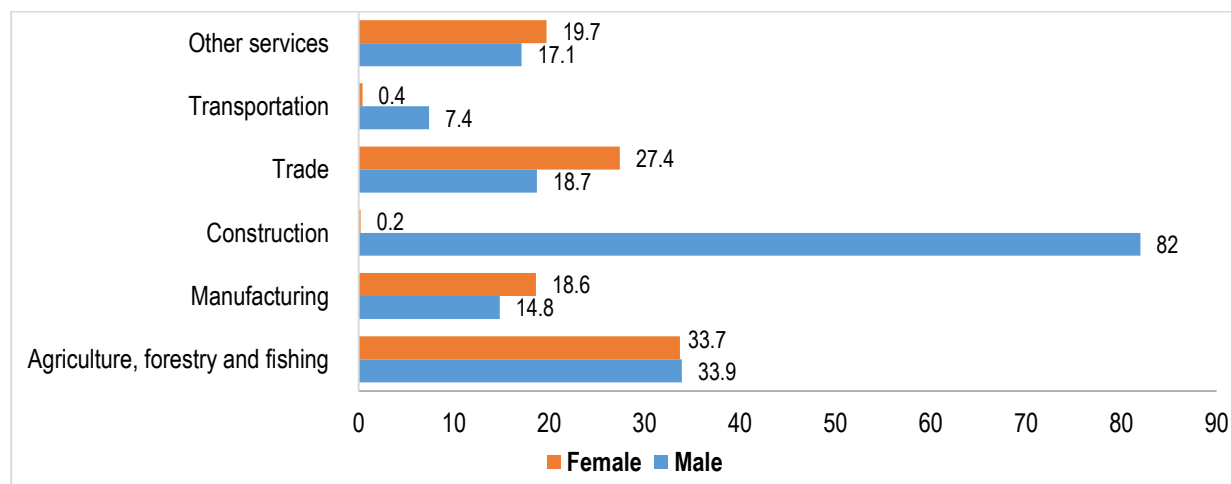
Gender imbalances are manifest in various aspects of labour relations, employment and remuneration.

#### (a) Situation and Trends

Most cultural beliefs ascribe to a domestically oriented woman as a model woman. The proverbial adage is that a noble woman works for her children, looks after her husband and tends for her family. A woman who works against this deeply entrenched value system is construed as “uncultured”, defiant and therefore deserving being brought to order. The paradox is that this cultural artifact was found to be supported by the women themselves, most of who are the vanguards for entrenching such negative gender ideologies<sup>10</sup>. These are women who have become prisoners of culture and tradition; and cannot see beyond the same gender discriminatory lens. For instance, why should it be a woman to give up her opportunity for pursuing a higher degree or international job and not the man? Many of these cases were rampant and the response was sadly that it was up to the woman to decide to “lose” her husband so that the latter marries another wife, since the current wife is not interested in looking after the husband!! However, the irony was that if the man was the one with such an opportunity, it was alright, for the woman to remain alone looking after the children!

The UNHS 2011/13 conducted by UBOS explored the distribution of the labour force in the various sectors of the economy by gender and Fig 3.2 shows the findings.

**Fig 3.2 Industry by Sex of Employed Population (%)**



**Source:** UBOS, 2014:48(UNHS 2012/13)

The results in Fig3.4 show that there were hardly any women employed by the construction industry and transport. In the former; the women accounted for a paltry 0.2% while in the later it was equally miserable at only 0.4%. On the other hand, the women had a fair representation in

<sup>10</sup> This was manifested among females including the educated women who were advocating for young career women to cut short their career aspirations of pursuing higher education for the sake of looking after their husbands!

trade where they accounted for 27.8% compared to the men's 18.7%. The inference is that there is a tendency for the women to find solace in the "lighter" sectors much to their disadvantage because in most cases the lighter sectors are less lucrative. Not surprisingly, women are present in agriculture, manufacturing and trade of which less paid work is. For instance, women in manufacturing were largely employed as support and clerical staff. More important is that the report further explains that even in these places, the women are employed mostly in very low placements as support staff, tea girls and as cleaners. Statistics on *Labour force participation rates* accessed from NPA show that 50% of the employed women work in the three of the lowest paying sectors (NPA, 2015:74). This discord in employment between men and women is born out of the structural barriers (earlier discussed) that denied or deprived the girls of space to pursue opportunities in certain areas that were discriminatorily preserved for the boys.

#### **b) Gender based roles and disparities in paid and unpaid work**

The findings of this study indicate that women spend only 3 hours/day on paid work while more than 7.5 hours /day is spent on unpaid care work. On the other hand, their male counterparts spend 8 hours /day on paid work and only 2 hours /day on unpaid work. A study by the UNDP, Uganda Country Gender Assessment, in agreement with these results notes that a women's workday (about 11.5 hours) is about 10 percent longer than a man's day which is 10.3 hours (UNDP, 2015: 6). In explaining away the discrepancy, the report argues that the men are traditionally the primary breadwinners, justifying their spending more time in paid work than the women do. In contrast, the report notes that the women are primarily caregivers and their engagement in paid work is considered to be only secondary.

This attitude that the men "deserve" to be employed more than the women do; is part of the explanation for the growing proportion of the females among the unemployed youths. A recent study "*The School to Work Transition Survey (SWTS)*" targeting specific challenges the young people face to access stable employment opportunities, established that the rate of unemployment is increasing faster among the female youth than among their male counterparts. Table 3.10 presents the findings.

**Table 3.10 Employment Status of Youth in Uganda (18-30 years), 2013 and 2015**

| Status                     | 2013 |        |       |       |       | 2015 |        |       |       |       |
|----------------------------|------|--------|-------|-------|-------|------|--------|-------|-------|-------|
|                            | Male | Female | Urban | Rural | Total | Men  | Female | Urban | Rural | Total |
| <b>Employed</b>            | 72.5 | 66.3   | 71.8  | 61.9  | 69.1  | 80.4 | 69.6   | 76.8  | 68.3  | 74.5  |
| <b>Unemployed (Strict)</b> | 3.8  | 5.1    | 4.1   | 5.6   | 4.5   | 4.3  | 5.8    | 3.9   | 7.8   | 4.9   |

**Source: Statistical Abstract 2017 (UBOS, 2017b:33); UWONET, 2015:41(Annual Report)**

The findings in table 3.10 indicate increasing levels of unemployment among the youth; the rate having increased to 4.9% in 2015 up from 4.5% in 2013. This challenge of increasing unemployment, according to the results in table 3.2, has affected the girls/females more than the

boys/males given that disaggregated results show that while among the males unemployment has increased to 4.3% from 3.8% (an increase of 0.5%); among the females, it has increased to 5.8% in 2015 from 5.1% in 2013 (an increase of 0.8%) over the same period.

### c) Gender based wage disparities

This study, like several others before it, has established a tendency for the men to earn more than the women especially in the private sector, where the gender wage gap in earnings is about 39% (UNDP, 2017:7). A Similar study (WOUGNET, 2015:15) shows that in 2009/10, men in urban areas earned sh181, 000 on average, while their female counterparts earned sh130, 250. In the rural areas, the men earned sh80, 000 while the women earned sh50, 000. The wage gap between the women and the men is much higher in the non-agriculture sector (UGX 100,000), than in the agricultural sector where it is UGX 30,000 (UBOS, 2017c:55).

Table 3.11 presents the gender disaggregated details of the findings from the last two UNHS by UBOS.

**Table 3.11 Median Main Job Monthly Nominal Wages for Wage Employees (Shs: '000)**

| Residence     | UNHS 2012/13   |               |                | UNHS 2016/17   |                |                |
|---------------|----------------|---------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
|               | Male           | Female        | Total          | Male           | Female         | Total          |
| Rural         | 110,000        | 66,000        | 88,000         | 150,000        | 88,000         | 120,000        |
| Urban         | 220,000        | 150,000       | 200,000        | 300,000        | 150,000        | 220,000        |
| <b>Uganda</b> | <b>154,000</b> | <b>88,000</b> | <b>120,000</b> | <b>220,000</b> | <b>110,000</b> | <b>168,000</b> |

**Source:** UNHS 2016/17, Main Report (UBOS, 2017e: 56)

The median monthly wages of paid employees in Ugandan was UgShs.110, 000 with earnings of the males (UgShs.132, 000) higher than those of their female counterparts (UgShs.66,000). A comparison by rural-urban residence indicates a difference in the median wages of the employed force. The median wages for men in rural areas was 100,000 compared to 66,000 for women. In urban centres, it was 246,000 for men compared to 150,000 for women. According to an EPRC policy brief, gender discrimination in pay is widespread in Uganda. However, the EPRC policy brief explains that the phenomenon of gender gaps in pay is an occurrence in the private sector given that the systems in public sector have been streamlined by policy.

### (f) Initiatives, programmes, successes and achievements

These include the following:-

- Uganda has ratified all the fundamental conventions and has domesticated them into the legal and regulatory framework governing labour relations (The Republic of Uganda, 2012:14).
- The Federation of Uganda Employers (FUE) was established in 1958 as a national representative body for protecting employers' interests in the public and private sector. The membership of the FUE is drawn from all sectors of industry and includes public and private

companies, multi-national companies, training institutions, medical service providers, sectoral associations and NGOs. (The Republic of Uganda, 2012:13).

- Ugandan laws passed that should eventually benefit women including: the Employment laws passed in 2006, the Law on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities passed in 2006, the Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC) Act of 2007, and the National Equal Opportunities Policy. In principle, the EOC should address issues of violations of marginalized people's rights, and ensure equitable access of all persons to prevailing opportunities (DFID & Irish Aid, 2014:39)

### **(c) Root causes, barriers, drivers and challenges for Gender Equality in employment**

The barriers to gender equality in access to employment are many and varied. The key ones include the following:-

- Though more women in Uganda are now playing important roles in the country's social, political and economic arena, gender imbalances still exist due to cultural attitudes and practices, among them gender roles and responsibilities all favoring men over women (UBOS, 2012d:12).
- The review of NDP I indicated that there is limited employment of women in skill-based industries. This arose from gender prescriptions that "technical subjects such as electronics, plumbing and science subjects are hard and therefore a preserve for men", which constrains future women's income potential.
- Women are also marginalized in skills development, access to financial resources, employment in non-agriculture sectors and inheritance rights (NPA, 2015:74).
- Women typically assume a larger role in child-care and household responsibilities than men. The constraints presented by childcare duties are a major factor in explaining the difference between male and female productivity in Uganda (World Bank, 2014:19).
- Women's active role in the economy is coupled with the disproportionate burden they bear of unpaid "care" work in the household, including child and elder care, and provisioning of food, fuel, and water. This means that women are more labour constrained than men and face trade-offs among competing uses of time (UNDP, 2015:3).
- There is a structural segregation of women into low-paying sectors, exacerbated by the fact that in secondary and tertiary education; girls tend to opt for soft discipline such as nursing and nursery teaching, while boys opt for relatively "hard" subjects such as physics, chemistry architecture, engineering, accounting and economics. Because of this phenomenon, women have found themselves in low-paying jobs that are traditionally seen as feminine (Oxfam, 2016:49).
- Limited information on the mandate and composition of the EOC as well as the lack of a comprehensive and effective complaints system for women (UN CEDAW, Committee , 2010:4)

### **(d) Barriers to gender equality in economic opportunities and critical concerns**

The key points of note from the evidence in terms of real impact on the ground and the implications for the gender equality agenda are highlighted under Box 3.7.

### **Box 3.7: Barriers to gender equality in economic opportunities**

- ❖ The most binding constraint to gender equality in economic opportunity is the legal regime on property sharing among married persons. The Marriage Bill 2017 has been in parliament since 1965!, with the most contentious issue being sharing of property between husband and wife, particularly the “cohabitation close” which seeks recognition of cohabitation as a form of marriage also.
- ❖ Females enjoy less employment opportunities than males, are overburdened with unpaid care work, hence limited economic empowerment.
- ❖ Higher school dropout for a child leading to low paying employment opportunities.
- ❖ Gender prescriptions against women to offer science subjects hence, opting for “soft skills” such as nursery teaching and public relations with relatively lower pay.
- ❖ The few initiatives by Government include gender sensitive employment laws and policies which have largely remained on paper.
- ❖ The implication is that the majority of the women is unemployed or in unpaid work, and hence; are unable to take up economic opportunities such as Business startups.
- ❖ The export of labor has reportedly turned girls to slaves with unfair treatment particularly in the Middle East countries. The problem is exacerbated by lack of means of livelihood among girls coupled with over emphasis of economic growth without human rights concerns.

**Source: Parliament of Uganda, June, 2018; Public Finance Management Act, 2015**

### **3.5 Recommendations**

- Expeditiously enact the Marriage Bill (2017) and sufficiently provide for the “cohabitation close” into a legally recognized form of marriage.
- Institute mechanisms, sanctions, policy regulations and programmes to enhance observance of joint spousal co -ownership of family land as provided for the in the new land policy.
- Engage cultural institutions to popularize the Land (Amendment) Act (2010) and to promote ownership and inheritance of land by women/girls and make deviance/breach of these laws very expensive.
- Design specific policy and programme measures with strict sanctions to protect widows from property and land grabbing predominately by in -laws and relatives.
- Strengthen interventions such as Uganda Women Entrepreneurship Programme (UWEP) and Youth Livelihood Programme (YLP), but ensure prior needs assessment and continuous evaluation to ensure effectiveness.
- Introduce new financial products such as group collateral. These do not require traditional collateral such as land or other property which women do not have. Such products have been adopted as an international “best practice” for enhancing women’s access to credit worldwide. The *Grameen Bank* experience of “group collateral” propounded by Prof. Mohammed Yunus, is a compelling case.
- Institutionally, the strategy should ensure that all sector plans, budgets and programmes are gender responsive at both central and local government levels. The *Certificate of Gender Equity* should expeditiously cascade to lower local governments and those who are in breach of this should be heavily sanctioned.
- Support investments in agricultural inputs, equipment such as irrigation infrastructure and other value addition technologies and ensure sustainable marketing infrastructure.

- Enact and implement policies that provide for child care in all work places both formal and informal. This will give women who want to work an opportunity to do so without worrying about the welfare of their children. Furthermore, advocate for gender equity in access to employment opportunities and *equal pay for work of equal value* between women and men.
- Conduct sensitization campaigns against cultural biases, practices and attitudes that promote science/ technical disciplines only among girls/women, boys/ men.
- Streamline legal, policy and institutional framework for management and control of export labour companies and recipient countries.

“A healthy mind comes from a healthy body and productivity and growth are derivatives of investing in people of whom a mother is the custodian.”

***Gen. Pak Chung-Hee***

### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the key gender equality issues under the broad theme of health services delivery. The specific sub themes discussed under health services delivery include the following:

- a) Gender and access to health services (availability and efficacy of health infrastructure; drugs, medical equipment and facilities; medical and technical staff)
- b) Gender based reproductive roles and maternal health (family planning and fertility; maternity facilities and infrastructure; maternal health professionals - doctors, nurses and midwives; antenatal and post natal care; and maternal and infant mortality)
- c) HIV /AIDS (incidence, prevalence and trends; anti-retro viral treatment; and mother to child transmission)
- d) Gender and adolescent health issues (access to sexual and other health information services; and gender sensitive sanitary facilities and public infrastructure)

### 4.2 Access to Health Services

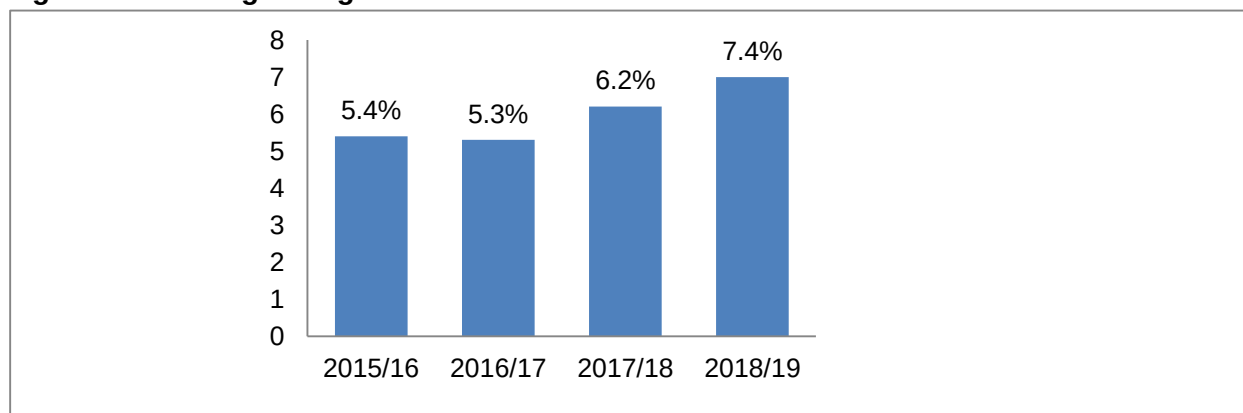
#### 4.2.1 Availability and Efficacy of Health Infrastructure

Health infrastructure is conceptualized here to comprise of operational medical establishments ranging from fully-fledged hospitals through medium and small scale health facilities to the smaller medical centers. Health facilities in Uganda include National referral hospitals; Regional Referral hospitals, district hospitals and health centres (IV, III and II). The number of functional healthcare facilities has increased in recent years. As of 2012 UBOS estimated that there were 5,229 health facilities across the country (UBOS 2012). The current study focused on the issue of availability and access to services at these health facilities by those in need, with specific attention on gender issues in such access.

#### (a) Situation and Trends in health service delivery

The budget allocation to Health has been increasing from UGX 1.3 Tn (5.4%) in FY 2015/16; UGX 1.4 Tn (5.3%) in FY 2016/17; UGX 1.8 Tn (6.2%) in FY 2017/18 and 2.3 Tn (7.4%) in FY 2018/19 (MoFPED 2018) as shown in Figure 4.1.

**Fig: 4.1 Percentage budget allocation to Health sector?**



Source: MoFPED, 2018

Much as the growth in allocation is appreciated, the proportionate financing remains far below the Abuja Declaration of 15% of the National budget that was agreed by all African countries. Furthermore, as the case is with all MDAs, there have often been sporadic budget cuts which negatively affect delivery of planned activities. This inadequate funding for health services presents greater challenges to women who compared to the men, are the main users of health services. It should also be emphasized that while the common health indicators such as MMR and IMR have improved over time; they are yet to reach the levels reported by Uganda's regional neighbors (such as Kenya and Rwanda). Table 4.1 presents the comparative health indices by Uganda, Kenya and Rwanda.

**Table 4.1: Selected Health indicators across the East African regional countries**

| Country | Indices        |                                 |            |             |
|---------|----------------|---------------------------------|------------|-------------|
|         | Fertility Rate | Modern contraceptive prevalence | IMR        | MMR         |
| Uganda  | 6.2            | 26%                             | 56/1000    | 438/100,000 |
| Kenya   | 4.6            | 39.4%                           | 47.5/1,000 | 400/100,000 |
| Rwanda  | 4.6            | 45.1%                           | 37.1/1,000 | 320/100,000 |

*Source: Uganda Family Planning Costed Implementation Plan, 2015-2020 (MOH, 2014)*

It is against such background that in FY 2016/17, a member of parliament moved a Private Members Bill seeking supplementary funding for maternal health services. The implication here is the low prioritization of critical issues such as maternal health, yet there is evidence of increased spending on relatively less critical issues such as raising emoluments of Members of Parliament and excessive travel of public officials (EOC, 2014:58).

#### **(b) Initiatives, programmes, successes and achievements in the health sector.**

The initiatives are categorized into two, namely: i) State actors and ii) Non-state actors.

##### **i) State Actors**

- **Mulago Hospital Rehabilitation Project**

The Mulago project comprised the construction of a new 320 bed Specialized Maternal and Neonatal Health Care (MoH, 2018). However, this hospital will only be accessed by those able to pay the charges which include caesarean section UGX 2,000,000; immunization UGX 890,000; and normal delivery UGX 800,000; on top of consultation fees of UGX 50,000. It has been construed as discriminative that this hospital will not be easily accessed by ordinary women and men because of these astronomical charges. The government has however justified the charges as necessary to maintain the state of the art equipment installed. Government further argued that most Ugandans have been paying heavily seeking healthcare abroad and therefore, the charges at the newly constructed maternal hospital offer a viable alternative. It is however ironic that the hospitals facilities which clearly discriminate against poor women have been financed by loans which will be repaid by the same poor people.

- ***Construction and equipping of Kampala City Division hospitals***

The construction and equipping of Nakawa, Kawempe and Kiruddu Hospitals has been completed. Construction and rehabilitation of other health centres (HC IV and HCIII) has also been done. The hospitals and HCs provide ordinary health services to women and men.

**ii) Non State Actors**

A number of CSOs/NGOs have played a significant role in provision of health services in the country. Prominent among these are the faith based agencies: Catholic, Protestant, Moslem and Orthodox Medical Bureaus which do not only run hospitals but also provide training<sup>11</sup> for health workers. Others are RHU, UHMG, CDFU, Plan International Uganda, and Water Aid among others. It should be noted that health services from non-state organizations have been recognized to be of higher quality than services provided by the public facilities. The main reason is that these health facilities are founded on the premise of Private-Not-For-Profit (PNFP) philosophy, which implies that their focus is largely service delivery and not business/or profit maximization. Others have been involved in mobilizing communities for health promotion. An interview with Programme staff of FOWODE suffices:

We have carried out community dialogues at both community (village) and sub county level to promote a culture of responsibility on health and health seeking behaviour. We have also had interfaces with district leadership in several districts to promote accountability in health service delivery.

There is also evidence that health workers in these facilities have a more positive attitude to work/clients as compared to those in public health facilities (UDHS, 2016). Paradoxically, the reason for more positive attitude to work in PNFP facilities is not that the health workers are paid better; the major difference is largely the presence of a better conducive work environment characterized by availability of equipment, drugs and constant monitoring and supervision of service delivery. This contrasts with the poor work environment in public health facilities characterized by lack of diagnostic equipment, chronic lack of drugs, poor monitoring and supervision (chronic lack of support supervision) which have all culminated in negative attitudes of health workers in public health facilities.

Secondly, many of the non-state actors are faith-based (founded by religious institutions) with value systems of integrity and morality. The other non-government actors have operated in specialized areas; and their contribution is well appreciated and recognized. For example, the documented reduction in Uganda's TFR from 6.9 in the 1990's to 5 in 2017 is largely attributed to interventions implemented by CSOs/NGOs such as UHMG (distribution of contraceptives), and RHU (Providing technical knowledge on family planning and advocacy for management of population growth).

---

<sup>11</sup> For example, Nsambya Hospital (Catholic Bureau), Mengo Hospital (Protestant Bureau), Kibuli (Moslem Bureau) and Holy Cross Orthodox Hospital Namungoona (Orthodox Bureau) train some of the highest caliber nurses who constitute the kingpins of health service delivery in Uganda

**(c) Root causes, barriers, drivers and challenges for Gender Equality** in the health service utilization.

The barriers to gender equality in access to health services are many and varied including the following:

- Forty One Percent (41%) of women cite distance to health facilities as a challenge for accessing health care (NPA, 2015:74). Indeed a smaller percentage of the population live within five kilometers of a public health facilities in Uganda, further complicating the management of maternal health among mothers, especially in rural areas.
- The health delivery system is particularly inadequate in the rural areas where fiscal decentralization<sup>12</sup> (allocation of resources to lower local governments) has reportedly not been favorable for health services delivery. The inability to muster local resources to complement government allocation and subventions thus present one of the major challenges to effective health service delivery at the local government levels.
- There is widespread demotivation of health workers arising out of poor remuneration where a Medical Officer earns a paltry UGX 840.000 per month, equivalent to USD 238. Efforts by medics to have their salaries increased haven't received the expected committed response from government, leading to frequent strikes by medical personnel which further compromises the quality and availability of health services.

**(d) Summary of Critical Observations, Implications and Gender Concerns in health services delivery**

The key points and implications of the cited findings for the gender equality agenda are highlighted under Box 4.1

---

<sup>12</sup> Currently, the fiscal transfers from the centre to local governments constitute a paltry 12% (MoLG 2018) and yet, most service delivery is at LG level.

**Box 4.1: Critical observations, implications and gender concerns in health service delivery**

- Despite great strides by government in ensuring child survival through effective immunization programmes, most mothers remain pronatalists (possibly also fueled by lack of control over their sexuality and limited power in determining family size). A gendered analysis of reproductive issues in Uganda by several studies indicate that men generally hold sway over women's sexual rights and have high affinity for children. This has continued to expose them to high risk of child bearing with calamitous consequences of high MMR.
- While there have been significant improvements in establishing health facilities across the country, many people do not use these facilities due to poor quality services, manifested in lack of qualified staff, chronic drug stock outs, lack of diagnostic equipment. The negative attitude and poor work ethics among health workers particularly midwives, possibly due to an overwhelmingly heavy workload amidst poor remuneration.
- The government has put more efforts on rehabilitation of health facilities including referral hospitals but these facilities remain largely inaccessible to majority poor women and men because of distance, costs and general dissatisfaction of the population with service rendered therein.

