

BEST AVAILABLE COPY

ENTIRE DOCUMENT

17N-11A12-613

16W-3768-1

Best: Chuck Groder in Uganda is very receptive to game parks rehabilitation, & I've given him some ideas in this paper. May be worth following up on. Pat

**Draft Background Paper**

**Community-Level Conditions**

and

**Development Assistance Needs in Uganda**

Patrick Fleuret  
PPC/PDPR/HR  
USAID

February 2, 1980

led 2/11/80

## Acknowledgements

Many people contributed to the writing of this report. Most of them are named in the Appendix, but some deserve special mention. John B. Bulinda, Principal Economist in the Ministry of Planning and Economic Development, organized travel up-country and helped to outline the content of the report. Haldore Hansen, former Director-General of CIMMYT, made painstaking and invaluable comments on early drafts. Donn Weaver and Mrs. Sheila Grader offered the hospitality of their homes.

Especial gratitude is due Professor Peter Rigby, (consultant), who drafted a valuable background paper and who introduced me to Uganda and to Uganda's people.

## Preface

This report was written as a background paper for USAID/Uganda, to assist in the preparation of the FY1982 Country Development Strategy Statement. The purpose of the report is to survey community-level conditions in Uganda, so as to identify segments of the population and sectors of activity most in need of development assistance. In the analysis, the identification of target populations and target sectors takes into account both need for assistance and capacity to contribute to national development.

The "Introduction" presents basic background information about Uganda, analyzes conditions in rural and urban areas, and identifies target groups. Part 2 on "Population Growth" extends the analysis of target groups through an assessment of the impact of <sup>population</sup> growth on development in Uganda; reviews host government awareness of the problem; and outlines possible USAID initiatives. Part 3 on "Small Scale Rural Enterprise" extends the analysis of target groups by reviewing some aspects of current activity in this important sector, and suggests means of stimulating growth. Part 4 on "Women and Youth in Development" <sup>assesses</sup> ~~assess~~ the contribution these elements of the population have to make to

Preface (cont.)

development in Uganda, and sketches ways in which women and youth can be supported in productive enterprise.

Part 5 on "Environment and Energy" reviews forest and woodland resources, with particular emphases on wood for fuel and building materials, and game parks for generation of foreign exchange. Part 6 on "Local Administration" closes the report by outlining some advantages to be gained by capitalizing on district-level administrative resources, and points out important constraints on district-level action.

## Table of Contents

|   |       |
|---|-------|
| preface   | i     |
| 1. Introduction                                 | p. 1  |
| 2. Population Growth                            | p. 12 |
| 3. Small Scale Rural Enterprise                 | p. 21 |
| 4. Women and Youth in Development               | p. 29 |
| 5. Environment and Energy                       | p. 41 |
| 6. Local Administration                         | p. 50 |
| 7. Appendix: Persons Contacted<br>and Itinerary | p. 57 |

## Introduction

Uganda is a land-locked nation, bounded by Sudan, Kenya, Tanzania, Ruanda and Zaire. Most of the country consists of a plateau with elevations varying from 900 to 1500 m. above sea level; distinguishing topographical features include the Ruwenzori Mountains (in the west), the western rift valley, the Mufumbiro Mountains (in the southwest), and the various lake and river systems. Total land area is about 236,000  $\text{KM}^2$ , of which about 42,000  $\text{KM}^2$  are open water or swampland.

Climate and soils combine to