**Source: Parliament of Uganda, June, 2018; Public Finance Management Act, 2015**

**4.2.3 Technical Staff**

The key technical health workers include doctors, nurses, clinical officers, midwives, laboratory technicians, pharmacists and other such cadre. The numbers and availability of these health workers are critical in the delivery of health services.

**(a) Situation and Trends**

Currently, a Medical Officer (MB.ChB holder) earns USD 238 per month in salary while a midwife earns less than USD 200! The earnings of health workers and the environment in which they operate cannot motivate them to do their work effectively. For example, there are reports of a single midwife in some health facilities handling over 20 deliveries in one day. The work load is heavy yet there is no adequate motivation. As a result, many skilled health workers have sought solace in the private sector. This exodus has left wide gaps at various levels of service delivery in the public health facilities, with many health centers operating at less than 60% of its established positions. The quality of service available for the population especially the women (the main users of the health services) thus leaves much to be desired.

**(b) Root causes, barriers, drivers and challenges of staffing in health facilities.**

- The health system is highly inefficient in some critical areas. Supervision is weak and monitoring inadequate, with health workers reporting late at work and many never turning up at all for work (MoFPED, 2017:22).
- The health work force is not motivated; the workload is heavy and basic equipment and essential supplies are in very short supply.
- There are challenges in the recruitment and retention of well-trained health personnel mainly because of poor remuneration and a working environment that is not conducive to work (MoH 2014).

- There are widespread allegations of corruption in procurement and delivery of drugs which affects both quantity and quality of service.

These challenges greatly affect women who are the most health care seekers and shoulder the burden of care for their families (FOWODE, 2010:17).

### **(c) Summary of Critical Observations, Implications and Gender Concerns**

The key points of note from the evidence in terms of staffing of health personnel.

#### **Box 4.3: Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on health personnel**

- Health facilities are understaffed and the few available staff is de-motivated by the heavy work load and poor work environment which results in negative attitude towards work and patients.
- The main challenges to health workers are poor pay, inadequate facilitation, and lack of amenities at their work place.
- The result has been poor quality services at public health facilities compelling patients who can afford to seek services from private health facilities. The implication for the poor patients who cannot afford private healthcare remain is high risk of morbidity and mortality

**Source: Parliament of Uganda, June, 2018; Public Finance Management Act, 2015**

### **4.3 Gender Based Reproductive Roles and Maternal Health**

This is a critical element in the women rights to health question. The scope here includes family planning and maternal healthcare.

#### **(a) Situation and Trends**

Players in the RH field, led by UNFPA have implemented wide ranging interventions promoting family planning and the results are visible. Family Planning services are accessible to all who need them. The decrease in fertility from TFR of 6.2 in 2002 to TFR of 5.4 in 2016 (UBOS 2016), is attributed to increased use of family planning services. Presently, Contraceptive prevalence among married women is 39% for married women and 51 % among unmarried women (UNFPA, 2016: 6/39); which has lessened maternal and infant health risks by preventing unintended or closely spaced pregnancies (EoC, 2014:63). It is also noteworthy that there has been improvement in access to care after childbirth, with 33% of women receiving postnatal care within two days following delivery in 2011, compared to 27% in 2006. Health indicators in others areas are however, still poor. Utilization of health facilities is low across the country leading to high MMR (336/100,000); IMR is estimated at 56/1000 and 27% mothers still deliver outside formal health facilities (UDHS 2016). These indices are yet to match with neighboring countries such as Kenya and Rwanda where delivery outside health facilities is only 7% and 17% respectively. Likewise, while Uganda's TFR is 5.4; Kenya's TFR stands at only 4 (UNDP 2017, World Bank 2017).

While there are many arguments in support of high birth rates in Uganda, it is pertinent to note that in most cases, having many children leads to high levels of poverty. This is more likely amidst low levels of educated, especially among the women/girls.

## **(b) Initiatives, programmes, successes and achievements**

These include the following:

- The MOH has developed a number of sub- policy documents and strategic plans among which is Infant and Maternal Health Strategy and Action Plan, which reflect the understanding that health outcomes are not the sole responsibility of the health sector.
- The current Health Sector Strategic Plan 2013-2018 (MOH,2010); places a lot of emphasis on reduction of neonatal, infant and maternal mortality and morbidity; and to seeks to promote advocacy for sexual and reproductive rights and sex education for adolescents.
- A reporting framework has been developed for monitoring maternal and infant mortality, and increasing accountability of all health workers (FIDH & FHRI 2012:20).
- Safe-motherhood initiatives are being implemented by government, partners and NGOs to mobilize men to participate in reproductive health activities. A network of Village Health Teams has been established in the country to facilitate health promotion service delivery, community participation and empowerment in access to and utilization of health services like antenatal, delivery assistance, family planning services and HIV/AIDS (MoGLSD, 2014:21).
- Sexual and Reproductive Health issues are being addressed through an elaborate policy framework that includes: the National Health Policy; the Health Sector Strategic Plan (HSSP II); the National Strategic Framework for HIV/AIDS; the Population Policy; and the Universal Primary Education. Sexual and Reproductive Rights form one of the priority areas under the National Minimum Health Care Package (UN CEDAW Committee , 2009:84)
- HIV/AIDS prevalence reduced from 18.5% in 1990s to only 5.9% now. Though this is still high, it shows significant progress (MOH, 2017).

## **(c) Root causes barriers, drivers and challenges for gender equality in health care**

The challenges to access health services are many and varied. The key ones include the following:-

- Over 50% of Health Centre IVs are not fully functional. This constrains the ability of women to access emergency services on time, which increases their vulnerability, morbidity and mortality. Uganda loses more than 14<sup>13</sup> women per day as a result of health related complications (UWONET, 2015:18).
- According to the Equal Opportunities Commission, most women and young girls lack financial resources to afford healthcare; which impedes access to maternal health services (EOC, 2014:63). The 2016 UDHS indicates that almost fifty percent of women lacked money for treatment and 6 percent perceived getting permission (and money) from their husbands to go for treatment as a problem.
- The rural areas face extra challenges in relating to poor infrastructure, irregular supply of drugs and the recruitment and retention of well-trained health personnel (UN CEDAW Committee, 2009:87; UDHS 2016).

---

<sup>13</sup> The probable causes include; high levels of teenage pregnancies, complications during and after birth and delays in seeking health care (MoGLSD, 2014:8).

#### (d) Summary of critical observations, implications and gender concerns

The key points to note and the implications for the gender equality agenda are highlighted under Box 4.4

##### **Box 4.4: Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on maternal health services**

- Access to maternal health services across the country is severely constrained and MMR has stagnated at high levels -currently 336/100,000 of live births.
- Most of the beneficiaries of the available health services are middle class urban women where health infrastructure is more accessible and can afford the services at private facilities.
- The poor women both in rural and urban areas who are the most vulnerable will hardly benefit from many of the key investments the government is making in improving health services.

**Source: Parliament of Uganda, June, 2018; Public Finance Management Act, 2015**

#### **4.4 HIV /AIDS**

HIV /AIDS; is a critical issue in the assessment of the gender and health question. The key issues include incidence, mother to child transmission, prevalence and access to anti-retro viral treatment.

##### **(a) Situation and Trends**

- HIV/AIDS **prevalence rates** indicate higher vulnerability for the women and girls arising out of their limited control over decisions for safe sex (NPA, 2015:74). According to the HIV/AIDS Strategic Plan; 2011/12 – 2015/16 (MOH, 2016); HIV/AIDS prevalence is presently estimated at 7.3%. In 2014, among the 1,300,000 adults aged above 15years that were living with HIV; 770,000 were women (59%) (WOUGNET, 2015:5). Concerted efforts implemented by government the years have over checked the growth in prevalence rates; declining from 18.5% in the early 1990's to 7.2% in 2010.
- Among the initiatives was voluntary testing. The challenge however, has been the reluctance of the men to voluntarily test to know their status and take appropriate action. The UDHS 2011 established that 44 percent of the men and 25 percent of the women had never been tested, implying that they do not know their HIV status (UBOS, 2012e:204).
- Regarding **mother to child transmission**; the number of health centers offering Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission (PMTCT) has increased from 2,138 in 2013 to 3,248 facilities in 2014.
- The number of pregnant women living with HIV that are accessing Anti-Retro Viral treatment (ARVs) has increased from 33% in 2007 to 87% in 2014, a huge gain by all means.
- Testing for HIV among pregnant women has increased from 30 % in 2008 to 95 % in 2014 (WOUGNET, 2015:5).
- New HIV infections children dropped from 26,000 in 2010 to 4,000 by the end of 2016, largely as a result of the Elimination of Mother-to-Child Transmission (eMTCT) programme (SDGEA, 2018:6).

The Uganda Population HIV Impact Assessment (UPHIA) reported general decline in HIV prevalence across all socio-demographic sub groups and across the country. However, the report cautions that there has been resurgence of high prevalence especially, paradoxically among married couples. Uganda has nonetheless, made tremendous achievements in countering further spread of HIV. Statistics show that new HIV infections have reduced from 135,000 in 2010 to 52,000 in 2016 (UNAIDS, 2017).

#### **(b) Initiatives, programmes, successes and achievements in HIV control**

The main ones include the following:

- Action Plan on Women, Girls Gender Equality and HIV &AIDs, developed in 2015. A Gender HIV Scorecard was formulated alongside the Action Plan as an Assessment Tool to facilitate review and monitoring of commitments by the various actors in gender and HIV/AIDS programming (MoGLSD, 2016:30).
- Revision of the National Action Plan in 2011 to operationalize the UN Security Council Resolution 1325 and 1820 (MoGLSD, 2016:30).
- Development of the National Action Plan on Women, Gender Equality and HIV/AIDS 2016/17-2020/21 and aligning it to the Global Strategy on fast tracking the end AIDS by 2030, NSP for HIV and AIDS activities in Uganda 2016-2020 (GoU-SDGEA, 2017:7).
- HIV prevention and treatment services have been intensified leading to decreasing number of new infections in recent years. It was noted that close to 60% of the people living with HIV (PLHIV) had suppressed viral load which meant that treatment programs were successfully reaching the majority of the population with HIV (GoU-SDGEA, 2016:7).
- The proportion of pregnant women living with HIV accessing Anti-Retro Viral treatment (ARVs) increased from 33% in 2007 to 87% in 2014 due to Increased testing for HIV in pregnant women from 30 % in 2008 to 95 % in 2014 (WOUGNET, 2015: 6).
- The number of accredited health facilities that provide ARVs increased from 475 in 2011 to 1,603 by December 2014; This includes 100 % of public hospitals, 91 % Health Center IVs and 87% of Health Centre IVs (WOUGNET, 2015: 6).
- The number of health centers offering Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission (PMTCT) has increased from 2,138 in 2013 to 3,248 facilities in 2014 (WOUGNET, 2015: 6).
- National e-MTCT programming under the championship of the Hon. First Lady to promote PMTCT through campaigns to optimize tracking, retention, follow-up and adherence was very instrumental (GoU-SDGEA, 2017:8).
- Renewed impetus through the Presidential Fast Track Initiative to end AIDS by 2030 which was launched on the 6th June 2017 following the 69th United Nations General Assembly Declaration to end HIV as a public threat by 2030. The Presidential Fast Track Initiative outlines a 5-point agenda that should guide the country to reach the 2030 targets (GoU-SDGEA, 2018:7)
- Under the AU-SDGEA, Uganda agreed to accelerate the implementation of gender specific economic, social, and legal measures aimed at combating the HIV/AIDS pandemic and effectively implement both Abuja and Maputo Declarations on Malaria, HIV/AIDS, Tuberculosis and Other Related Infectious Disease. More specifically we will ensure that treatment and social services are available to women at the local level making it more responsive to the needs of families that are providing care; enact legislation to end

discrimination against women living with HIV/AIDS and for the protection and care for people living with HIV/AIDS, particularly women; increase budgetary allocations in these sectors so as to alleviate women's burden of care; (AU-SDGEA, 2004:2).

- With support from the USAID/PEPFAR, the Government of Uganda has been able to enroll 76,000 persons living with HIV/AIDS (PLWHA) onto Anti-Retroviral Therapy (ART) and to provide laboratory equipment and supplies.
- Clinical trials for technologies controlled by the women such as *Microbicides* and HIV vaccines are ongoing.
- ⊖ HIV/AIDS has been mainstreamed in sector plans and the Medium Term Expenditure Framework and the Ministry of Local Government has accordingly integrated HIV/AIDs in the local government programmes. There are currently 80 Local Government HIV/AIDs Focal Points, appointed to oversee the integration of HIV/AIDs concerns at local government level (FOWODE, 2010:18).
- The Government of Uganda has developed the National AIDS Policy 2010; and revised the HIV/AIDS National Strategic Plan to guide & strengthen the HIV and AIDS response.
- A Guideline for male engagement in SRH /HIV/child health program delivery was developed to address major bottlenecks in uptake of services (MoGLSD, 2014:20).
- Safe-motherhood initiatives are being implemented by government, partners and NGOs to mobilize men to participate in reproductive health activities. A network of Village Health Teams has been established in the country to facilitate health promotion service delivery, community participation and empowerment in access to and utilization of health services like antenatal, delivery assistance, family planning services and HIV/AIDS (MoGLSD, 2014: 21).
- Sexual and Reproductive Health issues are being addressed through an elaborate policy framework that includes: the National Health Policy; the Health Sector Strategic Plan (HSSP II); the National Strategic Framework for HIV/AIDS; the Population Policy; and the Universal Primary Education, Population Policy. Sexual and Reproductive Rights form one of the priority areas under the National Minimum Health Care Package (UN CEDAW Committee, 2009:84).
- HIV/AIDS prevention remains a core component of the Government's programmes on Adolescent Sexual and Reproductive Health (ASRH). In terms of policy, the State Party is continuing with its ABC strategy on HIV/ AIDS with emphasis on abstinence for the youth (UN CEDAW Committee, 2009:91).
- Current measures to promote Adolescent Sexual and Reproductive Health (ASRH) include the *Health Promoting School Initiative (HPSI)* that includes sex education, counseling and life skills. Others include the Presidential Initiative on AIDS Strategy for Communication to Young People (PIASCY) and the Young Empowered and Healthy (Y.E.A.H) Initiative started in July 2004 by the Uganda AIDS Commission to prevent HIV and early pregnancy among school going and out- of- school youth. (UN CEDAW Committee, 2009:91).
- While acknowledging information provided on various initiatives undertaken by government to prevent and combat HIV/AIDS, including the National Strategic Plan 2007/8-2011/12, it is noted that the government continues to face a serious pandemic and that women and girls are disproportionately affected by HIV, as the HIV prevalence among women is higher (8 per cent) than that of men (5 per cent). In this respect, the Committee is concerned that women and girls may be particularly susceptible to infection owing to gender-specific norms and that the persistence of unequal power relations between women and men and the inferior status

of women and girls may hamper their ability to negotiate safe sexual practices and may increase their vulnerability to infection.

### **(c) Root causes, barriers, drivers and challenges for HIV/AIDS control**

The main barriers to gender equality in HIV-AIDS control emanate from: inadequate information on healthcare; women's inability to negotiate safe sex; and unsafe traditional practices and behaviors which put especially women at risk of contracting other diseases, which further predisposes them to HIV.

. Specifically:-

- Although Uganda is one of the countries that have managed to control the spread of HIV/AIDS, the prevalence rate among the women is higher than among the men due to socio-cultural norms that support retrogressive practices such as early marriages, early child bearing, polygamy, cross-generational sex, domestic violence and extra-marital partner for men (WOUGNET ,2015:47).
- Majority of the women lack economic power (due to limited control over economic assets), resulting in limited access to basic health care, and risks of high maternal mortality (WOUGNET, 2015:47).
- The greater risks of girls and women to HIV/AIDS are attributed to a multitude of factors as shown in Box 4.5

#### **Box 4.5**

- Young girls lack access to adequate information and skills that can help them keep themselves safe from HIV.
- Early onset of sexual activity,
- Peer pressure that puts young girls at high risk of acquiring HIV.
- Women lack economic resources that would empower them to make informed choices such as negotiating for safer sex.
- Given the patriarchal nature of the Ugandan society, most women leave decisions relating to matters of sex to men.
- Fear of violence leads many women in relationships to keep quiet about risky behaviors by their men (GoU-SDGEA, 2018:7).
- Harmful social-cultural practices such as early marriage, female genital mutilation (FGM), widow inheritance, and polygamy
- Weak implementation of existing laws and policies that should protect women and girls and promote gender equality (GoU-SDGEA, 2018:7-8).

### **(d) Summary of Critical Observations, Implications and Gender Concerns**

The key points of note in terms of real impact on the ground and the implications for the gender equality agenda are highlighted under Box 4.5.

#### **Box 4.5: Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on HIV-AIDS**

- Uganda has achieved substantial reduction in HIV prevalence. However, recent signs suggest resurgence of high prevalence; with the females being more affected than males.
- Much as the roll out of EMTCT, ART and other services has been generally impressive, limited holistic access to healthcare by pregnant women, may negate the registered achievements and derail the agenda for gender equality.
- Lack of information, poor attitudes of health workers, limited awareness of sexual rights and unsafe traditional practices and behaviors in some communities continue to put women's lives at risk.
- Beneficiaries have been spread across the country though services may not be easily accessible by some in very remote areas.
- The implications are that the most vulnerable like the poor, the uneducated, prostitutes and those with spouses who engage in unsafe practices are at a great risk
- Increasing HIV prevalence among married persons is a serious threat to the fight against HIV.

**Source: Parliament of Uganda, June, 2018; Public Finance Management Act, 2015**

#### **4.5 Gender and Adolescent Health**

This section explores issues of access to sexual and health information services, early pregnancy as well as availability of gender responsive sanitary facilities and services.

##### **(a) Situation and Trends**

The biggest segment of Uganda's population consists of youths, many of them adolescent; however, available sexual and reproductive health services that are customized to this segment are very limited. This partly explains the prevalence of adolescent health care burdens, such as teenage pregnancy that stands 23% (UBOS - UDHS, 2006; NPA/UN-JPGE, 2012:10) which is amongst the highest in sub-Saharan Africa (FOWODE, 2010:17). The findings of this study show that adolescent childbearing is more common in rural (27%) than in urban areas (19%). There are wide regional variations with Teso sub region at 31%, having the highest proportion of adolescents who have begun childbearing and Kigezi sub region at 16% reporting the lowest (UBOS, 2017d: 14). The explanation for these variations is the deep rooted culture and tradition in North Eastern region that espouses bride wealth, high parity and large families as a source of security. On the other hand, Kigezi region was blessed by the early East African Revival movement which spread the values of education for both boys and girls and campaigned against discriminatory cultural traditions such as bride wealth and child marriages. According to a study "Women and men in Uganda: Facts and Figures", (UBOS 2016) teenage pregnancy and motherhood is a major health and social concern in Uganda because of its association with high morbidity and mortality for both mother and child. Other studies on the same subject (MoGLSD, 2014:46; DFID & Irish Aid, 2014:12) show that in urban areas, 18.7% of all women below 25 years had experienced pregnancy before the age of 18. Early pregnancies are common; in Kampala 22% of the adolescent girls have given birth. Outside Kampala; one in every five adolescent girls

(less than 18 years old) is a mother or pregnant. the median age at first birth is 18 years compared to 17years in the East Central and Mid-Northern sub-regions(OECD, 2015:92).

**(b) Initiatives, programmes, successes and achievements**

- The Health Sector Strategic Plan (2000-2005) provided for actions intended to contribute to reduction of neonatal , infant and maternal mortality and morbidity, and to promote advocacy for men and women's sexual and reproductive rights and sex education for adolescents (MOGLSD,2007:19).
- The National Healthy Policy (NHP) was adopted in 1999 aimed at increased and equal access for all people to the Minimum Health Care Package (MHCP). This package has several components and key among them is sexual reproductive health rights (MOGLSD, 2007:19).
- Most policy documents developed by the MOH to guide healthcare delivery conspicuously provide for gender consideration in the delivery of services. (MOGLSD, 2007:19).
- In December 2010, a law was passed by Parliament against female genital mutilation (FGM) (UWONET, 2015:5).
- Government and stakeholders have initiated provision of adolescent reproductive health friendly services and information as well as engaging traditional institutions on socio-cultural practices that perpetuate child marriages (MoGLSD, 2014:8 )
- Sexual and Reproductive Health issues are being addressed through an elaborate policy framework that includes: the National Health Policy; the Health Sector Strategic Plan (HSSP II); the National Strategic Framework for HIV/AIDS; the Population Policy; and the Universal Primary Education, Population Policy. Sexual and Reproductive Rights form one of the priority areas under the National Minimum Health Care Package (UN CEDAW Committee, 2009: 84).
- HIV/AIDS prevention remains a core component of the Government's programmes on Adolescent Sexual and Reproductive Health (ASRH). In terms of policy, the State Party is continuing with its ABC strategy on HIV/ AIDS with emphasis on abstinence for the youth (UN CEDAW Committee, 2009:91).
- Current measures to promote Adolescent Sexual and Reproductive Health (ASRH) include the Health Promoting School Initiative (HPSI) that includes sex education, counseling and life skills. Others include the Presidential Initiative on AIDS Strategy for Communication to Young People (PIASCY) and the Young Empowered and Healthy (Y.E.A.H) Initiative started in July 2004 by the Uganda AIDS Commission to prevent HIV and early pregnancy among school going and out- of- school youth (UN CEDAW Committee, 2009:91).
- Sexual and Reproductive Health knowledge piloting DREAMS model for empowerment of girls with life skills, HIV/AIDS knowledge and SRH services (GoU-SDGEA, 2018:23).
- The government of Uganda has adopted a National Strategy to end child marriage and teenage pregnancies (Wodon, et al, 2017:2; GoU-SDGEA, 2018:23).

**(c) Root causes, barriers, drivers and challenges for Gender Equality**

The challenges with gender issues regarding adolescent health include the following:-

- ❖ Early initiation of sexual intercourse, child sexual abuse, child marriages and limited sexual and reproductive health information (MoGLSD, 2014:8).
- ❖ Teenage pregnancy interferes with the girl's education and health. The rates are higher in the rural largely because of limited knowledge of sexual reproductive issues (UN CEDAW, 2009:82).
- ❖ Sexuality and gender awareness among teenagers is very limited. This affects the teachers' and learners' ability to critique harmful social practices which negatively impacts their understanding of gender, sexuality and sexual relations (FOWODE, 2010:20). This has been exacerbated by religious institution against sexual education.

#### **(d) Barriers to gender equality in health care delivery and outcomes**

The key points to note and the implications for the gender equality agenda are highlighted under Box 4.6.

##### **Box 4.6: Barriers to gender equality in health care delivery and outcomes**

- Adolescent -friendly Sexual and Reproductive Health (SRH) services are lacking, implying that there is no remedy to the high SRH risks the adolescents are exposed to.
- SRH programmes have not adequately addressed the key challenges to the adolescents, among them, early initiation of sexual activity, child sexual abuse, child marriages and limited sexual and reproductive health information.
- Sex education that has been opposed by all religious institutions in Uganda should be re-packaged and marketed.
- Too much attention has been paid to the girl child leaving the boy child highly vulnerable to abuse.

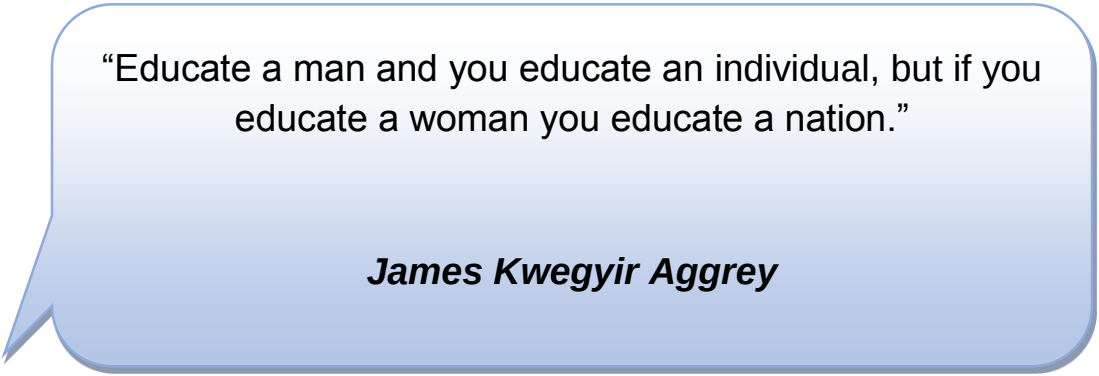
**Source: Parliament of Uganda, June, 2018; Public Finance Management Act, 2015**

#### **4.6 Recommendations**

- Primary health care should be emphasized in the provision of health services. The “*Bare foot doctors*”<sup>14</sup> as the model of health service delivery in China has proved to be more effective as a best practice.
- Put in place motivators for the health workers in order to attract and retain skilled and dedicated work force for health. more female and male health workers particularly in hard to reach areas and to control brain drain; The principle of *equal pay for work of equal value* can substantially stem the brain drain from public to private health services sector.
- Continuously sensitize the population against high *pronatalism* behavior/ high birth rate that increases the rate of child delivery and maternal health risks.
- Lobby authorities to enhance investment in the health sector by increasing budget allocations and monitoring of health performance.

<sup>14</sup> In China, the training of Medical doctors is largely based on traditional Medicine. The focus is on indigenous knowledge with primary health care as the main strategy. The “bare foot doctors” *traverse the country treating the people at community levels.*

- Intensify campaigns to promote uptake of family planning services.
- Intensify campaigns against harmful traditional practices, such as female genital mutilation, polygamy and wife inheritance.
- Reproductive Health Services (ARHS) programmes should consider providing Adolescent-friendly services.



“Educate a man and you educate an individual, but if you educate a woman you educate a nation.”

***James Kwegyir Aggrey***

## 5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the key gender equality concerns in regard to education, training and skills development. The discussion focused on: Enrolment (primary and secondary school); Dropout and retention; Access to higher education; Access to technical/skills training; and Literacy. Education in Uganda has been a partnership between state and non-state actors; prominent among the latter being the religious Institutions. These religious institutions have focused not only on imparting academic knowledge but also inculcating “*affective education*” which include teaching morality and upholding values of integrity. The main challenge of the education system in Uganda however, has been unbalanced focus on the *cognitive education* (based on providing information) at the expense of the *psychomotor* (technical skills training). As a consequence, graduates from many institutions in Uganda possess theoretical training but very few have practical skills. This situation has had very serious implications for employment, although it should also be noted that commensurate jobs growth has also been low due to low level of industrialization and growth in the agro-processing sector.

## 5.2 Enrolment

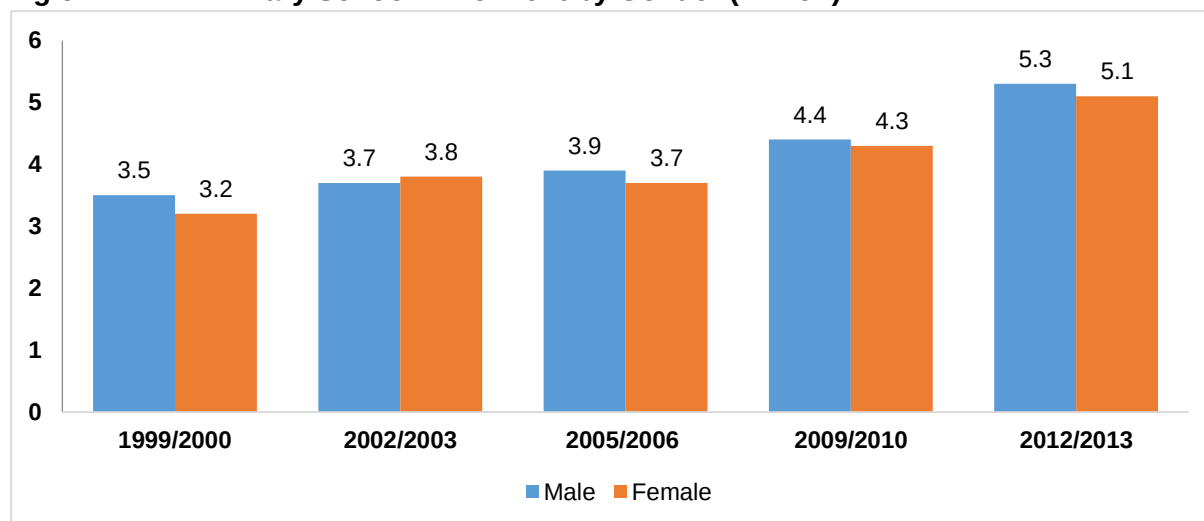
### 5.2.1 Primary school enrolment

One of the traditionally thorny aspects of gender disparities has been enrolment at primary school level for girls and boys.

#### (a) Situation and trends

Since the inception of Universal Primary Education (UPE) programme in 1997, primary school enrolment has gone up. It increased from about 7 million pupils in 1999/2000 to about 11 million in 2012/2013 (UBOS, 2014:29- UNHS 2012/2013). Figure 5.1 presents the gender disaggregated details.

**Fig 5.1 Primary School Enrolment by Gender (Million)**



Source: UBOS, 2014:30 (Uganda National Household Survey, 2012/13)

Analysis suggest that UPE achieved gender parity for the boys and girls at enrollment; in 2013 enrollment was 4,185,286 girls and 4,205,388 boys (UWONET, 2015:4; UNDP, 2017:7; GoU-SDGEA, 2018:24) implying Gender Parity Index (GPI) of close to 1.0. In FY 2002/03 the enrolment of girls was higher than that of boys. Alongside the increases in total enrolment, the comparative ratio of girls to boys` enrolment was also going up. Before the launch of UPE, the total number of girls in primary school was 1,420, 883 out of 3,068,625. The post UPE period show a much more positive scenario.

Table 5.1, extracted from the Statistical Abstract (UBOS 2017) presents the enrollment trends in recent years 2012-2016 which demonstrate the parity.

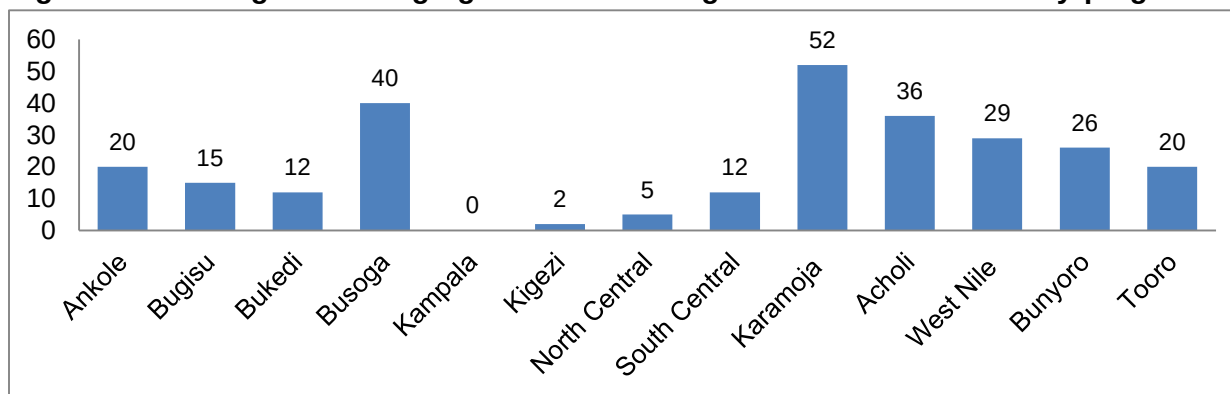
**Table 5.1: Trends in Primary School Enrolment, 2012-2016 by gender**

| Year                       | 2012  | 2013  | 2014  | 2015   | 2016  |
|----------------------------|-------|-------|-------|--------|-------|
| Enrolment ('000)           | 8,329 | 8,459 | 8,773 | 8,264  | 8,656 |
| Male                       | 4,158 | 4,219 | 4,377 | 4,122  | 4,294 |
| Female                     | 4,171 | 4,240 | 4,395 | 4,142  | 4,361 |
| Annual change in Enrolment | 2.8%  | 1.6%  | 3.7%  | (5.8)% | 4.7%  |

**Source: UBOS, 2017b:17(2017 Statistical Abstract)**

Table 5.1 shows that total enrollment at primary school for both girls and boys has increased at almost the same rate since introduction of UPE attaining parity in 2013. However, details show that while the national level statistics reflect gender parity; there are significant regional disparities estimated at 56% males and 44.5% females (UWONET 2015). Further analysis also reveals significant proportion of children of school going age “who have never attended primary school”. Of these latter category, 23% were females as opposed to 12% males (UWONET 2015, UBOS 2014), indicating that even the UPE policy has benefited boys more than it has benefitted the girls. The results for these disparities are many, the most prominent being early pregnancy as the findings of this gender assessment in Figure 5.2 established, and early child marriage which remains high in several parts of the country.

**Fig 5.2: Percentage of teenage girls not attending school because of early pregnancies**



**Source: Gender Assessment Survey, 2018**

## **(b) Initiatives, programmes, successes and achievements**

These include the following:

- In 2004, the Ministry of Education and Sports developed a National Strategy for Girls' Education (NSGE) to harmonize its roles and activities; and those of its partners in educating Uganda's vital human resource. The Strategy was developed in line with the Government White Paper on Education 1992, the 1995 constitution and the Education Sector Investment plan of 1997-2003. The Strategy was pegged to addressing the most pressing barriers to girls' full and equal participation in education in Uganda, clustered as social cultural factors, school related factors, political, economic as well as administrative factors (MoES , 2014:3).
- The Universal Primary Education (UPE) policy made primary education free and has greatly contributed to elimination gender disparity at the primary school education level (FIDH & FHRI, 2012:15). As a result of UPE, there has been noted increase in enrolment, with girls and children from poor families benefiting in particular. This has partly increased gender parity (UBOS, 2016a:25; UWONET et al, 2016:12; GoU-SDGEA, 2018:23; MoGLSD, 2014:3).
- The MoES has put in place a policy on Early Childhood Development (ECD) to guide the development of ECD curricula, training of ECD teachers and care givers, and to inspect and monitor ECD centres and nursery schools. The Ministry is also encouraging community initiatives in ECD programmes, but little direct government intervention in ECD has been registered. With a favorable policy environment in the sector, there have been several avenues created for various interventions in girls' education particularly in the area of girls' access and participation in education sector (MoES, 2014:10; GoU-SDGEA, 2018:23).
- Furthermore, there has been an open commitment to addressing issues of sexuality. Initiatives have changed issues such menstrual management from the realm of secret maturation, to the public domain. In some schools, girls are encouraged to make reusable pads during their handcraft lessons (MoES, 2014:12).
- Other contributing factors include the introduction of a National Strategy for Girls Education which was launched in 1999 as an integral part of the Education Sector Investment Plan and other affirmative action innovations in the Education Sector (MoGLSD, 2014:3).
- In 2017, government launched the Revised Gender in Education Policy developed in 2016. Its vision is an inclusive and equitable quality education and sports and lifelong opportunities, for all girls and boys, women and men in Uganda. The policy is complemented by other initiatives and strategic plans that address barriers to girls and women's education in the country. These include the Gender in Education Strategic Plan 2015- 2020 and the National Strategy for Girls' Education 2014-2020 (GoU-SDGEA, 2018:24).
- There are continued efforts to appoint and deploy senior women teachers, collection of sex disaggregated data and construction of gender sensitive infrastructure in all schools. This includes separate latrines for boys and girls, washrooms for girls and provision of sanitary pads among others. It should be noted however that schools in rural areas appears to have challenges retaining good teachers, with some without even female teachers at all.
- Mobilization campaigns for girl child education are ongoing with support from Civil Society Organizations such as Plan International, cultural and religious institutions as well as the media. A multimedia strategy was developed to guide all government interventions in engaging the media to address gender inequality (GoU-SDGEA, 2018:23).

- At 21st Education and Sports sector review, MOES launched the revised National Strategy for girls' education which addresses a number of emerging issues and sector reforms that have captured the ministry's attention over the years. These include the persistent barriers to girls' education; renewed emphasis on education; the promotion of science education, and launch of Skilling Uganda. The strategy also extended the scope of coverage to include the rural-urban divide, regional disparities and enhancing education for girls in disadvantaged areas like Karamoja, girl with disabilities and girls in refugee camps (MoGLSD, 2014:47).

### **(c) Root causes, barriers, drivers and challenges for Gender Equality at primary level education**

The barriers to gender equality in primary school enrolment include the following:

- Early marriages and early pregnancies, male child preference, poor school facilities that are not responsive to girls' needs, orphan-hood, long distances to school, expenses associated with tuition costs, workload at home and poor academic progress leading to less than 30% completion rate for girls at Primary Leaving Examination level (UBOS UNDHS, 2016).
- In the rural areas, the gains registered by UPE do not apply to the same extent for girls and boys due to constraints (including school facilities) and negative attitudes among local community members who consider girl child education as a waste of money (UWONET et al, 2016:12).
- Evidence from the UDHS 2006 established that despite the existence of the UPE programme, about three in ten girls and boys age 6-9 years have never attended school. This is attributed to hindrances like long distances to school and other educational costs to be met by parents, such as school uniforms and scholastic materials (UBOS, 2007:23). While this survey was done 12 years ago, other more recent studies (e.g Ochen, Lubaale, Mpyangu and Olowo, 2014) paints a similar picture on children who are out of school.
- The declining quality of education in UPE schools has become a major concern. Some children in primary seven can barely read and write, with studies showing that less than 50% of P.6 and P.7 children can grasp concepts that are taught at P.3 levels (MoES 2017). Most rich parents have therefore shunned UPE schools opting for private schools.
- The sustainability of funding for UPE has come under threat with Government saying that it is unable to fund all the school requirements. Consequently, many schools have opted to impose some charges which are prohibitive for poor parents and/or asked the parents to provide lunch for the pupils.

### **(d) Summary of Critical Observations, Implications and Gender Concerns**

The key points of note from the evidence and the implications for the gender equality agenda are highlighted under Box 5.1

**Box 5.1: Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on primary school enrolment**

- The key interventions in education include the National Strategy for Girls' Education (NSGE) and Universal Primary Education (UPE).
- UPE in particular is credited to have achieved parity in enrolment for girls and boys at primary school level.
- However, the declining quality of education in UPE schools, coupled with high drop-out rate, especially for girls; and threats to sustainability of UPE funding by government are likely to derail the achievements so far registered.
- The implications is that while UPE has improved enrolment especially for girls and the poor the declining quality may in the end worsen the divide between the poor and the rich for generations to come.

**Source: Parliament of Uganda, June, 2018; Public Finance Management Act, 2015**

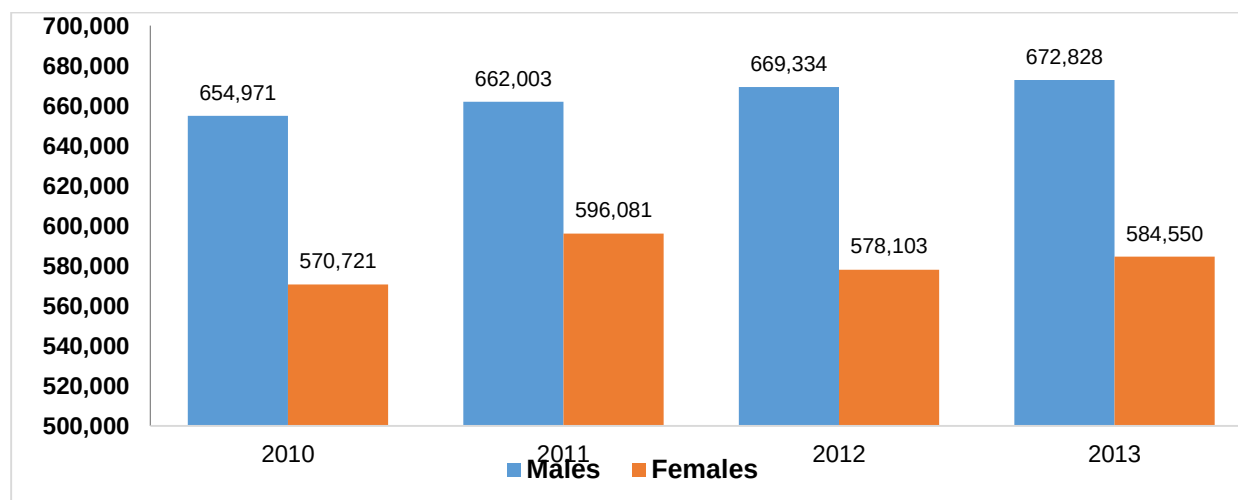
## 5.2.2 Secondary School Enrolment

Enrolment at secondary school level is a key parameter in assessment of gender equality in education.

### (a) Situation and Trends

Figure 5.2 presents the gender disaggregated data for enrolment at the secondary school level.

**Fig 5.2: Uganda Secondary Education Programme Enrolment Figures for Selected Years 2010 - 2013 Year**

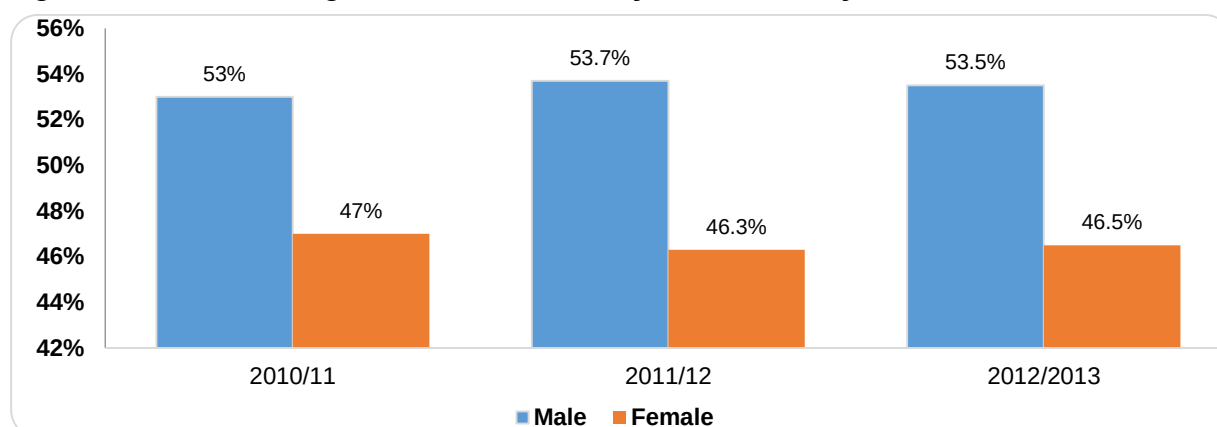


**Source: Beijing Platform for Action Report (MoGLSD, 2014:16)**

The data shows increases in gross enrolment from 1,225,692 (654,971+570,721) in 2010 to 1,257,378 (672,828+584,550) in 2013. Compared to the trends in regard to enrolment at primary school level over the period; the findings show that while the variance by gender is small at primary, at secondary level, the variance is much wider. Furthermore, the trends for the boys are

steadily upward rising from 652,971 in 2010 to 672,882 in 2013 while for the girls, the trends oscillate increasing from 570,721 in 2010 to 596,081 in 2011 then falling to 578,103 in 2012, and rising yet again to 584,550 in 2013. The gender ratios show that more boys than girls were enrolled. Figure 5.3 shows the comparative gender proportions.

**Fig 5.3 Percentage Ratio of Girls to Boys in Secondary Education FY**



**Source: Beijing Platform for Action Report (MoGLSD, 2014:16)**

The results in figure Fig 5.3 show that the total enrolment in secondary school comprised 53% boys while the girls were 47%. Thereafter, the ratio of girls in the enrolment at secondary level declined to 46.3% in 2011/12. Although it recovered slightly in 2012/13 to 46.5% the ratio was still lower than the 2010/11 levels and of course smaller than that of the boys. This is reflective of the high drop out rates of girls in the upper primary levels, leaving a smaller percentage sitting for PLE.

Table 5.2 presents trends for secondary school enrolment (2014 – 2016).

**Table 5.2 Key Secondary School Education Indicators (2014 – 2016)**

| Year             | 2014  | 2015  | 2016  |
|------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| Enrolment ('000) | 1,391 | 1,284 | 1,457 |
| Male             | 738   | 675   | 765   |
| Female           | 653   | 609   | 692   |
| GPI (F:M)        | 0.88  | 0.90  | 0.90  |

**Source: Statistical Abstract 2017 (UBOS, 2017b:20)**

Table 5.2 shows that the GPI improved from 0.88 in 2014 to 0.90 in 2016. As a number of reports affirm, significant progress has been achieved at the secondary school level with the ratio of enrolment of girls to boys presently close to 90% (UNDP, 2017:19; WOUGNET, 2015:2; GoU-SDGEA, 2018:24).

#### **(b) Initiatives, programmes, successes and achievements**

These include:

- The Memorandum of Understanding signed between private secondary schools and the government in the implementation of USE which has increased girls' enrollment in Secondary Education (MoES, 2014:11).
- The Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC) championing the need for creation of an enabling school environment for girls; bursary scheme for the needy students where 75% are girls; increasing the number of secondary schools under the USE programme through the PPP arrangement that has reduced the distances travelled by students; and, provision of accommodation facilities in hard to reach seed secondary schools (EOC, 2014:40-41).
- The Gender in Education Sector Policy (2009) as a mechanism to eliminate all gender disparities in education, training and sports in terms of enrolment, performance, achievements, transition, retention, completion, and learning outcomes. It emphasizes gender mainstreaming in planning, resource allocation and budgeting at all levels (MoGLSD, 2014:17).
- Continued efforts to appoint and deploy senior women teachers, collection of sex disaggregated, data and, construction of gender sensitive infrastructure in all schools. This includes separate latrines for boys and girls, washrooms for girls and provision of sanitary pads among others (MoGLSD, 2014:18)
- Government continues to support the construction of school facilities with emphasis on the girls. Construction of girls' dormitories through payment of capitation grants in Universal Secondary Education (USE) (MoGLSD, 2014:18),
- Government has implemented several scholarship schemes for students and over 75% of the scholarships have been awarded to girls in secondary schools (GoU-SDGEA, 2017:28).
- In partnership with Development partners and CSOs, Government launched the Girls' Education Movement (GEM) in Uganda in 2001. GEM clubs have been established in schools where girls and parents as well as communities are mobilised to send girls to school. Girls are given life skills while in schools on their safety and security in and out of school environments. GEM has provided scholastic requirements for the needy girls such as uniforms and books (MoGLSD, 2014:19)

However, many of these initiatives have not generated significant results; like primary education the quality of secondary education is generally poor mainly resulting from inadequate learning facilities, lack of scholastic materials, and poor remuneration for the teachers, resulting into high teacher absenteeism (MoES 2016).

### **(c) Root causes, barriers, drivers and challenges for Gender Equality at secondary level of education**

The challenges to gender equality in secondary school enrolment include the following:-

- Negative attitudes among local communities especially in the rural areas who consider education especially for girls as waste of money (UWONET et al, 2016:12).
- Although universal secondary education was introduced in 2007 to increase enrollment, the quality of education offered is generally poor, so many parents opt to enroll their children in private schools (NPA, 2014:18). This has left girl children from poor rural families excluded from quality secondary education.

- While USE has enhanced enrolment, it has not widened the opportunities for the girl children to venture into technical science subjects such as physics, mathematics and economics yet, these are the subjects that lead to competitive and high paying vocations.

#### (d) Summary of critical observations, implications and gender concerns

The key points of note in terms of real impact and implications for the gender equality agenda are highlighted under Box 5.2.

##### **Box 5.2: Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on enrolment**

- USE improved enrolment for both girls and boys much as the comparative ratio was in favor of the boys. However, on the part of girls the momentum has not been sustained due to high dropout rate for girls at primary level.
- The comparative quality of education between the public and private schools is compelling parents to opt for the latter.
- There are allegations of sexual abuse of the girls by their teachers and there are no strong sanctions for the vice. This issue is shrouded in secrecy because the affected families do not want such cases in the public domain yet they are capital offenses.

**Source: Parliament of Uganda, June, 2018; Public Finance Management Act, 2015**

## 5.4 Access to Higher Education

This section focuses on education at University level and other tertiary institutions.

### (a) Situation and Trends

According to the Education Statistics Abstract 2010, total enrolment for 2010 in all tertiary institutions across the country was 174,375 students comprising 98,062 males and 76,313 females; reflecting a gender imbalance of 56% in favor of the male students. The following year, 2011, total enrolment was 196,570 students comprising 110,255 males and 86,135 females.

The implication of these results is that generally, more men than women attain higher levels of education (UBOS, 2017c:24). Table 5.4 presents the trends in Tertiary Enrolment for period 2012 – 2016.

**Table 5.4 Tertiary Enrolment by Sex, 2012-2016**

| Institution type                 | 2012           | 2013           | 2014           | 2015           | 2016           | % in 2016    |
|----------------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|--------------|
| <b>All tertiary Institutions</b> | <b>198,066</b> | <b>201,376</b> | <b>250,621</b> | <b>257,855</b> | <b>258,866</b> | <b>100.0</b> |
| Males                            | 111,831        | 113,688        | 139,727        | 143,212        | 144,314        | 55.7         |
| Females                          | 86,235         | 87,572         | 110,894        | 114,643        | 114,552        | 44.3         |
| <b>Total</b>                     | <b>198,066</b> | <b>201,376</b> | <b>250,621</b> | <b>257,855</b> | <b>258,866</b> | <b>100.0</b> |
| <b>Of which, Universities</b>    | <b>140,096</b> | <b>140,403</b> | <b>180,360</b> | <b>185,315</b> | <b>186,412</b> | <b>100.0</b> |
| Males                            | 78,817         | 79,709         | 100,525        | 103,280        | 104,432        | 56.0         |
| Females                          | 61,270         | 60,398         | 79,835         | 82,035         | 81,980         | 44.0         |

**Source:** Statistical Abstract 2017 (UBOS, 2017b:24)

In 2016, the enrolment at tertiary level was 258,866 of which 72% were in Universities. The proportion of males (56%) enrolled in higher institutions of learning was higher than that of females (44%). Although progressive improvement has been registered at university level, bringing the percentage of girls enrolled to 33% for science programs in 2008/2009 and to 45% for the Humanities in the same year, the enrolment of female students is lowest in the science programs (it is still below the original target percentage of 35%). Even for the Humanities, the percentage is still below the desired level for gender equality, which is 50%. Overall the proportion of female enrolment has only slightly improved from 42.1% in 2006 to the present 43.8%. The gender gap has been further exacerbated by the new government policy enacted in 2012 on students' scholarships<sup>15</sup> that did not take into account any gender considerations such as affirmative action. Instead it is biased in favor of science-based programs; hence further marginalizing girls, since most of them shun science disciplines (WOUGNET, 2015:28).

### **(b) Initiatives, programmes, successes and achievements**

The main initiative has been the liberalization policy in education adopted by Uganda Government in the 1990's. This has resulted in private sector investment in Education institutions (Primary, secondary and tertiary). The immediate result has been phenomenal increase in enrolment in tertiary institutions particularly universities. The penetration of higher education institutions has created demand even among the parents who would not have enrolled their children. The main beneficiaries have been the girls whose enrolment increased significantly. The case study of Makerere University illustrates the point.

### **Case study of trends in gender equality on enrolment Makerere University 1922-2010**

*In 1922, when Makerere University was established, female students was accounted for less than 1%; and they mainly trained in domestic affairs just presumably, to prepare them to be good wives of traditional chiefs. In 1955, none core courses including Tailoring and Home Economics were introduced; still domestically oriented. It was not until in the 1990's, that the proportion of female students grew to about 15%. Drastic changes in female enrolment were realized in 2001 when the proportion of female students grew to 36.1% and steadily rising to 50.4% by 2010.*

*The major explanation for the impressive increase of female enrollment was introduction of private programmes which opened the university's "gate wide". This was facilitated by heavy investment in secondary schools where many students enrolled.*

*It is pertinent to note that the female students are increasingly undertaking science disciplines as manifested in 2010 when the BSc. in Agriculture course had 48 females against 17 males; Civil Engineering (54 females, 19 males), Construction Management (27 females, three males), Electrical Engineering (53 females, 10 males), Mechanical Engineering (40 females, 12 males), Surveying (13 females, five males), Veterinary Medicine (22 females, two males), Medicine and Surgery (59 females, 35 males), Quantitative Surveying (19 females, 13 males), Land Economics (19 females, six males) Industrial Chemistry (40*

---

<sup>15</sup> The policy stated that "Government recognizes the need to increase access to higher education since many students fail to access higher education because of funding problems. This policy will ensure increased access to funding through the introduction of a students' financing scheme and in turn it is anticipated that this will spur economic development as critical courses geared towards the economic development of the nation will be targeted for funding."

*females, 24 males), Forestry (16 females, seven males) and Food Science and Technology (22 females, 17 males).*

The introduction of the policy on bonus 1.5 points for girls at entry was a landmark in enhancing the enrolment of girls into tertiary institutions. Besides, Government has also introduced scholarships<sup>16</sup> and loan schemes<sup>17</sup> which have augmented enrollment at this level. The challenge though has been that the initiatives have tended to benefit the urban areas (68%) more than the rural (MoES 2017).

An analysis of admission records of many Universities indicate that girls admitted to university are from urban based schools where students already qualify for University entry (without affirmative action). The students in remote rural areas suffer from heavy supply side constraints making them unable to compete with their urban counterparts irrespective of the initiatives in place that are applied across the board.

#### **(c) Root causes, barriers, drivers and challenges for Gender Equality**

- Due to the fewer tertiary institutions in the country compared to secondary schools, competition for entry to them is very high and in most cases, the male students outcompete the female students (NPA, 2014:18).
- Although progressive improvement has been registered at university level in terms of enrollment, admission of female students to the science programs presently at around 33%; is still below the original target percentage of 35%) (WOUGNET, 2015:28).
- The gender gap has been further exacerbated by the new government policy in 2012 on students' scholarships that is biased in favor of science-based programs, where the males tend to have an edge over the females (Gender in Education 2012/2013) (WOUGNET, 2015:28).

#### **(d) Summary of critical observations, implications and gender concerns**

The key points of note and the implications for the gender equality agenda are highlighted under Box 5.4

---

<sup>16</sup> Since 2001, Makerere University has awarded (70%) of the scholarships to female students pursuing science courses and 30% to humanities. By 2010, 691 female students had been supported to access university education under the Female Scholarship Initiative (MoGLSD, 2014:18).

<sup>17</sup> In the FY2016/17, students loan scheme were provided to students across the 15 participating universities (8private and 7 public). Out of the 1,325 beneficiaries, 922 were male (69.6 percent while 403 were female (30.4) (MoFPED, 2017:124), indicating that the programme has benefited males than females.

**Box 5.4: Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on higher education**

- Initiatives implemented to enhance female entry into tertiary level education, particularly the bonus 1.5 points; has been very effective in increasing female admission to university.
- However, the main beneficiaries of most initiatives come from *well- to- do* families and high performing urban schools already capable of competitive entry; yet the initiatives are applied equally across the board

**Source: Parliament of Uganda, June, 2018; Public Finance Management Act, 2015**

## 5.5 Access to Technical and Skills Training

This section mainly explores issues of gender equality in access to practical skills training. In Uganda, this is commonly known as “*Business Technical, Vocational Education and Training (BTVET)*”.

### (a) Situation and Trends

As of 2017, there were about 129 BTVET institutions nationwide, in which 63,209 students are enrolled, with more male (36,960) than female (26,249) students (UBOS, 2017b:24). Table 5.5 presents the BTVET institutions and enrolment by type and gender for the period 2012-2016.

**Table 5.5 Trend s in enrolment into BTVET institutions 2012-2016**

| BTVET                             | 2012   | 2013   | 2014   | 2015   | 2016   |
|-----------------------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| <b><i>Institutions, total</i></b> | 126    | 118    | 118    | 119    | 129    |
| Government                        | 110    | 103    | 103    | 103    | 115    |
| Private                           | 16     | 15     | 15     | 16     | 14     |
| <b><i>Enrolment, total</i></b>    | 34,380 | 42,674 | 39,712 | 40,830 | 63,209 |
| Male                              | 21,499 | 28,024 | 25,485 | 26,338 | 36,960 |
| Female                            | 12,881 | 14,650 | 14,227 | 14,492 | 26,249 |

**Source: UNHS 2016/17 (UBOS, 2017e:39), Statistical Abstract 2017 (UBOS, 2017b:24)**

The results in table 5.5 indicate gradual increased access to BTVET institutions manifesting in the growth of enrolment rates over the period 2012-2016. However, gender imbalance is a concern; being highly skewed in favor of the male entrants. The females are more represented in their traditional lines of professions like nursing and health care (MoES 2017).

### (b) Initiatives, programmes, successes and achievements

The initiatives that have been implemented by government and non-state actors aimed at closing the gender gap in BTVET and these include:

- The Ministry of Education and Sports is shifting from offering academic based courses to more competence based skills training, with a holistic approach. The education sector, therefore, is increasing attention to technical, business and vocational education through the construction and rehabilitation of BTVET institutions.

- The Business, Technical, Vocational Education and Training (BTJET) Strategic Plan (2012/3- 2021/2) focuses on increasing equitable access to skills development and addressing barriers that keep girls and women from pursuing training in key service and productivity areas (MoES, 2016:5) . The aim is to increase the share of female instructors in the BTJET system. It also targets 35% of female enrolment in industrial training programmes (MoGLSD, 2014:7). It builds on the progress in the reform of the BTJET system and the establishment of the Uganda Vocational Qualifications Framework (UVQF) (MoFPED, 2017:121).
- Implementation of Universal Post Primary Education and Training program was started in BTJET institutions with a total of 3,024 eligible students in year one of which 2,365 were male and 659 female. Since then, the program has been expanding and in the year (2013), 8,206 students enrolled under the program of which 21% were females (EOC 2014:49).
- Following the launch of the gender education sector policy which advocates for equal access to education, a number of female students have been encouraged to compete favorably with boys in many BTJET institutions (EOC 2014:50).
- Government has undertaken deliberate interventions to promote equal opportunities for boys and girls in Business Technical and Vocational Education and Training (BTJET) through mainstreaming gender in *Skilling-Uganda*<sup>18</sup> programme and scholarships in BTJET for best performing students (GoU - SDGEA, 2016:27).
- Life skills especially through the Skilling Uganda Programme, Vocational skills development through government youth centres, vocational institutions and apprenticeship (GoU-SDGEA, 2018:23). Box 5.6 shows the problem of promoting technical/vocational training in Uganda.

#### **Box 5.5: Status of Technical/vocational training in Uganda**

As usually is the case with many programmes in Uganda, the “*Skilling Uganda*” programme has largely remained on paper, characterized by poor implementation without visible results on the ground. This has not been helped by the widely held negative attitude toward technical/vocational skills institutions. Parents in Uganda will only send their children for vocational training after failing to gain access to University. Consequently, graduates of vocational/BTJET institutions are treated with low regard and sometimes derogatorily referred to as “*academic dwarfs*”.

#### **(c) Root causes, barriers, drivers and challenges for Gender Equality in BTJET**

This study underscores the following:-

- There appears to be an in-built presumption that education for the girls should relate to their future roles as mothers and home makers while the boys are prepared for entry into the world of technical and formal employment (MoES, 2013:14)

<sup>18</sup> This programme was established in 1990 and aims at inculcating technical skills among the young people both in school and out of school.

- Business, Technical vocational Education training remains unpopular particularly for girls because of the subjects that are offered which require prior science based subjects at secondary education of which most girls shun.
- Girls' access to BTVET is constrained by, among other things, inadequate funding and poorly equipped institutions
- Gender biases in BTVET courses and low levels of staffing particularly of female instructors in this field.

#### **(d) Barriers to gender equality in education**

The key points of note in terms of real impact on the ground and the implications for the gender equality agenda are highlighted under Box 5.6.

##### **Box 5.6: Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on technical and skills training**

- The gender gap in enrolment is an issue of serious concern in BTVET institutions leading to fewer women in the skill oriented professions. The most critical challenges include cultural prejudices and gender bias against the girls in BTVET courses and the general negative attitudes toward technical/vocational education.
- Initiatives implemented include the BTVET policy and Strategic Plan aimed at promoting skilling for both boys and girls.
- The implications are that for the girls, have been deprived of the opportunity to acquire practical skills that would have been acquired via BTVET) which are critical in securing their livelihoods.

**Source: Parliament of Uganda, June, 2018; Public Finance Management Act, 2015**

#### **e) Best Practice in Education.**

- Universal Primary education introduced in 1997 has greatly enhanced enrolment and literacy. And this has been across the genders: namely both the boys and the girls have benefitted. It is one area where gender parity has been achieved.
- The liberalization policy resulting in private sector investment in education has created space for girl participation in areas where it could not have been possible for girls to access schools. This has enhanced enrolment at secondary and tertiary levels.

The 1.5 bonus points' policy to the girls has been fairly effective in enhancing girl child enrolment in tertiary institutions.

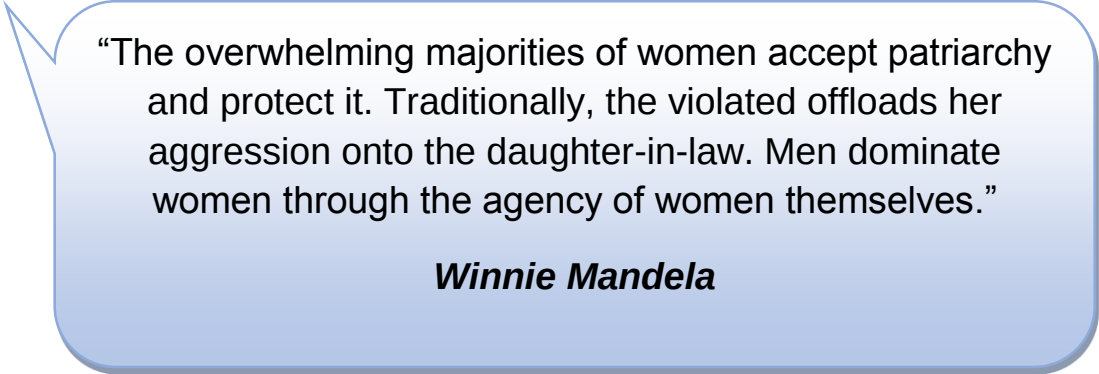
- Re-admission of teenage pregnant girls back to school after delivery of their babies. This could be positive given that 25% of pregnant mothers are school dropout.
- The district quota admission system for students to universities on government scholarship has also inadvertently increased the proportion of girls enrolled at universities.

Government has implemented a number of policies and strategies aimed at achieving gender parity in education. Prominent among these are: 1) National strategy for girls Education of 2004;

2) Gender in Education policy; 3) Government white paper on education 1992; 4) 1995 Constitutional (Article 30, 33, 34 and 35); 5) Education sector instrument plans (from 1997 –to date) and 6) Agenda for SDG targets “By 2030, Uganda has to ensure that all boys and girls complete free equitable and quality primary education. The results of these interventions show significant progress of girls’ participation as manifested in 63% of 173 government sponsored students at Makerere University Business School (MUBS), over 60% of law students at Makerere University and 81% of accounting and finance students at Kyambogo University. However, girl participation in science courses like medicine and engineering; boys are still dominants up to 90% of admissions. The problem is that girls tend to be biased against science subjects which needs radical mindset change.

## 5.6 Recommendations

- Revitalize provision of housing accommodation for teachers and revitalize the school inspection function as a means for enforcing strict sanctioning of absenteeism among the teachers.
- Institute stringent sanctions against child marriages.
- Take deliberate actions to invest in adolescent girl-targeted services such as water, sanitation and hygiene facilities for girls.
- The MoES should develop more effective mechanisms for addressing the risk of violence and sexual harassment of the girls in school especially by the teachers.
- In other countries school based social workers are trained and equipped to offer independent child counseling services. Recent studies indicate that many children would want to talk to another person other than their teacher on matters of violence and sexual abuse.
- The Ministry of Education should design policy and programme measures to mobilize and sensitize parents, communities for positive change in attitude and perception towards education especially for the girl child, with strict sanctions against breach of these policies.
- The inspection function should be revitalized as a means of monitoring schools so as to improve the quality of teaching/ training and the general teaching environment.
- Develop incentives akin to affirmative action to encourage women pursue science disciplines and continuously encourage mind set change for girl child education at all levels.
- Advocacy for policies to consider re-admission to school of the teenage girls who get pregnant should be strengthened, and more incentives given to make rejoining schools attractive.
- Implement affirmative action for girls to join BTVET institutions.
- Specialized courts for expeditiously handling sexual abuse against children and strengthen prosecution under camera for smooth witnessing of sexual offenses.



“The overwhelming majorities of women accept patriarchy and protect it. Traditionally, the violated offloads her aggression onto the daughter-in-law. Men dominate women through the agency of women themselves.”

***Winnie Mandela***

**6.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the key gender equality sections under the broad theme of violence, access to justice and peace. The specific sub themes discussed here include the following:

- a) Prevalence and patterns of violence (gender based violence; other forms of violence)
- b) Access and perceptions about justice services. Evidenced by the number of women in the police force, by rank, location (urban or rural), and types of jobs they do, the number and type of affirmative action and supportive measures to foster the recruitment, training, and promotion of women in the judiciary and in security sector agencies, the number of law and security sector agencies that implement protocols on sexual harassment and violence in the workplace and the number of female police and other security sector personnel to whom women could report sexual harassment and violence.
- c) Participation in peace building and conflict management.

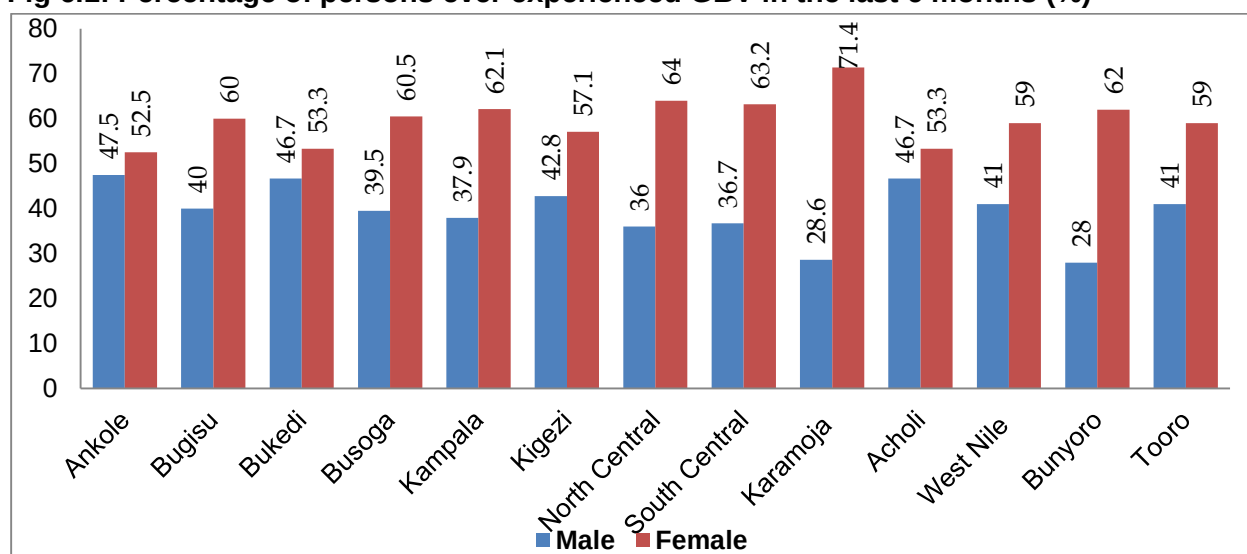
**6.2 Prevalence and Patterns of Gender Based Violence (GBV)**

The forms of GBV include: physical violence which comprises; battering, assault and beating; Sexual violence which includes; rape, child sexual abuse, defilement and incest, sexual assaults, sexual harassment, forced prostitution and trafficking of a person: Harmful traditional practices such as child and forced marriage, dowry related violence and Female Genital Mutilation(FGM). Other forms of abuse include: economic violence such as denial of assets and economic livelihood opportunities; and psychological violence such as verbal abuse, humiliation and confinement (MoGLSD, 2016:1).

**(a) Situation and Trends**

According to (UDHS 2016), women in Uganda are more than twice as likely to experience sexual violence as men. More than 1 in 5 women aged 15-49 (22%) report that they have experienced sexual violence at some point in time compared with less than 1 in 10 (8%) men. Thirteen percent of women and 4% of the men reported experiencing sexual violence in the 12 months preceding the survey (UBOS, 2017d: 53). The GBV prevalence comprises sexual violence against women (28%) and physical assault (56%) (UNFPA, 2017). There were regional variations with 54.6% women in Karamoja and 48.7% women in Northern Uganda that had experienced GBV (UNFPA 2017). The reason for the high GBV prevalence in these regions is the deeply entrenched culture and tradition that approves sexual violence as a tool to control /subdue women. The results of the gender assessment survey 2018 revealed similar trends as shown in figure 6.1.

**Fig 6.1: Percentage of persons ever experienced GBV in the last 6 months (%)**



**Source: Gender Assessment Survey, 2018**

It should be noted that there have been a number of programmes by both government and non-state actors (FIDA, CARE, IRC, Action Aid, UNFPA, UN Women, UNICEF) in Karamoja and northern region all aimed at addressing GBV. However, available evidence still indicates high prevalence of GBV. A review of the NDP II indicated that 56% of women cited having experienced physical violence by the age of 15; with 28% women aged 15-49 citing having ever experienced sexual violence compared to 9% of men in the same age group (NPA, 2015:75). In certain areas like North Eastern Uganda, GBV remains high (71.4% as compared to Ankole 52.5%) despite significant investments implying need for specific tailored interventions that respond to the uniqueness of the context.

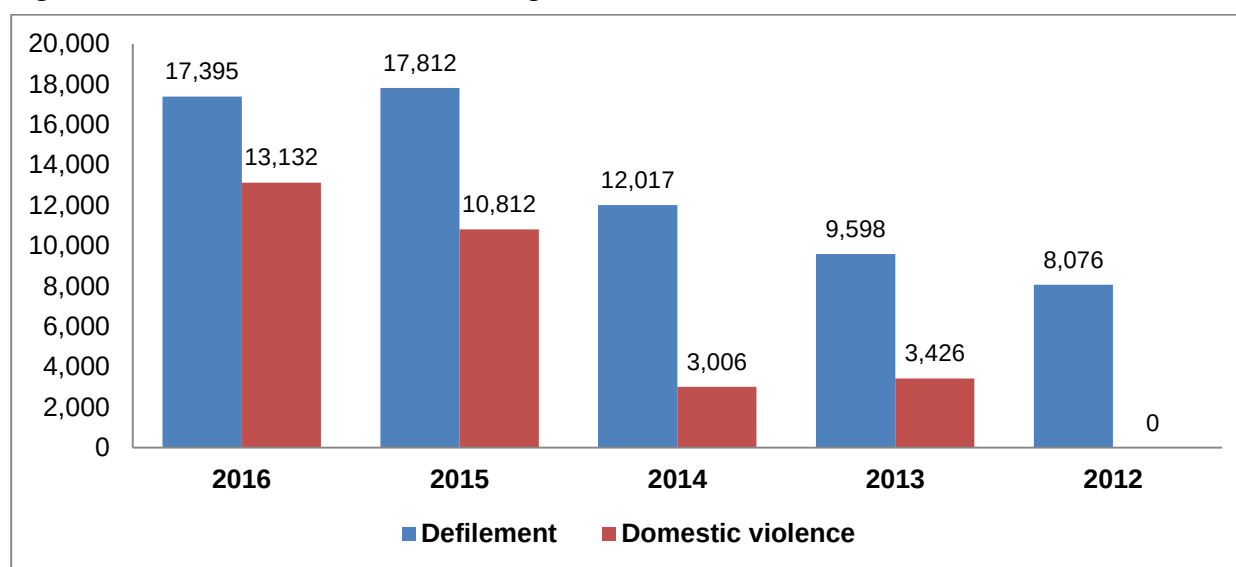
The country suffers from persistent high levels of sexual and gender-based violence. This means that the Ugandan society pays a high price in lost work days and lost economic capacity, over and above the severe detrimental effects on families and the society at large (UNDP, 2015:3). While data giving an accurate picture of gender-based violence (GBV) is difficult to come by, the new National GBV Database can accurately tell us that between January 2014 and October 2016, it recorded 16, 500 GBV cases, with 81% of survivors being women and only 19% being men (UN-JPGBV, 2016:17).

The most prevalent forms of GBV include: wife battering (30%), defilement (25%), rape (20%), marital rape (13%) and sexual exploitation at 12% (MOH, 2007). Wife beating is widely accepted with 58% of women and 44% of men believing that it is justified for a man to beat his wife under certain circumstances. Further, it is estimated that only two in ten Ugandan women report violence or seek help (UN Women, 2016: iv), indicating low levels of awareness of women's rights against violence. It could also be an indication that women do not expect to get justice even when they seek help since the justice system is skewed against them.

However, some improvements had been recorded in the past. The prevalence rate for GBV had declined from 18% to 6% for the period 1990 –2002 although the prevalence rate for women was still higher (7.8%) as compared to 6.4% for males (WOUGNET, 2015:14).

More recently, the trends of GBV have been on the increase. Figure 6.1 presents Trends of selected categories of GBV 2012 -2016

**Fig 6.1 Trends of selected categories of crime**



**Source:** JLOS, 2017:73 (JLOS Annual Performance Report 2016/17)

The results in Fig 6.1 show that the number/incidences of domestic violence rose from 3,426 in 2013 to 13,132 in 2016. This represents an increase of 28.3% over a period of 3 years. Likewise, the reported incidences of defilement rose from 9,598 in 2013 to 17,812 in 2015; an increase of 18.5% although there was a slight decline to 17,395 in 2016, (less than 1%).

The prevalence of violence has been increasing over the period 2012-2016. Notably, the domestic violence cases increased by 21.4% in 2016, with a total of 13,132 cases reported compared to 10,812 cases in 2015. According to the National Gender Based Violence Database (NGBVD), a total of 9,079 incidents (1,470 male and 7,609 females) had been recorded in 2015 (NGBVD 2015). Denial of resources, opportunities and services was the highest reported incident with 2,776 (2,271 female, 505 male), physical assault at 2,596 (2,173 female, 423 males) psycho social abuse was at 1,514 (1,064 female, 450 males), sexual assault at 1,089 (1,027 female, 62 males) other incidents include rape 24, forced and child marriage (898 female) and FGM-4 (UN-JPGBV, 2015:15).

### **Sexual Violence against Children**

Sexual Violence against Children is also high estimated at 74% girls who had experienced sexual violence compared to 52% boys and 82% boys had experienced physical violence as compared to 68% girls (Walakira, 2017).

## **(b) Initiatives, programmes, successes and achievements**

### **i) State Actors**

- ❖ The Government of Uganda (GoU) enacted the Domestic Violence (DV) Act in 2010. The DV Act for the first time recognizes abuse that does not result in physical injuries. In particular, the act defines domestic violence as any act which “harms, injures or endangers the health, safety, limb or well-being, whether mental or physical, of the victim or tends to do so and includes causing physical abuse, sexual abuse, emotional, verbal and psychological abuse and economic abuse; harasses, harms, injures or endangers the victim with a view to coercing him or her or any other person related to him or her to meet any unlawful demand for any property or valuable security; has the effect of threatening the victims or any person related to the victim by; or otherwise injures or causes harm, whether physical or mental, to the victim.
- ❖ Uganda has made tremendous progress in enacting other laws that deal with various aspects of gender based violence. Such laws include the Female Genital Mutilation Act and the Trafficking in Persons Act. At the international stage, Uganda endorsed the Goma Declaration on Eradicating Sexual violence and Ending Impunity in the Great Lakes Region in 2008 and this categorises sexual violence as a war crime. And the most recent Kampala declaration 2011 on SGBV saw government renew its commitment to fight sexual violence and set up support centres for women (Kasirye, 2012:5).
- ❖ The National Gender Based Violence Database (NGBVD) was launched and is now functional in 60 districts (UN-JPGBV, 2015:15).
- ❖ Consistent with the Beijing Platform of Action, Uganda established the following specific laws<sup>19</sup> that have been enacted to criminalize various forms of VAW(MoGLSD,2014:25):-
- ❖ In partnership with development partners (UNFPA, UNICEF, and UN Women), Government has adopted models of addressing GBV. These include:
  - SASA approach which focuses on identifying “model men” in communities who are further trained and sensitized to inspire other peers/colleagues to stop GBV. This model has been very successful in Sub- regions of Eastern and Northern Uganda.
  - The MGLSD has in partnership with UNICEF introduced a free – toll telephone line which is used across the various districts in the country to report GBV.
- ❖ Government has also developed policies and frameworks that address violence against women. Elimination of VAW is a priority in Vision 2040, the NDP and National Resistance Movement (NRM) Manifesto (2011 – 2016) that commits government to expand programmes that prevent VAW throughout the country. The GBV Policy was developed in 2012 (MoGLSD, 2014:25).

---

<sup>19</sup> The Domestic Violence Act 2010 and its regulations 2011;  
The Prohibition of Female Genital Mutilation Act 2010;  
The Prevention of Trafficking In Persons Act 2009;  
The Penal Code Act, Cap 120;  
The Children’s Act Cap 59 and  
The International Criminal Court Act 2010,  
The Land Act, 1997 as amended in 2010; and,  
The Employment Act (2006) and Sexual Harassment Regulations (2012)

- ❖ Government is implementing a National Action Plan on UN Security Council Resolutions 1325 & 1820 which was developed in 2008 and revised in 2011. This plan guides state and non-state actors to address SGBV against women in armed conflict (MoGLSD, 2014:25).
- ❖ In line with the Kampala Declaration of International Conference on Great Lakes Region (ICGLR) 2011, Government has launched a zero tolerance campaign against GBV, established a regional training facility for judicial, police and health officers as well as social workers, to equip them with skills to respond and manage cases of SGBV. Government has fast tracked the establishment of shelters for survivors/victims of GBV (MoGLSD, 2014:25).
- ❖ In 2012, Government created a Counter-Trafficking in Persons office (CTIP) and Anti-Trafficking Taskforce in early 2012. A National Action Plan on Anti-Trafficking in Persons has been drafted and a nationwide awareness campaign launched (MoGLSD,2014:26),
- ❖ Since 2009, the 16 days of activism against gender based violence campaign has been commemorated at national and local government levels. This has proved to be a successful intervention in advocacy and awareness raising on pertinent issues on violence against women (MoGLSD,2014:26),
- ❖ In order to increase access to justice for the majority of GBV survivors, Government revised the Uganda Police Form 3A in 2012 to allow other categories of health service providers in addition to the police surgeons to examine sexual violence survivors and provide expert evidence in court (MoGLSD, 2014:26).
- ❖ Government has also undertaken studies in order to establish the magnitude, causes and consequences of violence against women. A module on violence against women was included in the UDHS of 2006 and 2011. Situation analyses on Gender Based Violence (GBV) have been conducted and studies on the cost of GBV to the individual and the economy have been undertaken. (MoGLSD, 2014:26). However, the problem is that such studies have largely remained on shelves without much impact.
- ❖ As a result of the conducive legal and policy environment and implementation of various initiatives, physical violence incidences according to UDHS 2011 have slightly decreased among women aged 15-49 years from 34% in 2006 to 27% in 2011. Sexual violence has significantly decreased from 39% in 2006 to 28% in 2011 while sexual assault decreased from 11% in 2006 to 9% in 2011 (MoGLSD,2014:26).
- ❖ The Prohibition of Female Genital Mutilation Act (2010) and its regulations of 2011 are in place to protect women and girls. The Act provides for the criminalization, prevention and protection of the would be victims of FGM/C in the Country (MoGLSD,2014:49),
- ❖ There has been target training for law enforcement officers to improve their capacity to handle case of violence against women. The UHRC worked with the armed forces to integrate human rights training in their curriculum (MoGLSD, 2007:30).
- ❖ The sector developed the National Policy and Action Plan on the Elimination of Gender Based Violence (GBV) 2016 as an overall framework to prevent and respond to GBV including Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting (FGM/C). The Uganda Gender Policy (2007) was evaluated. Various Laws and Regulations on GBV were enacted. These were; The Domestic Violence Act 2010 and its Regulations 2011; the Prohibition of Female Genital Mutilation Act 2010; the Prevention of Trafficking in Persons Regulations 2010; and the International Criminal Court Act 2010 which among others criminalizes sexual offences in all situations (MoGLSD, 2016:29).

- ❖ It should be noted however that certain emerging areas such as the situations of women and children with regards to oil exploration is another area with potential violence to arise. Most of the policies on oil and gas do not address themselves very well on aspects of conflict management at community level arising from process of oil and gas exploration, say compensation for family land<sup>20</sup>. Women are more likely to lose out if a transaction is entered into with a family, as control of resources in most rural communities rest squarely on male family members. This is an area which need sustained intervention and dialogue with the community in the affected areas.
- ❖ The GoU has committed itself to several critical international legal instruments<sup>21</sup> against sexual exploitation, abuse and gender-based violence. These also provide for an efficient and adequate framework for the prevention and fight against Sexual and Gender Based Violence (GBV), and the prosecution and punishment of the perpetrators.

## **ii) Non-State actors**

Prominent CSOs/NGOs that have invested in the “fight” against GBV include UWONET, FIDA, Action Aid, IRC, ACFODE, and CARE among others. Their main area of focus has not only been enhancing awareness against GBV but also providing response to victims of the vice. The major actions have included:

- a) Collecting and documenting information on GBV (Action Aid)
- b) Linking GBV victims with JLOS institutions to seek redress (FIDA).
- c) Seeking Psychosocial support to GBV victims (ACFODE, CARE, IRC, Action Aid)
- d) Building Protection Centres for Victims of GBV (Action Aid)

UNFPA working through FIDA, CARE and MoH facilities has reached 380 women, 2,473 women/men and 2600 women in legal services, psycho-social support and health care respectively across Uganda. Action Aid has provided four (4) protection centres for GBV survivors in North Eastern Uganda.

## **(c) Root causes, barriers, drivers and challenges for eliminating GBV**

These include the following:-

The causes of such violence in Uganda are rooted in the unequal power relations between men and women, unequal rights to control resources within the home, biased legal framework that

---

<sup>20</sup> While clauses may exist promoting gender equity, lack of monitoring mechanism may see this not met.

<sup>21</sup> These include: the United Nations Charter (1945); the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948); Security Council Resolutions 1325 (2000), 1612 (2005) & 1820 (2008); the CEDAW (1979) and its Optional Protocol (adopted October 1999 and entered into force in December 2000), the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995); the Rome Statute (2002); the Commonwealth Plan of Action on Gender and Development; Advancing the Commonwealth Agenda into the New Millennium (2005 – 2010); the International Conference on Population and Development (1994); the United Nations Declaration on Violence Against Women (DEVAW, 1993); the Millennium Declaration (2000); and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC, 1990), General Recommendation 19 on Violence Against Women; the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children (2000); the World Health Organization Ethical and Safety Recommendations for Researching, Documenting and Monitoring Sexual Violence in Emergencies. At the regional level, Uganda’s commitments include: the East African Community (EAC) Treaty (2000); the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) Gender Policy (May 2002); the Protocol on the Rights of Women in Africa (July 2003); the Inter Government Authority on Development (IGAD), Gender Policy and Strategy (July 2004); the New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD) (MOGLSD, 2008:19).

favors men, and patrilineal customary norms such as payment of bride price that create a sense of ownership of women by husbands (Kasirye, 2012:4). According to the Child and Family Protection Unit (CFPU) of the Uganda Police Force, the major cause of domestic violence is power imbalance between spouses (UBOS, 2013:49). This is buttressed by culture and tradition that condones GBV as a way of life. Indeed in North Eastern Uganda, GBV was found to be heavily entrenched.

Lack of an adequate allocation in the national budget for implementing the DV Act shifts additional costs to women who are already the victims of DV e.g. seeking a medical examination. Consequently, without implementing the DV act, Ugandans will continue *to spend colossal amounts dealing with DV—estimated at 0.35% of GDP in 2011* (Kasirye, 2012:20).

- ❖ Some men are unwilling to refrain from domestic violence as a deliberate strategy to wield power over their wives. They use physical violence to keep women subdued.
- ❖ Women in Uganda generally accept violence as part of male-female relationships, which is not surprising because traditional norms teach women to accept, tolerate, and even rationalize wife battering (UBOS, 2012e:251). In areas such as Karamoja sub-region, GBV is an institutional phenomenon. It is heavily embedded in culture and tradition and therefore addressing GBV in this region, requires action to address this culture.
- ❖ Causes of GBV include failure to provide food to eat, drunkenness, alcoholism, failure to provide money to pay for school fees, poverty in the house, when a man wants to sell household assets and the wife is resistant, resulting into a fight. This situation causes women emotional and psychological suffering and often leads to physical violence (OECD, 2015:56).
- ❖ The prosecution of perpetrators of violence is often slow and is hampered by inadequate evidence presented by the survivors and the culture of silence where victims and their families prefer to settle cases out of court (MoGLSD, 2014; OECD, 2015:14; UNDP, 2016:5).
- ❖ Communities have inadequate information concerning their civic and human rights. (MoGLSD, 2014:27)
- ❖ While Uganda has ratified several human rights treaties and has a strong legal framework and policy on gender equality, implementation and enforcement has been inadequate, with major gaps being lack of clear indicators on determinants and manifestations of GBV, which constrains the design, monitoring and evaluation of interventions (UNDP, 2016:15)
- ❖ The UBOS NGPS survey indicates that women choose to stay in abusive relationships for fear of further violence (70%) while others stay out of concern for their children (90%). Other reasons include financial dependency (80%) and bride price (70%) (UBOS, 2017:59).
- ❖ There is a disconnect between Uganda's very positive legal framework and the lack of effective implementation or enforcement of gender-positive laws. This means that women's legal status is precarious, their capacity as economic agents is limited, and their rights are not effectively guaranteed (UNDP, 2016:5 )
- ❖ In emergency situations, Gender-Based Violence may be due to instability, insecurity, fear, dependence and loss of autonomy, breakdown of law and order, widespread disruption of community and family support systems (MoGLSD, 2015:2).
- ❖ Intoxication from drugs is also a cause of violence (UBOS, 2013:50).

#### **(d) Summary of Critical Observations, Implications and Gender Concerns**

The key points of note from the evidence in terms of real impact on the ground and the implications for the gender equality agenda are highlighted under Box 4.5

**Box 6.1: Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on gender based violence (GBV)**

- There is very high incidence of GBV in Uganda with women as the victims more than the men though it is believed that many men suffer silently for fear of being thought of as weak.
- The most critical challenges include; cultural acceptance of GBV as a buffer to power relations in favor of men and lack of access to efficient mechanisms for redress.
- Initiatives have been very many including laws and policies against GBV as well as sensitization programmes but their impact remains dismal largely due to heavily embedded culture and tradition that institutionalizes women's subdued position.
- Beneficiaries have been mainly the women victims especially the educated ones who are aware of their rights, wield more power and have access to justice systems.
- The implications are that the most vulnerable of the poor and uneducated women especially in rural areas are still largely at the mercy of their husbands most of who abuse them and go scot free.

**Source: Parliament of Uganda, June, 2018; Public Finance Management Act, 2015**

**(e) Best Practices, Conclusions and Recommendations**

There are a number of models that have been developed for prevention of GBV prominent of which include:

**1. Free toll line**

Free toll line as a quick response to Violence against children. This has been successfully implemented by UNICEF in partnership with UNFPA and MoGLSD on programmes aimed at addressing violence against children. The National Child Helpline Centre (CHL), Toll Free line-116 (SAUTI), helps to provide immediate response to reported VAC. The CHL is managed by the MGLSD with support from various development partners including UNICEF.



***UNICEF Head Office, Kampala, May 2017***

The helpline is a 24/7 emergency service with toll free access. Once the call is made via 116, an immediate response is provided depending on the issue raised and the service required. The helpline is operational countrywide as shown in Fig 6.2.

**Fig 6.2: Child Helpline Centre**

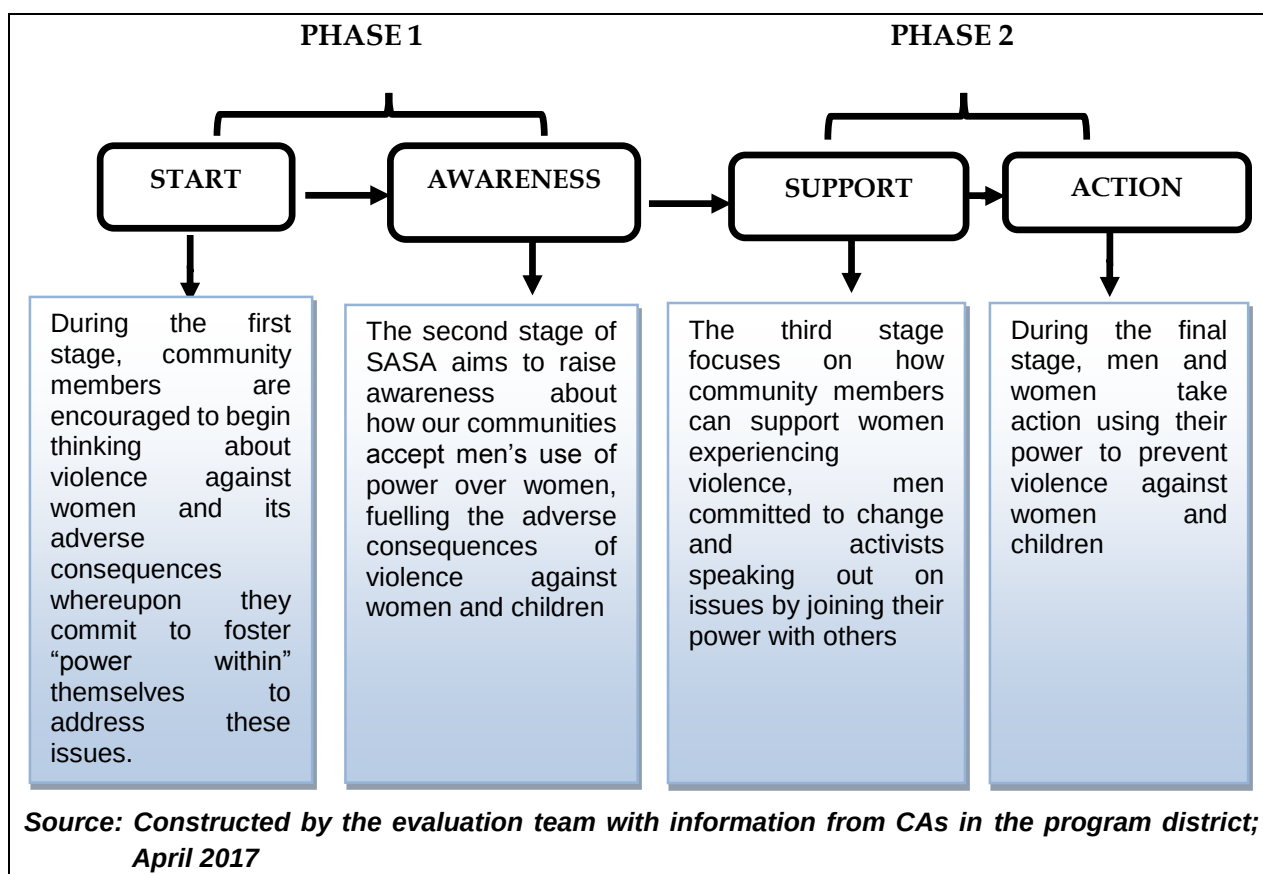


The National Call Centre receives calls countrywide on VAC and immediate response is provided. Since 2014 - 2016, the CHL centre has received 478,048 cases and all of them have been responded to promptly (National Call Centre Kireka, June 2017). When the issue of effectiveness of the call centre was pressed further, it was established that people in various parts of the country are not bothered as 74% of the girls have still been reported to have experienced sexual violence (Walakila, 2017). The implication is that the CHL has not yet led to desired behavior change.

## **2. The SASA model.**

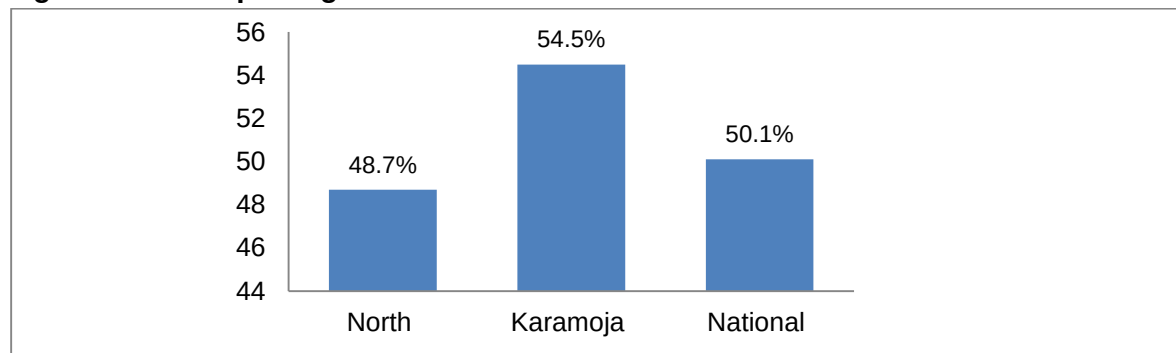
This is an approach comprised of four (4) components as indicated in Figure 6.3. This, model has been adopted by the world bank as a major tool for addressing GBV in many countries.

**Fig 6.3: The SASA Approach**



This system was found to be highly efficient as it enhanced quick response from relevant agencies to address rape and defilement across the country and has greatly enhanced reporting of GBVC as indicated in Figure 6.3.

**Fig 6.3 Reporting GBV cases**



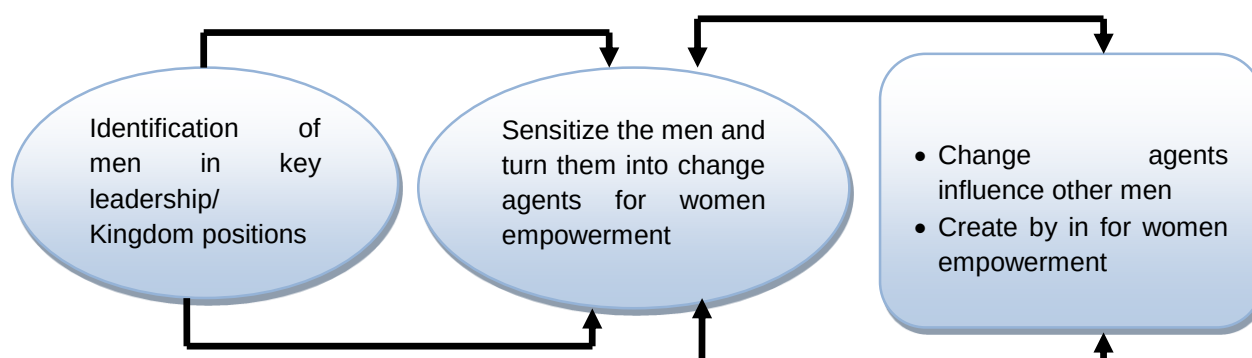
*Source: UNFPA, 2017*

The SASA model should be adopted and scaled up to address wider GBV including wife battering and other forms of GBV.

### 3. *He-for-She* campaign by UN Women.

This campaign focuses on identification of men who can work as change agents in promoting participation in women empowerment programmes. The programme has achieved positive masculinity where a number of men have taken the advocacy role focusing husbands to facilitate their wives in business startups and strengthening. This has significantly contributed to mindset change regarding women position in society as already elaborated. This model is similar to the Male Action Groups (MAGs) that have been adopted by UNFPA programmes as effective tools for empowering women. Figure 6.4 shows the operationalization of the He or She model.

**Fig 6.4: Operational of the *He-for-She* model**



## 6.3 Access to Justice Services

### 6.3.1 Availability of Justice Infrastructure and Services

This section focuses on the machinery and institutions under JLOS<sup>22</sup> which are mandated to deliver justice to the population.

#### (a) Situation and Trends

Due to gender inequality, women constitute the majority of the poor and lack awareness of their rights. Table 6.2 presents the Access to JLOS Services 2010/11 – 2016/17.

**Table 6.2 Access to JLOS Services**

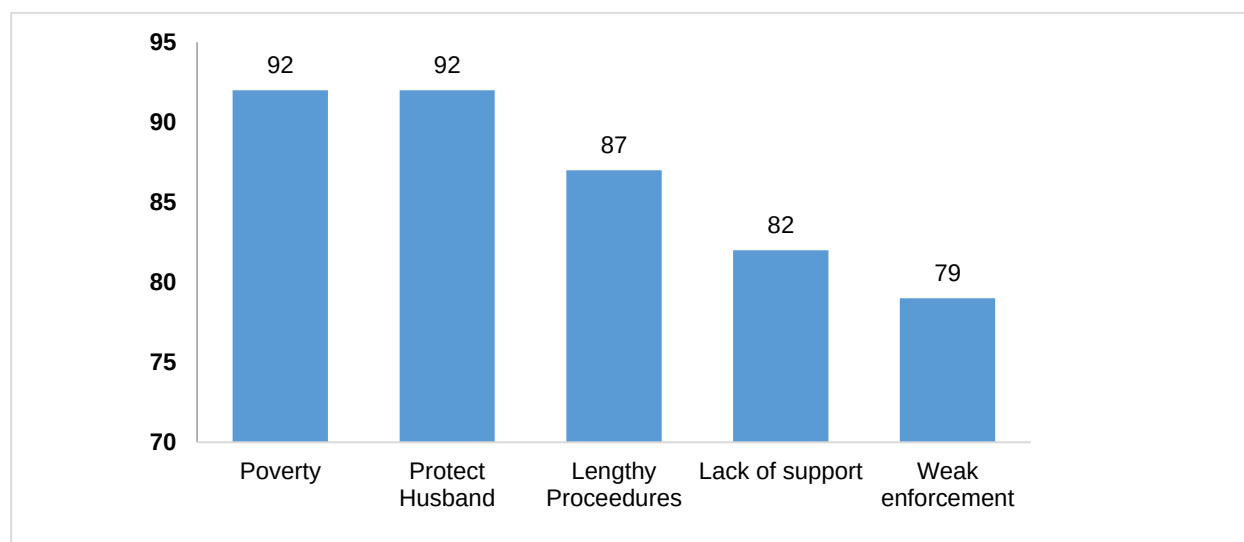
| Outcome 2 indicators                                                              | 2010/11  | FY    | FY    | FY    | FY    | FY16/17 |        |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------|-------|-------|-------|-------|---------|--------|
|                                                                                   | Baseline | 12/13 | 13/14 | 14/15 | 15/16 | Target  | Actual |
| Proportion of districts with a complete chain of core JLOS services               | 30%      | 35    | 46.8  | 53.6  | 54    | 54      | 59.8   |
| Proportion of district with complete chain of core JLOS services and institutions |          | 65    | 75.0  | 75.0  | 82    | 82      | 82     |

**Source:** JLOS, 2017:27 (JLOS Annual Performance Report 2016/17)

<sup>22</sup> Institutions under JLOS include: Police, MoJCA, Courts of Judicature and Prison Services among others.

The results in table 6.2 indicate that the proportion of districts with a complete chain of JLOS services has progressively grown from 30% in 2011 to 59.8%. The proportion with a complete chain of core JLOS services and institutions has grown from 65% in 2013 to 82% in 2017. The Local Council 1 (LC1) is the most common institution used by both male and female headed households (50.9% and 51.7% respectively) in case of litigation. Magistrate's Courts are used by 19.5% of males compared to 20.3% of females. This reflects the reluctance of women to seek justice in formal courts, due to their low socio economic status and education levels. Although there are more women victims of GBV, they are less likely to resort to courts to resolve their problems.

**Fig 6.4 Why Females do not seek Formal Justice on GBV (%)**



**Source: UBOS, 2017g: 63(National Governance, Peace and Security (NGPS, 2017)**

According to Fig 6.4; poverty and the need for wives to protect their husbands were the main reasons (92%) for respondents not to report violence in the formal JLOS system. Also mentioned was the lengthy of proceedings (87%), lack of support (82%) and week enforcement (79%).

According to the UBOS, women instead often resort to the informal justice system including consulting elders (40%), clan leaders (33%), cultural leaders (14%) and religious leaders (12%) (UBOS, 2017g:22). It is pertinent to note that the major reason for not reporting incidence of GBV to the formal justice systems “to protect the husband.” The husband who is the culprit of wife battering is the one being protected by the victim. The UBOS data shows that at LC1 level, 93.8% males and 90.7% females and female headed households respectively accessed the LC1 indicating a lower utilization by women of even LC1 courts. Additionally 98.4 and 94.9 of male and female respectively reported having accessed the Prisons (UBOS, 2012c:16). Furthermore, amongst all the regions, Northern Uganda depicted the greatest difference in the proportion of male and female households that reported having accessed an institution/court with 87.4% and 81.1% for males and females respectively (UBOS, 2012c:16).

The judiciary has a total of 365 Judicial Officers who are distributed as shown in table 6.3.

**Table 6.3      Distribution of Judicial Officers**

| <b>Gender</b> | <b>Type of Court</b> |                 |            |                       |                   |                     |                      |
|---------------|----------------------|-----------------|------------|-----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|----------------------|
|               | Supreme Court        | Court of Appeal | High Court | Registrars & Deputies | Chief Magistrates | Magistrates Grade I | Magistrates Grade II |
| Male          | 6                    | 9               | 28         | 16                    | 27                | 73                  | 66                   |
| Female        | 2                    | 3               | 21         | 7                     | 21                | 69                  | 10                   |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>8</b>             | <b>12</b>       | <b>49</b>  | <b>23</b>             | <b>48</b>         | <b>173</b>          | <b>76</b>            |

The table shows that the judiciary is heavily dominated by men. While it is true that justice is about objectivity in conducting litigation, it is also true that the justice system would be more gender sensitive before the law if more women judicial officers are recruited in service, particularly at lower levels (magistrate) where the majority of people of low socio economic status, women inclusive, are likely to seek legal redress. This should not be misconstrued to mean favoritism of *woman-to-woman* but women judicial officers would naturally attract fellow women litigants.

#### **(b) Initiatives, programmes, successes and achievements**

- In the Justice Law and Order Sector, a Gender Bench Book was formulated to guide judicial officers to understand gender in administration of justice and barriers that women and girls face in access to justice (GoU-SDGEA, 2017:10).
- GBV special court sessions were piloted and a policy brief on institutionalizing GBV special courts in place and used for advocacy to establish special courts for GBV cases (GoU-SDGEA, 2017:10).
- The JLOS sector created 9 new High Courts Circuits in Mukono , Mpigi, Mubende, Iganga, Luwero, Tororo, Hoima and Rukungiri bring to 20 the number of high court circuits. Already 3 of the new circuits are operational including Mukono, Mpigi and Mubende. The number of regional ODPP Offices is 16, RSA office is 71 and RSP Offices are 34. This has significantly enhanced access to justice particularly by women who are usually constrained by long distances to courts of law.
- Following the de-concentrating of JLOS services delivery, access to JLOS services has grown over the SIP III period and people can now access JLOS services within a 15Km radius compared to 75Km in 2010/11(JLOS,2017:xi/27).
- In 2003, the Judiciary commissioned the development of a Gender strategy/policy, which highlighted that whilst there are a number of barriers to access to justice, the majority of the barriers apply to women. (Judiciary, 2012:4/5).
- A donor-funded initiative has established a one-stop structure for free legal aid, the “Justice Centers”, in Lira (North) and Tororo (East), with a coordination structure in Kampala. These Centers aim to progressively shift responsibility for legal aid provision to government (FIDH & FHRI, 2012:15). The initiative will increase access to support services to women and men whose rights are likely to be violated due to their social status.
- The Uganda’s justice system has a set of legal reforms and institutional mechanisms that seek to ensure equality between women and men. For instance, Uganda has one of the most

gender sensitive constitutions at both regional and international levels. (NPA/UN-JPGE, 2012:23).

- The MGLSD has further been recommended to be part of the governing board that will oversee the implementation of the National Legal Aid Policy, which is essential in enabling JLOS come up with strategies that are customized to the justice needs of poor/marginalized groups amongst women and men (NPA/UN-JPGE, 2012:23)
- The Uganda legal and policy environment is highly favorable for the institutionalization of gender equality in JLOS's programme, budget and services delivery (JLOS, 2011:12).
- Training of judicial officers and staff of the Judiciary as Gender champions who understand what it means to be gender sensitive and responsive, and also have the skills of gender mainstreaming (Judiciary, 2012:14).
- There is an increasing number of female judicial officers, with the attainment of equality on the lower benches. However, this increase is not being reflected in higher management positions (Judiciary, 2012:15).

### **(c) Root causes, barriers, drivers and challenges for Gender Equality in access to Justice**

This constraint has been exacerbated by culture and tradition as manifested in 92% of women who do not report GBV meted against them because they want to protect their husbands. This is the contradiction that has sustained gender based violence. They are so heavily entrenched that women themselves have been socialized to be the very agents and conduits for strengthening the same gender discrimination within the socio-cultural fabric.

The key ones include the following:-

- The rate of disposal off rape and defilement case through the justice system remains very low, with most cases taking a minimum of two years to be disposed of (MoGLSD, 2016:12).
- Other barriers include burden of proof requirements which put victims at the disadvantage given the need to ensure the confidentiality of the victims and her family (MoGLSD, 2016:12).
- Flaws in the administration of the law, including physical access, as well as the survivors/ victims' inadequate knowledge and information about their legal rights (MoGLSD, 2016:12).
- Lack of trust in the justice system by the community even where they have the knowledge. This largely arises from rampant corruption by JLOS institutions. As of July 2015, defilement was one of the top crimes committed and reported in 2014; and yet the conviction rate for rape and defilement cases stood at 0.8% and 1.8% respectively(UNDP,2014:7). This is largely explained by implementation weaknesses including mishandling of cases by the police and other JLOS institutions.

### **(d) Summary of Critical Observations, Implications and Gender Concerns**

The key gender concerns from the evidence in terms of real impact on the ground and the implications for the gender equality agenda are highlighted under Box 6.2

**Box 6.2: Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on justice infrastructure and services**

- Despite some improvements over time, the justice delivery system in Uganda is still inaccessible to the majority of the people, especially the poor and marginalized women and men.
- The most critical challenges include, delays in case resolution and corruption in handling of cases by the officer of JLOS.
- Initiatives have been very many including progressive laws and policies, decentralized services as well as staff training and community sensitization programmes but implementation remains a challenge.
- Beneficiaries have been mainly the women victims and men especially the educated ones who are aware of their rights, wield more power and have access to justice institutions.
- The implications are that the most vulnerable of the poor and uneducated women especially in rural areas are still largely unserved by the formal systems and they resort to the informal alternatives or just suffer injustices silently

○ **Source: Parliament of Uganda, June, 2018; Public Finance Management Act, 2015**

**6.4 Participation in Peace Building and Conflict Management**

It is vital that both men and women participate in peace building, conflict management, policy and regulatory frameworks.

**(a) Situation and Trends**

Negative perceptions that women are weak and therefore not able to participate in peace building and negotiation processes still persist. There is absence of properly established information sharing channels to ensure that as many capable women candidates as possible are notified of the available opportunities. At the grassroots level, women are not sufficiently consulted nor involved in decision-making processes on the various resettlement programmes. This is aggravated by women's low literacy levels and the cultural norms on women's position and inadequate co-ordination of women initiatives at the grass root level (GoU-SDGEA, 2018:0). Women are increasingly becoming aware that peace can only be negotiated if they are actively involved in conflict resolution processes and their needs and interest are brought to the negotiating table (MoGLSD, 2007:36).

Available evidence and field studies by civil society organizations such as Action Aid Uganda, and ACODE<sup>23</sup>. The studies suggests that firstly the levels of women awareness on land right issues in the Albertine region was extremely low, with the majority of women assuming that land belong to men only. . To some extent this is propelled by skewed nature of access to information, and also awareness about the availability of justice process, both local and formal. Most women in rural areas still live in cultural shade while the minority of the women who knows about their rights also have significant challenges in accessing legal services in terms of fees that turn up to always be quite prohibitive in the justice process.

---

<sup>23</sup> See for example Action Aid 2014 commissioned baseline study to assess the land rights of women in oil region, covering Nebbi, Hoima, Nwoya, Buliisa and Masindi districts.

The ActionAid Uganda baseline study (2014) suggest that land disputes in the Albertine region is caused by several factors including community expectations because of discovery of oil in the region, which complicated land cases. There has been a momentous rush by people from elsewhere in Uganda, mainly richer business or salaried people to acquire land within the Albertine graben. Moreover, the process of resettlement in northern Uganda as people returned home after displacement also heightened land disputes within the Acholi (Nwoya) sub region. This was because the usual land marks and boundaries had faded and in turn, people started fighting for their boundary to be acknowledged. In Masindi, Buliisa and Hoima, the main cause of land disputes has been land grabbing by those more powerful than the ordinary community members and denial of access to land, land sales and eviction due to increase demands and speculations on oil in the region.

The study also indicated that men report most disputes cases regarding land, something which puts women on the defensive side albeit with patriarchal forces in the justice system ganged up against them. Many land cases are also among family members and extended family and rarely among between clans. Key disputes take the forms of land grabbing, denial of access to land, alteration of boundaries, falsification of sales and threat to evict from ones land. The study suggests that the nature and magnitude of the land dispute cases varies from one district to another. Land grabbing was highest in Masindi at 44.4% and in Nebbi eviction threat was most commonly reported at 41.2%. In Buliisa, where many speculators also acquired land, denial of access to land was reported by a staggering 42.9% of the respondents, and in Hoima by 44.4% of those interviewed. In Nwoya, 30.4% of those interviewed, ranked both land grabbing and denial of access to land as key nature of land disputes Threat of eviction was indicated by 26.1% of those interviewed. Moreover, in recent years the oil regions saw massive migration of people from other parts of Uganda for such reasons as employment and other opportunities, further putting pressures on the land available for local communities. This was exacerbated by oil speculations which further complicated land disputes including the inability to effectively address land rights or issues of the immigrants. The slow speed at which civil cases are disposed of in Uganda' court system is another major challenge affecting resolutions of land disputes. In the action aid study covering Nwoya, Bullisa, Hoima and Nebbi, most women who took part expressed dissatisfaction with the way land cases were handled, with the slow speed of resolution and non-conclusion of land cases particularly mentioned.

Women are further disadvantaged on land matters as court fees and time becomes very expensive for them. In other cases such women are either bribed off or threatened to give up their interests on land which have been grabbed off them. As a result, many abandon the pursuit of justice and end up losing the cases, if they are even ever determined. Moreover, court time also infringe significantly on the abilities of the women to perform both their productive and reproductive roles.

Some women are participating in conflict resolution and peace building mechanisms and structures at both national and sub national levels. Women in the judiciary directly contribute to

the implementation of Women, Peace and Security in Uganda (CEWIGO, 2017:30). Table 6.4 shows the participation of women in the delivery of justice in the Judiciary.

**Table 6.4 Comparative Rates of men and women in the Judiciary 2015 and 2017**

| Staff Category                             | Rank/ | 2015  |     |       |         | 2017  |     |       |         |
|--------------------------------------------|-------|-------|-----|-------|---------|-------|-----|-------|---------|
|                                            |       | Women | Men | Total | % Women | Women | Men | Total | % Women |
| Supreme Court Judges                       |       | 3     | 5   | 8     | 38%     | 4     | 7   | 11    | 36%     |
| Court of Appeal Judges                     |       | 3     | 9   | 12    | 25%     | 3     | 11  | 14    | 21%     |
| High Court Judges                          |       | 23    | 30  | 53    | 43%     | 22    | 31  | 53    | 42%     |
| Registrars / Deputy / Assistant Registrars |       | 7     | 15  | 22    | 32%     | 20    | 26  | 46    | 43%     |
| Chief Magistrates                          |       | 21    | 25  | 46    | 46%     | 18    | 26  | 44    | 41%     |
| Magistrates Grade 1                        |       | 10    | 15  | 25    | 40%     | 92    | 105 | 197   | 47      |

**Source: The Judiciary: Republic of Uganda Records 2015 / September 2017; CEWIGO, 2017:30 - Research study on monitoring the implementation of Uganda National Action Plan (NAP) for UNSCR 1325, 1820 and the Goma declaration**

#### **(b) Initiatives, programmes, successes and achievements**

These include:

- Uganda subscribes to the full and effective participation and representation of women in peace process including the prevention, resolution, management of conflicts and post-conflict reconstruction in Africa as stipulated in UN Resolution 1325 (2000) and to also appoint women as Special Envoys and Special Representatives of the African Union.
- The Army and Police have often included women in the peace keeping missions across the region like South Sudan, Somalia and Liberia. Currently, there is a good representation of women in the Army, Police and Prison services (MoD, MoIA 2018).
- The Peace and Security processes have been facilitated by existing structures e.g. Peace and Security Committee at all levels, Political commitment; and partnerships with Civil Society Organizations that work on peace related issues. (GoU- SDGEA, 2018:9)

#### **(c) Root causes, barriers, drivers and challenges for Gender Equality**

The key gender issues under participation in peace initiatives include the following:-

- ❖ Gender biases still exist against the capacity of women to participate effectively in peace building initiatives/conflict resolution.
- ❖ Many women themselves are reluctant to participate, especially where conditions may be harsh like in civil conflict areas or refugee camps.
- ❖ There are still rampant negative perceptions against women serving in armed forces. Most of them are seen as unruly women who may not have been engaged in any other civil institution.

#### **(d) Summary of Critical Observations, Implications and Gender Concerns**

The key points to note from the evidence in terms of real impact on the ground and the implications for the gender equality agenda are highlighted under Box 6.4.

##### **Box 6.4: Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on public awareness, trust and utilization of justice services**

- While women are increasingly participating in peace building and conflict resolution initiatives, their numbers are still dismal largely arising from society perception of “a woman” as having limited capacity to contribute effectively in conflict management which is perceived as solely a man’s domain.
- Initiatives have included assigning peace building tasks to women especially in the armed forces and also in refugee camps but very few women are participating in peace building efforts yet, they comprise the main victims of civil/conflicts.
- Open witnessing of sexual offences in traditional courts remains a deterrent in prosecution of GBV.

**Source: Parliament of Uganda, June, 2018; Public Finance Management Act, 2015**

#### **6.4 Recommendations**

- Sensitization of the community, cultural and traditional leaders across the different ethnic groups in the country about the dangers of GBV, the rights of women and the need to protect women/ girls against culture and tradition that condone vices such as GBV.
- Commit adequate resources for implementation of gender related activities: Funding gaps should be bridged particularly in the area of prompt reporting of GBV and prosecution of GBV cases and convictions. This will serve as a lesson to other intending culprits.
- Women should be encouraged to participate in peace building initiatives because they need to appreciate that they are usually the main victims of civil conflicts. Government should enhance recruitment of women in armed forces and other security agencies.
- Increasing the pace of implementing the Domestic Violence Act (2010). The DV Act provides a number of remedies to victims, including issuing of protection orders, criminal sanctions, civil remedies and compensatory provisions
- Increase access and availability to support services such as GBV shelters for women for women and men subjected to GBV and other rights violations.
- Increase awareness-raising and education efforts, targeted at both men and women, in order to completely eliminate FGM and its underlying cultural justifications. Such efforts should include the design and implementation of effective education campaigns to combat traditional and family pressures in favour of this practice, particularly among those who are illiterate, especially parents.
- Recognition of the economic costs of VAW. Address the high socio-economic costs of GBV on the individuals, institutions affected and increase the number of women in law and justice sector agencies. Also, adopt the National toll free help line for GBV against women.
- Promote male involvement and engagement in elimination of all forms of GBV in institutions such as the family, community, schools, places of worship and as well as workplace. This can be effectively done through adopting the *SASA Model*, *MAGs model* (UNFPA) and *He for She Model* (UN Women).

- Strengthen programmes that accelerate women's empowerment such as UWEF. Empowered women are less likely to remain in violent relationships and will be more likely to report GBV cases without fear.
- Expediently enact the Sexual Offences bill 2015.



“Gender equality is more than a goal in itself. It is a precondition for meeting the challenge of reducing poverty, promoting sustainable development and building good governance.”

***Kofi Annan***

### 7.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the key gender equality issues under the broad theme of leadership and governance. The specific sub themes discussed include the following: a) Participation in Community and Local Governance; b) National Leadership and Governance and c) Public Sector Management.

### 7.2 Participation in Community and Local Governance

This section focuses on the participation of women and men in governance at all levels namely: community, local government and national level.

#### (a) Situation and Trends

Uganda boasts of a strong local council system including district (LCV), Sub County (LCIII) parish/Ward (LCII) and village/Cell (LCI) levels. However, the participation of women has been dismal. According to a recent government report on gender, only 3 district councils out of 116 are headed by women, and moreover, this is an increase from one woman in 2011 (GoU-SDGEA, 2017:17). According to UBOS “women and men facts and figures”, representation at Local Government level, in directly elected positions is less than three percent for women and over 96 percent for men (UBOS, 2017c: xi). Women at the Local Government level generally only benefit from representation of the mandatory women seats. Table 7.1 highlights the massive gender disparities as of 2016.

**Table 7.1 Composition of the Local Government (2016)**

| Position                                                               | Women (%) | Men (%) |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|---------|
| District Chairpersons                                                  | 3         | 97      |
| Sub-county / Town Council / Municipal Division Chairpersons            | 1         | 99      |
| Directly elected District Councilors                                   | 2         | 98      |
| District Women Councilors                                              | 100       | -       |
| Directly elected Municipal Division Councilors                         | 2         | 98      |
| Municipal Division Women Councilors                                    | 100       | -       |
| Directly elected Sub-county /Town Council/Municipal Division Councilor | 1         | 99      |
| Sub-county/Town Council/Municipal Division Women Councilor             | 100       | -       |

**Source: Uganda Electoral Commission; UBOS, 2017c:77 (Women and men facts and figures)**

Overall, women are still much marginalized in participation at the local level. According to UBOS , a higher proportion of men (44%) than women (32%) reported that they had participated in at least one planning meeting at the village level in the last 12 months preceding the survey (UBOS, 2017c:70).

## **(b) Initiatives, programmes, successes and achievements**

There have been a number of initiatives by both state and non-state actors which have delivered significant results while others have encountered challenges..

### **i) State Actors**

- Government has developed Gender Mainstreaming Guidelines to facilitate all Local Governments to integrate a gender perspective in their respective plans, programmes and budgets (MoGLSD, 2016:30).
- Overall, the management and provision of services in this sector is guided by Local Governments Act (LGA, 1997) and the 2001 LGA Amendments. From a gender perspective<sup>24</sup>, Uganda has one of the highest rates of women's political participation in the eastern African region due in large part to Constitutional Provisions and the 2006 Electoral Law establishing Quotas or Women at the National and Sub-National levels (OECD,2015:20 ).
- The Local Government Act (1997) and the section 11 of the Constitution established a quota system to improve the participation of women (UNDP, 2016:10).
- Uganda's policies and laws succeed in promoting the political participation of women. Quotas requiring one female representative for each district and laws stipulating that these representatives be selected from an all-female ballot have proven to be effective in promoting women's representation in district councils (OECD, 2015:77; UWONET, 2015:10).
- Government supported the design of strategic plans and advocacy mechanisms aimed at enhancing women's voice in policy, legislation and promotion of transparency and accountability in elective politics and public expenditure management (UNDP, 2017:40).

### **ii) Non State Actors**

The most prominent actors are CSOs/NGOS which include: UWONET, FOWADE, UJCC, Action Aid, Anti-Corruption Coalition of Uganda, National Organization for Civic Education and Election Monitoring (NOCEM), NAWOU, ACODE, WOUGNET, Oxfam, DENIVA and National NGO Forum among others. These organizations have focused on advocacy and lobbying for increased participation/representation of women in positions of leadership. It is pertinent to note that through strong advocacy and lobbying:

- Government adopted the affirmative action for district women members of Parliament which has resulted in 112 MPs. This is in addition to 37 directly elected women MPs making a total of 149 (35%) of the whole house.

---

<sup>24</sup> These legal frameworks provide for one-third representation of women in each LG council and on statutory bodies that are key facets in the day to day activities of the sector. Such bodies include: the Local Government Technical Planning Committees, responsible for planning and budgeting for service delivery amongst LGs; the Local Governments Accounts Committees, responsible for overseeing financial accountability; and the District Procurement Committees, in charge of outsourcing goods and services amongst LGs. The numerical presence of women on these decision-making bodies provides possibilities for the articulation of gender needs within the sector for effective responses during planning and budgeting processes (NPA/UN-JPGE, 2012:14).

- Thirty (30) percent representation of women councilors in all positions of Local Governments.
- Heavy lobbying of government also resulted in enhancing women appointment to executive positions in MDAs from 15/51 in 2004/5 to 25/54 % in 2017/18 which is 16.9% increase.

However, there remains a contradiction between women representation in positions of leadership and the impact of this representation on the ground<sup>25</sup>.

### **(c) Root causes, barriers, drivers and challenges for Gender Equality in leadership and governance**

The key ones include the following:-

- According the National Action Plan on Women, women are underrepresented on informal institutions in the community where decisions affecting their lives (such as inheritance, community health, other social services and land use) are made.
- The inherently strong power<sup>26</sup> and culture structures that promote gender inequalities (Nabacwa, 2001).
- Even if Government provide equal political opportunities to women and men to participate in politics , 84% still believe that men make better political leaders than women do (OECD, 2015:76).
- Women generally have limited access to resources compared to their male counterparts to finance election campaigns. This is a result of limited ownership of capital assets such as land, physical infrastructure, highly positioned networks and sound financial bases. This limits their capacity to compete for the direct seats with men<sup>27</sup> MoGLSD, 2014).

### **(d) Summary of Critical Observations, Implications and Gender Concerns**

The key points of note from the evidence in terms of real impact on the ground and the implications for the gender equality agenda are highlighted under Box 7.1.

---

<sup>25</sup> For example, the budget for gender activities remains dismal at both National and Local Government Level. Similarly, in FY 2016/17, it was only through a Private Member's Bill that Parliament passed a Supplementary budget of UGX 120 Bn to secure funds for maternal health programmes.

<sup>26</sup> The UBOS NGPS survey established that overall, 9 in every 10 women / men believe that women asking for permission from their partners to participate in politics is one of the reasons why there are fewer women than men standing for election (UBOS, 2017g: 55).

<sup>27</sup> UBOS facts and figures show that Women at the Local Government level generally only benefit from representation of the mandatory women seats. Representation in directly elected positions stands at less than three percent for women and over 96 percent for men (UBOS, 2017c:76).

**Box 7.1: Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on Participation in Community and Local Governance**

- While there has been improvement in women's participation at the local level, it is discernable that most representation is from affirmative action. This participation is still way below what it should be.
- The most critical challenges include cultural bias, lack of self-confidence and lack of resources to compete in elections. Elections have of recent become too commercialized and few women can afford the high cost of running as a candidate for elective offices.
- Initiatives include affirmative action to ring fence certain positions for women as well as 30% representation on others
- The implications are that most of the rural and even urban poor / uneducated women remain largely excluded from benefiting from affirmative action which further exacerbates the marginalization of women

**Source:** Parliament of Uganda, June, 2018; Public Finance Management Act, 2015

### 7.3 National Leadership and Governance

The scope of this section focuses on the participation of women and men at the national level, beyond the local communities and local governance. Focus is mainly on the legislature and the executive.

#### (a) Situation and Trends

The Affirmative Action Policy, which is enshrined in the Constitution of Uganda, has enabled major progress in women's representation in Cabinet, Parliament and Local Councils. Women hold 25% of senior ministerial positions, including: Works & Transport; Education; Health, Energy & Minerals; Trade & Industry and Cooperatives among others (Office of the President, 2018). The first Female Speaker of Parliament was elected in 2011 and still holds office to-date. The share of women in parliament increased from 18% in 2000 to 35% in 2012 (UNDP, 2015). According to the UBOS "facts and figures", the 10th Parliament (2016-2021) comprises a 35% representation for women (UBOS, 2017c: x). As of 2016, women cabinet ministers accounted for 36 percent and state ministers account for 30 percent, compared to 64 percent and 30 percent, respectively, for men (UBOS, 2017c:77). Table 7.2 presents the gender disaggregated numbers of members of parliament over the years.

**Table 7.2 Composition of Parliament by gender**

| Period     | Parliament       | Total No. of MPs | No. of Men MPs | No. of women MPs | Women MPs as a % of Total MPs |
|------------|------------------|------------------|----------------|------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1989-1996  | 5 <sup>th</sup>  | 267              | 229            | 38               | 14                            |
| 1996 -2001 | 6 <sup>th</sup>  | 276              | 225            | 51               | 18                            |
| 2001-2006  | 7 <sup>th</sup>  | 305              | 231            | 74               | 24                            |
| 2006-2011  | 8 <sup>th</sup>  | 306              | 204            | 102              | 33                            |
| 2011-2016  | 9 <sup>th</sup>  | 375              | 244            | 131              | 35                            |
| 2016 -2021 | 10 <sup>th</sup> | 447              | 292            | 157              | 35                            |

**Source:** Parliament of Uganda 2017; UBOS, 2017c:74(Women and Men in Uganda Facts and Figures 2016)

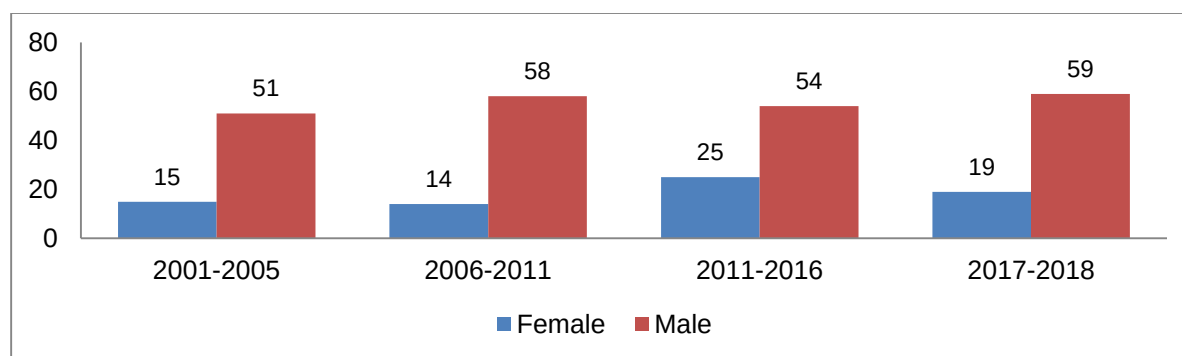
The country has seen a steady increase in the proportion of women in parliament from 14% in the 5<sup>th</sup> Parliament (1989-1996) to 35% in the 10th Parliament (2016-2021). However, this proportion has stagnated since it was the same 35% in the 9<sup>th</sup> Parliament -2016-2021 (UBOS, 2017c:74). In addition, the 10th Parliament has the first ever female Leader of the Opposition. Women are increasingly leading Parliamentary Committees. Out of the 28 committees in Parliament, 11 are chaired by women (GoU-SDGEA, 2017:19). In the period of 2011-2013, there was a representation with a total of 18 women (34%) on committee headship with; 11 female (39%) Committee Chairpersons out of 28 and 7 female (29%) Committee Vice Chairpersons (WOUGNET, 2015:22). It should be noted however that most of these women members of parliament (MPs) were elected on affirmative actions with less than 5% coming as directly elected constituency MPs. It is therefore clear that without affirmative action, women participation at parliamentary levels would be low indeed.

**Box: 7.2: Women participation in governance at national level**

Uganda is one of only eight countries in the world with more than 30% of the seats in the national parliament held by women. More than one in every three members of parliament (35%) is a woman. This is largely attributed to the affirmative action that requires every district to have woman MP-112 women representatives out of the 130 women MPs are elected in this manner.

In cabinet, there are 48 Ministers of state, of which 12 are Female (33%) and 32 Male (67%) at a ratio of 3:8 Male: Female respectively. There are a total of 30 Cabinet ministers with (7 female (23%) and 23 male (77%) at a ratio of female: male of 1:3.2 respectively (WOUGNET, 2015:22). Figure 7.1 presents the gender disaggregated numbers of members of cabinet over the years.

**Fig 7.1: Composition of cabinet by sex (Numbers)**



**Source: MoGLSD, 2014:33 (Beijing Platform for Action Report, 2014)**

While it is positive that women are represented in cabinet, the percentage representation has oscillated over the years. In mid-2000's, there was a woman Vice President, a position that has since gone back to men. This reflects significant loss of space and influence at the national level.. Out of 39 Shadow Ministers of the opposition, 8 (20.5%) are women (GoU-SDGEA, 2017:19) and the Leader of Opposition is a woman. This is positive as it increases political space for women participation and influence in decision making. Generally, however, the proportion of female members of parliament and female Ministers is still too low to influence critical decisions in the

favor of women. Compared to countries like Rwanda where over 50% of ministers are women, Uganda still has a lot of ground to gain in governance gender parity. What is also not clear is how a common girl or woman deep in Uganda's rural area such as Manafa, Mpigi, or Ntungamo, benefited from their top women ministers or female parliamentary representatives. There are reports of increased GBV, high girl child school drop-outs and poor funding of maternal and health, yet all these sectors are headed by senior female ministers.

### **(b) Initiatives, programmes, successes and achievements**

There have been a number of initiatives aimed at enhancing women representation in top positions of leadership and governance and prominent among these include:-

- ❖ The 1995 Republic of Uganda Constitution provided a turning point for Ugandan women by recognizing equality of men and women and making provisions for ensuring women's participation in decision making at all levels, through affirmative action provisions.
- ❖ The Government of Uganda (GoU) has had success in domesticating global gender norms, alongside inconsistencies between policy statements and the ways in which plans are implemented. The 2014 review of Beijing +20 showed that gendered laws have been established, thereby legitimizing the work of gender advocates amongst Parliamentarians and CSOs. The 1995 Constitution that prohibits laws and traditions against women's dignity, and upon which the 1997 National Gender Policy was reformulated in 2007 (UNDP, 2014:7).

Government put in place affirmative action to ring fence certain positions for women, but it is evident that many women remain victims of male chauvinism where some men still believe that they cannot be led by women. The result has been constant "friction" between women and men in higher positions where the latter all the time look for faults either technical or administrative to justify the failure on the part of the woman leader or manager. The problem is that some women have also responded by evoking similar sentiments which has worsened the situation in some agencies.

### **(c) Root causes, barriers, drivers and challenges for Gender Equality**

The key ones include the following:-

- ❖ Women generally have limited access to resources compared to their male counterparts to finance election campaigns. This is a result of limited ownership of capital assets such as land, physical infrastructure, highly positioned networks and sound financial base. This limits their capacity to compete for the direct seats with men (MoGLSD, 2014)
- ❖ Social cultural biases against women in politics have hampered their rate of transition from the affirmative action seats to compete for the direct seats which are open to both sexes (MoGLSD, 2014:4)
- ❖ Women in management, leadership and other positions of decision making in business communities, academia, parliament, and organizations continue to face challenges, and these include:
  - Balancing work and family obligations; Many women workers and other leaders still bear the brunt of housework and child-rearing, noting how female leaders (MPs) repeatedly voiced their frustration that gender roles in the private sphere have not changed at the same speed roles of women in the public sphere have.

- Common issues include age-old gender stereotypes. Traditionally, management, running a business and decision-making in the public arena was viewed as the domains of men. These norms have also informed educational curriculum and recruitment and promotion policies for many decades

#### (d) Summary of Critical Observations, Implications and Gender Concerns

The key gender concerns from the evidence in terms of real impact on the ground and the implications for the gender equality agenda are highlighted under Box 7.2

##### **Box 7.2: Critical observations, implications and gender concerns on National Leadership and Governance**

- General misconception of gender to mean women. This has negatively affected financing gender programmes for instance; many technical officers across MDAs assume that gender issues have specific budgets e.g. women's day activities yet financing gender equality requires mind set change which is a long term activity.
- Shrinkage of political space for CSOs operations arising out of mistrust of CSOs by government. The critical issue is that CSOs have seemingly out competed government in service delivery particularly health and education. This has created bad blood including perceiving CSOs as opposition aligned.
- While there has been improvement in women's participation in decision making at the national level (especially parliament and cabinet), the benefits have not cascaded at the grass-root level as evidenced in persistent high levels of domestic violence that is heavily skewed towards women; dominance of men's access to productive resources; land grabbing that has heavily affected widows, rural poor women; and rampant poverty among women.
- Among critical challenges include balancing "public and gender roles" and being a leader and "a good wife".
- The efficacy of affirmative action is being questioned given the reportedly dominance of a few women in positions of leadership and governance to the detriment of others who also need to participate.

**Source: Parliament of Uganda, June, 2018; Public Finance Management Act, 2015**

## 7.4 Public Sector Management

This section focuses on the comparative participation of women and men at decision making levels in the public sector.

### (a) Situation and Trends

Through several affirmative action policies, women have seen major gains in local and national representation in recent years. However, it is still not commensurate with their numbers. Women's participation in public administration and its decision making spaces has continued to be less than that for men (WOUGNET, 2015:35). Table 7.4 presents the gender disaggregated numbers of women and men at decision making levels in public service as of 2013.

**Table 7.4 Gender Composition in Decision Making Positions in Public Service**

| Position              | Male | Female | Total | Percent Female |
|-----------------------|------|--------|-------|----------------|
| Permanent Secretaries | 23   | 8      | 31    | 25.8           |
| Directors             | 21   | 11     | 32    | 34.4           |
| Deputy Directors      | 4    | 4      | 8     | 50.0           |
| Commissioners         | 93   | 23     | 116   | 19.8           |
| Deputy Commissioners  | 12   | 7      | 19    | 36.8           |

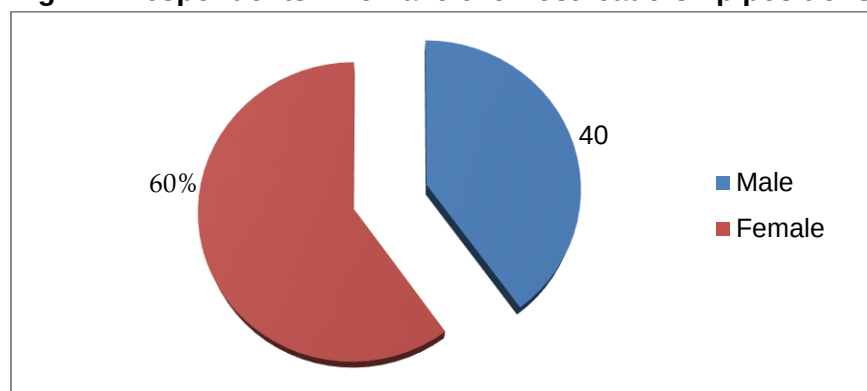
| Position                      | Male | Female | Total | Percent Female |
|-------------------------------|------|--------|-------|----------------|
| Assistant Commissioners       | 161  | 48     | 209   | 23.0           |
| Under Secretaries             | 19   | 12     | 31    | 38.7           |
| Chief Administrative Officers | 64   | 6      | 70    | 8.6            |
| Town Clerks                   | 13   | 1      | 14    | 7.1            |
| Registrars                    | 14   | 4      | 18    | 22.2           |
| Deputy CAO                    | 93   | 11     | 104   | 10.6           |

**Source: Office of Auditor General Report 2013; MoGLSD, 2014:33 (Beijing Platform for Action Report, 2014)**

It is evident from the Table 7.4 that women's participation in senior management in governance is significantly limited, with gender parity yet to be attained. While progress has no doubt been made, job allocation in public service at senior level is still significantly skewed towards men. From table 4 the only position where gender parity is attained is among deputy directors of government agencies. Only 34% of women are directors compared to their male counterparts, and this is compounded at assistant commissioner levels where only 48 out of 209 officers are female (23%). Among town clerks and Chief administrative officers, only 7.1% and 8.6% of officers are female, leaving a huge gender gap in local government administration in the upper echelon of district and town leadership. Among district council chairpersons only one substantive chairperson is a woman.

An analysis of staff levels done on Uganda's Public Service, both national and local Public service (MPS Payroll Monitoring Unit as Extracted from Circular No 2 of 2011.), 67% of all public employees are men and only 33% are women. The Uganda Gender Policy (UGP) of 2007 also states that women constituted 17.4%, of permanent secretaries, heads of department and divisions in the civil service whereas men account for 82.6% (WOUGNET, 2015:37). According to other available evidence, the gender composition at the various levels in the Public Service as of March 2011 were as follows in Salary Scale:- Senior Management (U1) 808 people with 78% men and 22% female; Middle Management (U2-U3) had 4,180 employees and 84% of the were men and 16% women; Graduate and Diploma Entry Level (U4-U5) were 59,973 employees with 72%men and 28% women; and the Lower Level (U6-U8) 206,893 employees with 65% men and 35% women. This came to a total of 271,854 employees of which 67% were men and 33% women. Moreover, men tend to occupy most of the high paying managerial jobs and, as a result, earn higher wages (WOUGNET, 2015:37). Indeed, the gender assessment survey 2018 revealed that 60% of the women lost leadership positions because of gender. Figure 7.2 shows the results of the survey.

**Fig 7.2: Respondents who have ever lost leadership positions**



**Source: Gender assessment survey, 2018**

The implications from the foregoing are that women are highly marginalized as they occupy low level positions with correspondingly low remuneration; hence, are unable to accumulate income. This has constrained their participation in competitive politics<sup>28</sup> and business. The latter requires earnings that guarantee both disposable income and significant savings for investment.

#### **(b) Initiatives, programmes, successes and achievements**

These include:-

- ❖ Under the 1995 Constitution, Government enacted the affirmative action policy which provides for a minimum 30% inclusion of women (The Uganda Constitution, 1995). As indicated earlier, this has brought more women into key government positions (UWONET, 2015:10). Through several affirmative action policies, women have seen major gains in local and national representation in recent years.
- ❖ The Government also pursued sustained policies promoting women's full and equal participation in decision making in all areas of public, political and professional life. This was affirmed by the Assessment Report of Affirmative Action Initiatives and Strategies for Promoting Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment in Uganda (GoU-SDGEA, 2017:19).

#### **(c) Root causes, barriers, drivers and challenges for Gender Equality in leadership and governance**

- Most critical are cultural biases in employment, lack of qualifications and skills given the already marginalized position of women in education/ training particularly science disciplines, low self-confidence and often stalled career progression arising out of reproductive and family productive roles.
- The implication is low representation of women at higher levels of public sector management. But more critical also, there were complaints that the few women that are employed at higher levels in public sector institutions have not fully helped their marginalized and low positioned counterparts to climb the ladder in the public sector structures.

<sup>28</sup> Currently politics in Uganda have become highly commercialized; hence competing for political positions requires significant resource outlay.

#### **(d) Summary of Critical Observations, Implications and Gender Concerns**

The key points to note from the evidence in terms of real impact on the ground and the implications for the gender equality agenda are highlighted under Box 7.1.

##### **Box 7.3: Critical observations, implications and gender concerns in Public Sector Management**

- While there has been improvement in women's participation at decision making levels in the public sector, their numbers are still grossly below men.
- Moreover the influence of women in parliament, ministerial positions and other senior postings within government especially how it translate to improving the position of other women at local levels remains to be seen. Beneficiaries have been very few highly educated women occupying high positions but whose benefits are yet to be felt on the ground. The explanation is that there has been lack of role modeling / limited reach out to rural populace which has discounted potential benefits from highly placed women to cascade down.
- The most critical challenges include cultural bias in education and training of a girl child, stalled career progression due to gender roles at household level and resource, patriarchal and institutional constraints to compete in elective politics, which is the basis for offices such as cabinet ministers.

**Source: Parliament of Uganda. June. 2018: Public Finance Management Act .2015**

#### **(e) Best practices for gender equality in leadership and governance**

There are a number of good practices that need to be adopted and scaled up for accelerating gender equality. These include:

##### **1. Certificate of Gender Equity Compliance.**

This is a requirement for all MDAs to engender their budgets so as to address gender imbalances in their sectors. Available evidence indicates that MoES, MoH and MoGLSD have outperformed other MDAs in this regard with the MoGLSD taking the lead.

2. Affirmative action on district women MPs and 30% of women councilors in LGs are commendable as they have enhanced women's visibility in governance. Although there is still significant grounds to gain in equality in representation in governance the gains made should only be enhanced.

It is commendable that women LC V chairpersons have indeed increased from Only 1 (one) to 3 (Three) though this is still far from the expected. Furthermore, it is impressive that women in Karamoja sub region have broken the barriers and many competed and won LC I elections.

#### **7.5 Recommendations**

- The government and civil society should take action to transform political cultures that discriminate women, make politics all-inclusive by enlarging the socio-political space, dismantling institutional barriers to women's participation and thereby creating a more transparent, accountable and sensitive space to the needs and concerns of women, partly in fulfillment of Objective (VI) of the National Objectives and Principles of State Policy on gender balance and fair representation of marginalized groups. This recommendation

requires a more sustained effort involving different categories of stakeholders: public sector, private sector, civil society, the media, and the development community.

- Strategically engage, mobilize and empower women of various categories of the socio-political ladders to participate in political leadership and engage (hold) the state and their communities in nation building should be carried out, for women to know and understand the importance and impact of their participation. As political leaders, women are role models for other women or younger women to aspire to run for political office as well. Increased women's participation in leadership positions across the lower local and higher local government present an important networking opportunity and the building of a critical constituency mass to further widen the space for women participation and promotion of women's rights.
- The percentage of women in public sector management positions should be increased where the positions are appointive, through more strategic affirmative action at senior management level. This is not to say that any women should be appointed, but only those that meet the basic criteria and have excelled in interviews and recruitment process. .
- Women should be affirmatively encouraged to undertake career development as a basis for promotion and appointment to top positions. This is because these positions are technical, require knowledge, skills, experience and career progression all which cannot be easily achieved with in the current social cultural environment that relegates women to domestic realm.
- Need for increased openness among CSOs and government in funding programmes and activity execution. This can be achieved through shared MoU, Work plans, organizational profiles and joint activity implementation.

## **7.6 Areas for future research on gender integration in development**

- 1) Gender Inclusivity in oil and Gas sector and undertakings
- 2) National and comparative study on reasons for low women success in local council and parliamentary elections.
- 3) How women cope with multiple demands and roles in an ultra-busy urban environment
- 4) An exploratory study on the role of culture and patriarchy in attainment of gender equity
- 5) Gender Dynamics among women living in refugee Settlements in Uganda

## **7.7 Conclusion**

The major conclusion from the study is that progress has been made in bringing women policy agenda to the limelight, but much remains to be done to actualize gender equity and parity in the Country. The recognition of the need to engender all aspects of development (education, health, water and sanitation, industry, defense, environment, governance, economic growth among others) as a precursor for equitable and sustainable development benchmarking is widespread.

Indeed, progress has been made in accessibility to health care as defined by key health development indicators such as IMR, MMR and presence of health personnel, drug stock outs among others. However, Uganda was not able to meet many of the MDG targets in health including reversing the spread of HIV/AIDs and much lower reduced MMR. Proportion of health worker-assisted delivery, utilization of contraceptive and health indicators remains significantly and inexcusably low despite the increased budgetary allocations. Uganda has also not attained the 15% budgetary allocation for health as per the Abuja declaration. Countries such as Rwanda and Kenya posts better health indicators compared to Uganda, and HIV/AIDS has stagnated at 5.9% (with women generally more affected across all age categories) unlike regional countries where this figure is much lower. This clearly indicates that much more still needs to be done to enhance delivery of health service and attainment of better health for women.

Similarly, the study suggests that in education, Uganda has made much progress in the attainment of equity in enrolment in primary education, and an enhanced access to both secondary and tertiary institutions. However, enrolment in pre-primary remains a challenge, with many children unable to access early child hood development. Also, retention of pupils and students especially at the higher primary level and secondary school remains a major challenge with drop out reaching 50% or more in many cases. In all these situation girls constitute the greatest proportion of the number dropping out, with menstrual hygiene issues undermining girls retention in school. In the productive sector, women bear the brunt of production work at household level including family upbringing which seriously undermine their capacity to participate in other programs and activities. In spite of affirmative action women's participation in governance remains low, albeit much better than the 1980s.

The key implications is that the strategy for attaining the expected gender outcomes needs to be rethought as the gains from development programming has not yet effectively reached women or transformed them politically, socially or economically. Another implication of the findings is that advocacy appears to have fizzled out impact wise. There is need to refocus the gender agenda from advocacy to addressing culture and patriarchy through real strategic programmes that touches the core of these issues, and influence stakeholder attitudes.

## References

1. ACF (2014): "*Lessons from Northern Uganda in Addressing Gender Based Violence*". A report on Action against Hunger (ACF's) Cash Transfer Programme in Northern Uganda. Action against Hunger, Uganda.
2. ACFODE (2009): "*Sexual and Gender Based Violence in Uganda: Experiences of Sexual Violence among Women and Girls in Pallisa and Kisoro Districts*". Baseline Survey report. Action for Development (ACFODE), Kampala, Uganda.
3. AFIDEP (2016): "*Shaping Africa's Future through Evidence –Informed Politics*". Annual Report, African Institute for Development Policy (AFDE), Nairobi, Kenya.
4. Amanda, E., C. Manuel, & C. M. Blackden (2006): "*Gender and Economic Growth in Uganda: Unleashing the Power of Women*". Directions in Development Series. The World Bank, Washington D.C.
5. Angeles, M.B (2012): "*Combating Gender-Based Violence and Enhancing Economic Empowerment of Women in Northern Uganda through Cash Transfers*". External Evaluation Report commissioned by Action against Hunger | ACF International and Funded by the Royal Norwegian Embassy. Kampala
6. AU-Maputo Protocol (2003): "*Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa*". The Maputo Protocol, African Union (AU), Maputo.
7. AU-SDGEA (2004): "*African Union Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (2004)*". African Union (AU), Addis Ababa.
8. Bategeka L. (2013): "*Tackling Inequality in Uganda*". Economic Policy Research Centre (EPRC), Makerere University, Kampala.
9. BPFA - Beijing (1995): "*Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action*". Declaration by the Fourth World Conference on Women (4-15 September 1995). Beijing Platform for Action (BPFA). Beijing.
10. CEWIGO (2017): "*Deepening Advocacy on Women Peace and Security*". A CSO monitoring report on the implementation of the National Action Plan (NAP) for UNSCR 1325 & 1820 and the Goma Declaration in Uganda. Centre for Women in Governance (CEWIGO), Kampala, Uganda.
11. Combaz, E. (2013). "*Women's and Girls' Benefits From Market-Oriented Agriculture in Uganda*". A GSDRC helpdesk research report 998. Birmingham, UK: GSDRC, University of Birmingham.
12. CSBAG (2012): "*Making the Education Sector Budget Pro-Poor and Gender Responsive*". Position paper on the Education Sector FY 2012/13). Civil Society Budget Advocacy Group (CSBAG). Kampala.
13. DFID & Irish Aid (2014): "*Gender Equality in Uganda*". A situation analysis and scoping report for the Gender Development Partners Group. Commissioned by Department for International Development (DFID) & Irish Aid. Conducted by Coffey IDL, Berkshire UK.
14. DIIS (2013): "*Land Administration, Gender Equality and Development Cooperation: Lessons Learned and Challenges Ahead*". Report of the Research and Communication Programme (ReCom) on international development cooperation. Danish Institute for International Studies (DIIS) ReCom publication; Copenhagen.

15. EAC (2016): *"The East African Community Gender Equality and Development Bill 2016"*. The East Africa Community Bills Supplement to the EAC Gazette No.1 of 8<sup>th</sup> Jan 2016. East Africa Community (EAC), Arusha.
16. EASSI (2015): *"20 Years of Advocating for Women's Rights in Eastern Africa"*. Report by the Eastern African Sub-regional Support Initiative for the Advancement of Women (EASSI), 2015. Kampala.
17. EASSI (2016): *"The East Africa Community Gender Equality and Development (GED) Pilot Barometer"*. The Eastern African Sub-regional Support Initiative for the Advancement of Women (EASSI). Kampala.
18. EASSI (2017): *"Policy Brief on Gender Equality in the East Africa Community"*. Extracted from the EAC Gender Barometer, 2016. The Eastern African Sub-regional Support Initiative for the Advancement of Women (EASSI). Kampala.
19. EOC (2014): *"Annual Report on the State of Equal Opportunities in Uganda 2010/11-2012/2013"*. Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC), Kampala.
20. EPRC (2013): *"Unlocking Barriers to Financial Inclusion"*. Uganda 2013 FinScope III survey report findings conducted under the Economic Policy Research Centre (EPRC), Makerere University, Kampala.
21. FIDH & FHRI (2012): *"Women's rights in Uganda: Gaps between Policy and Practice"*. Assessment report on the measures taken in Uganda to implement the CEDAW Committee recommendations. International Federation for Human Rights (FIDH) / Foundation for Human Rights Initiative (FHRI); Paris.
22. FOWODE (2010): *"Equal by Right: The Uganda Women's Agenda 2010 - 2016"*. Forum for Women in Democracy (FOWODE), Kampala.
23. FOWODE (2012): *"Gender Policy Brief for Uganda's Agriculture Sector"*. A policy advocacy brief developed by FOWODE with support from the UN Joint Programme on Gender Equality. Forum for Women and Democracy (FOWODE), Kampala.
24. ICRW (2011): *"Gender Land and Asset Survey: Uganda"*. A study report. International Centre for Research on Women (ICRW); Washington, D.C.
25. IDRC (2012): *"Women's Economic Empowerment and the Care Economy - A Scoping Study of the Literature"*. International Development Research Centre (IDRC); Canada.
26. IFC (2008): *"Banking on Women in Business: DFCU Group Uganda"*. Creating Opportunities for Women - A Client Case Study. International Finance Corporation (IFC), Washington DC.
27. ILO & Irish Aid (2008): *"Voices of Women Entrepreneurs in Uganda"*. International Labour Organization (ILO) & Irish Aid. Kampala.
28. ILO (2012): *"Decent Work Country Programme 2013- 2017"*. International Labour Organization (ILO). Kampala
29. InterMedia (2017): *"Financial Inclusion Insights"*. Uganda Wave4 Report FII Tracker Survey. Inter Media Africa, Nairobi.
30. JLOS (2011): *"Uganda Justice, Law and Order Sector (JLOS): Participatory Gender Audit"*. Final Report of the participatory gender audit of the Justice, Law and Order Sector (JLOS) of Uganda. Funded by the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment (UN WOMEN) upon request of JLOS. Justice, Law and Order Sector. Kampala.

31. JLOS (2015): *“Annual Performance Report 2014/15”*. Justice, Law and Order Sector (JLOS), Kampala.
32. JLOS (2017a): *“Annual Performance Report 2016/17”*. Justice, Law and Order Sector (JLOS), Kampala.
33. JLOS (2017b): *“Sector Development Plan (SDP IV) 2017-2020”*. Justice, Law and Order Sector (JLOS), Kampala.
34. Judiciary (2012): *“Judiciary Gender Policy and Strategy: Attaining Gender Equality in Access and Treatment by the Judiciary”*. The Judiciary of the Republic of Uganda, Kampala.
35. Judiciary (2016): *“The Gender Bench Book: Women’s Access to Justice in Uganda”*. 1<sup>st</sup> Edition. Published by The Judiciary with support from the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women) and funded by the Embassy of Sweden. The Judiciary of the Republic of Uganda, Kampala.
36. Kasirye I (2011): *“Addressing Gender Gaps in the Ugandan Labour Market”*. Policy Brief, Issue No. 12. Economic Policy Research Centre (EPRC), Makerere University, Kampala.
37. Kasirye I. (2012): *“Economic Costs of Domestic Violence in Uganda”*. A report of a study commissioned by the Center for Domestic Violence Prevention (CEDOVIP) and funded by DFID. Kampala.
38. Laws of Uganda (1906): *“The Succession Act 1906 (CAP 162)”*
39. Madanda, A., B. Ngolobe & G., Z. Amuriat (2009): *“Uganda: Violence against Women and Information and Communication Technologies”*. A Paper commissioned as part of the Association for Progressive Communications (APC) & Women Network Support Programme (WNSP) project “Strengthening Women’s Strategic Use of Information and Communications Technologies to Combat Violence against Women & Girls” supported by the MDG3 Fund.
40. MoES (2013): *“National Strategy for Girls’ Education (NSGE) in Uganda (2014 – 2019)”*. Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES); Kampala.
41. MoES (2016): *“Gender in Education Sector Policy”*. Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES); Kampala.
42. MoFPED (2003): *“Information Paper on Changes in Poverty in Uganda 1999/2000-2002/03.”* Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (MoFPED), October 2003, Kampala.
43. MoFPED (2011): *“National Budget Framework Paper FY2011/12 - FY 2015/16”*. A government paper incorporating the medium term macroeconomic plan programmes for social and economic development and the indicative revenue and expenditure framework. Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (MoFPED); Kampala.
44. MoFPED (2016): *“National Budget Framework Paper FY2017/18 - FY 2021/22”*. A government paper incorporating the medium term macroeconomic plan programmes for social and economic development and the indicative revenue and expenditure framework. Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (MoFPED); Kampala.
45. MoFPED (2017a): *“Background to the Budget Fiscal Year 2017/18”*. Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (MoFPED); Kampala.
46. MoFPED (2017b): *“National Strategy for Private Sector Development 2017/18-2021/22”*. Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (MoFPED); Kampala.

47. MoFPED (2017c): *"Budget Speech Financial Year 2017/18"*. Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (MoFPED); Kampala.
48. MoFPED (2018a): *"Background to the Budget Fiscal Year 2018/19"*. Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (MoFPED); Kampala.
49. MoFPED (2018b): *"Budget Speech Financial Year 2018/19"*. Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (MoFPED); Kampala.
50. MoGLSD & MoLG (2005): *"Gender Budgeting Guidelines and Analytical Tools for Lower Local Governments"*. First Edition. Ministry of Gender, Labour & Social Development /Ministry of Local Government; Kampala.
51. MoGLSD (1997): *"The Uganda National Gender Policy, 1997"*. Ministry of Gender, Labour & Social Development; Kampala.
52. MoGLSD (1999): *"The National Action Plan on Women 1999"*. Ministry of Gender, Labour & Social Development; Kampala.
53. MoGLSD (2006). *"The National Equal Opportunities Policy: Equitable Development for Sustainable Creation of Wealth"*. Ministry of Gender, Labour & Social Development; Kampala.
54. MoGLSD (2007a): *"The National Action Plan on Women (2007)"*. Ministry of Gender, Labour & Social Development; Kampala.
55. MoGLSD (2007b): *"The Uganda Gender Policy (2007)"*. Ministry of Gender, Labour & Social Development; Kampala.
56. MoGLSD (2008a). *"The Uganda Action Plan on UN Security Council Resolutions 1325 &1820 and the GOMA Declaration"*. Commitments to address sexual violence against women in armed conflict". Ministry of Gender, Labour & Social Development; Kampala.
57. MoGLSD (2008b): *"National Situational Analysis of Sexual and Gender Based Violence and its Impact on Increased Vulnerability of Women to HIV /AIDs in Uganda (2008)"*. Ministry of Gender, Labour & Social Development; Kampala.
58. MoGLSD (2011): *"The Social Development Sector Strategic Investment Plan (SDIP 2) 2011/12 – 2015/16"*; A sector plan on accelerating social transformation through promoting employment and the rights of the vulnerable and marginalized". Ministry of Gender, Labour & Social Development; Kampala.
59. MoGLSD (2014a): *"National Report on Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action (1995) and the Outcome of the Twenty Third Special Session of the United Nations General Assembly (2000)"*. A progress report in the Context of the 20th Anniversary of the Fourth World Conference on Women and the Adoption of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action 2015. Ministry of Gender, Labour & Social Development; Kampala.
60. MoGLSD (2014b): *"Uganda Woman"*. Women & Urbanization Magazine, Issue 5, October 2014. Ministry of Gender, Labour & Social Development; Kampala.
61. MoGLSD (2015): *"Standard Operating Procedures (SOP) for the National Gender Based Violence Database (NGBVD)"*. Ministry of Gender, Labour & Social Development; Kampala.
62. MoGLSD (2016a): *"National Action Plan on Elimination of Gender Based Violence Uganda (2016-2011)"*. Ministry of Gender, Labour & Social Development; Kampala.
63. MoGLSD (2016b): *"The National Roadmap on the Year of the Family 2017 in Uganda"*. Ministry of Gender, Labour & Social Development; Kampala.

64. MoGLSD (2016c): *“National Elimination of GBV Policy and Action Plan (2016)”*. Ministry of Gender, Labour & Social Development; Kampala.
65. MoGLSD (2016d): *“Social Development Sector Plan (SDSP) 2015/16 -2019/20”*. Ministry of Gender, Labour & Social Development; Kampala.
66. MoH (2014): *“Uganda Family Planning Costed Implementation Plan, 2015-2020”*. Ministry of Health, Kampala.
67. Mugabi E (2014): *“Women entrepreneurship in Uganda: Insights and recommendations”*. International Labour Organization (ILO). Geneva.
68. Nabacwa, M. S., (2001): *“Policies and Practices towards Women's Empowerment: Policy advocacy by Gender focused NGOs and the realities of grassroots women in Uganda”*. Supported by Action Aid Uganda; Kampala.
69. Newman C, Mugisha, M, and Matsiko, C. (2012): *“Uganda Ministry of Health Gender Discrimination and Inequality Analysis Report”*. IntraHealth International, Chapel Hill. August 2012.
70. NPA & UN-JPGE (2012): *“National Planning Authority / United Nations Joint Programme on Gender Equality (NPA/UN-JPGE) and Women's Empowerment”*. Final report on the development of gender responsiveness indicators for education & sports sector; health sector; local government sector; public service sector; environment & natural resources sector; agricultural sector; and the justice law & order sector. National Planning Authority (NPA), Kampala.
71. NPA (2014): *“Harnessing the Demographic Dividend: Accelerating Socioeconomic Transformation in Uganda”*. National Planning Authority (NPA), Kampala.
72. NPA (2015a): *“Implementation Strategy for the Second National Development Plan (2015/16-2019/20)”*. NDPII implementation strategy with annualized outcome and out targets; National Planning Authority (NPA), Kampala.
73. NPA (2015b): *“Monitoring and Evaluation Strategy for the 2<sup>nd</sup> National Development Plan 2015/16-2019/20.”* National Planning Authority (NPA), Kampala.
74. NPA (2015c) *“The Second National Development Plan (NDPII) 2015/16 – 2019/20”*. National Planning Authority (NPA), Kampala.
75. NPA (2016): *“Monitoring and Evaluation for the Second National Development Plan (2015/16-2019/20) with Local Government Level Results Framework”*. National Planning Authority (NPA), Kampala.
76. OAG (2013): *“Report on Government's Efforts to Achieve Gender Equality.”* Office of Auditor General (OAG), Kampala.
77. OECD (2015): *“Uganda SIGI Country Report”*. A report of a study of the social institutions and gender index (SIGI) commissioned by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) supported by the Austrian Development Cooperation (ADC) and conducted by the Uganda Bureau of Statistics. Kampala.
78. Oxfam (2016): *“Who is growing? Ending inequality in Uganda”*. Oxfam Uganda, Kampala
79. Peterman, M., A. Quisumbing, J. Behrman, & E. Nkonya (2010): *“Understanding Gender Differences in Agricultural Productivity in Uganda and Nigeria”*. International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI); Discussion Paper 01003, July 2010.
80. Quisumbing A Et al (2013): *“Closing the Gender Asset Gap: Learning from Value Chain Development in Africa and Asia”*. A paper developed for the UN Foundation and ExxonMobil

Foundation research collaboration on “Building a Roadmap for Women’s Economic Empowerment,” building on ongoing work in the Gender, Agriculture, and Assets Project (GAAP), supported by the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation.

81. Raising Voices & CEDOVIP (2003): *“Impact Assessment: Mobilizing Communities to Prevent Domestic Violence”*. A study report for “Raising Voices and the Center for Domestic Violence Prevention” in Kawempe Division, Kampala. Raising Voices and Center for Domestic Violence Prevention (CEDOVIP), Kampala.
82. Republic of Uganda (1993): *“The National Women’s Council Act (CAP 318)”*
83. Republic of Uganda (1995): *“The Constitution of the Republic of Uganda, 1995”*.
84. Republic of Uganda (1997): *“The Local Governments Act 1997”*
85. Republic of Uganda (2005): *“The Land Act CAP 227(As Amended), 2005”*.
86. Republic of Uganda (2007a): *“The Equal Opportunities Commission Act 2007”*
87. Republic of Uganda (2007b): *“The Penal Code (Amendment) Act, 2007”*. Acts Supplements to the Uganda Gazette, No. 43 Volume C, dated 17th August, 2007.
88. Republic of Uganda (2009a): *“The Marriage and Divorce Bill 2009”*. Kampala.
89. Republic of Uganda (2009b): *“The Prevention of Trafficking In Persons ACT, 2009”*. Acts Supplement to the Uganda Gazette, No. 52 Volume CII, dated 23rd October, 2009.
90. Republic of Uganda (2010a): *“The Domestic Violence Act 2010”*
91. Republic of Uganda (2010b): *“The Prohibition of the Female Genital Mutilation Act 2010”*
92. Republic of Uganda (2011): *“The Domestic Violence Regulations (2011)”*
93. Republic of Uganda (2013): *“Uganda Vision 2040”*. Kampala.
94. GoU-SDGEA (2017): *“Annual Report of the Republic of Uganda on the Implementation of the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa in 2016”*. A Republic of Uganda (RoU) progress tracking annual report on the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (SDGEA); Kampala.
95. GoU-SDGEA (2018): *“Annual Report of the Republic of Uganda on the Implementation of the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa in 2017”*. A Republic of Uganda (RoU) progress tracking annual report on the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (SDGEA); Kampala.
96. Stevenson I, & A. St-Onge (2005): *“Support for Growth-oriented Women Entrepreneurs in Uganda”*. Programme on Boosting Employment through **Small Enterprise Development**, Job Creation, Enterprise Department. International Labour Organization. Geneva and Private Sector Department (OPSD) and African Development Bank (AfDB), Tunis.
97. UBOS (2007): *“Uganda Demographic and Health Survey 2006”*. UDHS 2006 survey report. Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Kampala.
98. UBOS (2012a): *“Health Sector Gender Statistics Profile”*. Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Kampala.
99. UBOS (2012b): *“Agricultural Sector Gender Statistics Profile”*. Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Kampala.
100. UBOS (2012c): *“Justice, Law and Order Sector Gender Statistics Profile”*. Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Kampala.
101. UBOS (2012d): *“Water and Sanitation Sector Gender Statistics Profile”*. Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Kampala.

102. UBOS (2012e): *"Uganda Demographic and Health Survey Kampala, Uganda 2011"*. Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Kampala.
103. UBOS (2012f): *"Education Sector Gender Statistics Profile"*. Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Kampala
104. UBOS (2013): *"Uganda Facts and Figures on Gender"*. Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Kampala.
105. UBOS (2014): *"Uganda National Household Survey 2012/13"*. UNHS 2012/13 survey report. Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Kampala.
106. UBOS (2015): *"2015 Statistical Abstract"*. Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Kampala.
107. UBOS (2016a): *"National Population and Housing Census 2014"*. Main Report. Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Kampala.
108. UBOS (2016b): *"2016 Statistical Abstract"*. Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Kampala.
109. UBOS (2016c): *"National Priority Gender Equality Indicators (NPGEIs) 2016: Illuminating the path towards Gender Equality in Uganda"*. Uganda Bureau of Statistics; Kampala.
110. UBOS (2017a): *"Education: A Means for Population Transformation"*. Education Monograph based on 2014 census; Thematic Report Series. Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Kampala.
111. UBOS (2017b): *"2017 Statistical Abstract"*. Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Kampala.
112. UBOS (2017c): *"Women and Men in Uganda Facts and Figures 2016"*. Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Kampala.
113. UBOS (2017d): *"Uganda Demographic and Health Survey"*. UDHS 2016 survey report. Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Kampala.
114. UBOS (2017e): *"Uganda National Household Survey 2016/17"*. UNHS 2016/17 main report. Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Kampala.
115. UBOS (2017f): *"Uganda National Household Survey 2016/17"*. UNHS 2016/17 PowerPoint final presentation. Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Kampala.
116. UBOS (2017g): *"National Governance, Peace and Security (NGPS)"* Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), Kampala.
117. ULRC (2017): *"The Marriage Bill, 2017"*. Uganda Law Reform Commission (ULRC), Kampala.
118. UN (2010): *"World's Women 2010"*. UN Statistics Division, United Nations, New York.
119. UN CEDAW (1979): *"Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)"*. Adopted and opened for signature, ratification and accession by General Assembly resolution 34/180 of 18 December 1979 entry into force 3 September 1981, in accordance with article 27(1)." United Nations, New York.
120. UN CEDAW Committee (2009): *"Combined 4th, 5th, 6th & 7th periodic reports on the implementation of CEDAW in Uganda"*. Committee Consideration of reports submitted by States parties under article 18 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women; United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW/C/UGA/4-7). United Nations, New York.
121. UN CEDAW Committee (2010): *"Concluding observations of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women"*. Committee on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), Forty-seventh session, 4 - 22 October 2010. United Nations, New York.

122. UNDP (2014): *“Uganda Gender Strategy 2014-2017”*. United Nations Development Programme (UNDP); Kampala.
123. UNDP (2015): *“Uganda Country Gender Assessment October 2015.”* United Nations Development Programme (UNDP); Kampala.
124. UNDP (2016): *“United Nations Development Assistance Framework for Uganda, 2016 – 2020”*. UNDAF Uganda 2016 – 2020; United Nations Development Programme (UNDP); Kampala.
125. UNDP (2017): *“Promoting Gender Equality and Women Empowerment: Our Journey 1988 – 2017”*. United Nations Development Programme (UNDP); Kampala.
126. UNFPA (2012): *“The State of Uganda Population Report 2012. Uganda at 50 years: Population and Service Delivery; Challenges, Opportunities and Prospects”*. United Nations Population Fund; Kampala.
127. UNFPA (2016): *“UNFPA-Uganda Annual Report 2016.”* United Nations Population Fund; Kampala.
128. UN-JPGBV (2014): *“UN Joint Programme on Gender Based Violence Uganda”*. End of project report for April 2011 to June 2014. UN Joint Programme on Gender Based Violence (UN-JPGBV). Kampala.
129. UN-JPGBV (2015): *“Bridging Phase”*. Reporting Period January 2015-December 2015. A report on the UN Joint Programme on Gender Based Violence (UN-JPGBV). Kampala.
130. UN-JPGBV (2016): *“Bridging Phase”*. Reporting Period January 2016-December 2016. A report on the UN Joint Programme on Gender Based Violence (UN-JPGBV). Kampala.
131. UWONET (2015): *“A Civil Society Gender Issues’ Paper Towards the Second National Development Plan (II) 2015/16–2019/20: Proposed Priorities and Interventions”*. A policy advocacy paper under the NPA - UN Joint Programme on Gender Equality. Uganda Women’s Network (UWONET); Kampala.
132. UWONET (2015): *“Getting the Unfinished Business onto the Political Agenda”*. Annual Report 2015; Uganda Women’s Network (UWONET); Kampala.
133. UWONET (2017): *“Facts in the Marriage Bill, 2017”*. Uganda Women’s Network (UWONET); Kampala.
134. UWONET, CEWIGO, FOWODE, ACFODE & WDN – UG (2016): *“National Women’s Manifesto 2016 to 2021”*. Kampala.
135. Wodon, Q, C. Male, A. Onagoruwa, A. Savadogo, & A. Yedan. (2017): *“The Cost of not Investing in Girls. Child Marriage, Early Childbearing, Low Education Attainment for Girls and their Impacts in Uganda “*. Washington DC. The World Bank.
136. World Bank (2014): *“Gender, Economic Productivity and Development in Uganda: Recent Evidence and Policy Conclusions”*. A paper produced to feed into Uganda’s National Policy Dialogue session on May 20 2014. Africa Region Gender Innovation Lab.
137. WOUGNET (2015): *“Final Report for the GEKS Uganda National Assessment”*. Gender Equality in Knowledge Society Research 2015. Women of Uganda Network (WOUGNET); Kampala.

# Annex I : Summary of the key findings

| Sub-Region    | District  | % owning of land |    | % carrying out activities on their land |    | % cont. to HH income by wife | % Ownership of bank account |    | % Conflict over health service use |    | % missed jobs for gender rns |    | Most Source of info on GBV |   | % Experienced GBV |    | % Reporting GBV |     | % missed leadership because of gender |    |
|---------------|-----------|------------------|----|-----------------------------------------|----|------------------------------|-----------------------------|----|------------------------------------|----|------------------------------|----|----------------------------|---|-------------------|----|-----------------|-----|---------------------------------------|----|
|               |           | M                | F  | M                                       | F  |                              | M                           | F  | M                                  | F  | M                            | F  | M                          | F | M                 | F  | M               | F   | M                                     | F  |
| South Central | Lwengo    | 75               | 25 | 47                                      | 53 | 50.2                         | 68                          | 32 | 45                                 | 55 | 60                           | 40 | Radio                      |   | 36                | 64 | 00              | 100 | 55                                    | 45 |
|               | Rakai     | 75               | 25 | 58                                      | 42 | 45.5                         | 59                          | 41 | 42                                 | 58 | 30                           | 40 | com. group                 |   | 40                | 60 | 21              | 79  | 50                                    | 50 |
| North Central | Kayunga   | 71               | 29 | 27                                      | 73 | 68.1                         | 60                          | 40 | 10                                 | 90 | 37                           | 63 | Radio                      |   | 36                | 64 | 15              | 85  | 67                                    | 33 |
|               | Mityana   | 80               | 20 | 56                                      | 44 | 51.0                         | 64                          | 36 | 15                                 | 85 | 25                           | 75 | Radio                      |   | 29                | 71 | 25              | 75  | 52                                    | 48 |
| Kampala       | Kampala   | 76               | 24 | 43                                      | 57 | 48.7                         | 58                          | 42 | 27                                 | 73 | 36                           | 64 | Radio                      |   | 37                | 63 | 25              | 75  | 51                                    | 49 |
| Busoga        | Bugiri    | 72               | 28 | 43                                      | 57 | 30.7                         | 76                          | 24 | 40                                 | 60 | 30                           | 70 | Friends                    |   | 39                | 61 | 25              | 75  | 25                                    | 75 |
|               | Kaliro    | 80               | 20 | 65                                      | 35 | 32.0                         | 70                          | 30 | 05                                 | 95 | 00                           | 00 | com. group                 |   | 35                | 65 | 33              | 67  | 35                                    | 65 |
| Bukedi        | Pallisa   | 93               | 07 | 63                                      | 37 | 28.3                         | 67                          | 33 | 33                                 | 67 | 12                           | 78 | Radio                      |   | 46                | 54 | 40              | 60  | 38                                    | 62 |
| Bugisu        | Kapchorwa | 95               | 05 | 56                                      | 44 | 28.1                         | 72                          | 28 | 25                                 | 75 | 00                           | 00 | Radio                      |   | 40                | 60 | 60              | 40  | 40                                    | 60 |
| Teso          | Amuria    | 87               | 13 | 60                                      | 40 | 27.9                         | 65                          | 35 | 18                                 | 82 | 00                           | 00 | Friends                    |   | 38                | 62 | 27              | 73  | 32                                    | 68 |
| Karamoja      | Kaabong   | 92               | 08 | 70                                      | 30 | 28.7                         | 97                          | 03 | 21                                 | 79 | 00                           | 00 | Friends                    |   | 28                | 72 | 23              | 77  | 45                                    | 55 |
| Lango         | Dokolo    | 78               | 22 | 65                                      | 35 | 28.2                         | 81                          | 19 | 03                                 | 97 | 33                           | 67 | Radio                      |   | 38                | 62 | 41              | 59  | 33                                    | 67 |
| Acholi        | Gulu      | 81               | 19 | 51                                      | 49 | 35.1                         | 60                          | 40 | 23                                 | 77 | 35                           | 65 | Radio                      |   | 46                | 54 | 33              | 67  | 35                                    | 65 |
| West Nile     | Nebbi     | 77               | 23 | 67                                      | 33 | 30.3                         | 67                          | 33 | 14                                 | 86 | 18                           | 82 | Radio                      |   | 42                | 58 | 21              | 79  | 25                                    | 75 |
|               | Maracha   | 75               | 25 | 50                                      | 50 | 36.7                         | 70                          | 30 | 09                                 | 91 | 23                           | 77 | Radio                      |   | 39                | 61 | 35              | 65  | 42                                    | 58 |
| Bunyoro       | Bulisa    | 71               | 29 | 48                                      | 52 | 48.6                         | 72                          | 28 | 27                                 | 73 | 25                           | 75 | com. group                 |   | 28                | 62 | 27              | 73  | 41                                    | 59 |
| Tooro         | Kyenjojo  | 88               | 12 | 64                                      | 46 | 54.7                         | 67                          | 33 | 10                                 | 90 | 33                           | 67 | com. group                 |   | 41                | 59 | 29              | 71  | 30                                    | 70 |
| Kigezi        | Kisoro    | 89               | 11 | 58                                      | 42 | 37.8                         | 60                          | 40 | 33                                 | 67 | 30                           | 70 | com. group                 |   | 42                | 58 | 50              | 50  | 38                                    | 62 |

| Sub-Region | District | % owning of land |    | % carrying out activities on their land |    | % cont. to HH income by wife | % Ownership of bank account |    | % Conflict over health service use |    | % missed jobs for gender rns |    | Most Source of info on GBV |   | % Experienced GBV |    | % Reporting GBV |    | % missed leadership because of gender |    |
|------------|----------|------------------|----|-----------------------------------------|----|------------------------------|-----------------------------|----|------------------------------------|----|------------------------------|----|----------------------------|---|-------------------|----|-----------------|----|---------------------------------------|----|
|            |          | M                | F  | M                                       | F  |                              | M                           | F  | M                                  | F  | M                            | F  | M                          | F | M                 | F  | M               | F  | M                                     | F  |
| Ankole     | Bushenyi | 68               | 32 | 50                                      | 50 | 59.3                         | 63                          | 47 | 50                                 | 50 | 25                           | 75 | Radio                      |   | 33                | 67 | 10              | 90 | 37                                    | 63 |
|            | Ibanda   | 77               | 23 | 50                                      | 50 | 46.7                         | 64                          | 36 | 43                                 | 57 | 50                           | 50 | Radio                      |   | 40                | 60 | 30              | 70 | 25                                    | 75 |
| General    | Total    | 80               | 20 | 50                                      | 50 | 46.7                         | 68                          | 32 | 28                                 | 72 | 41                           | 59 | Radio                      |   | 34                | 66 | 38              | 62 | 41                                    | 59 |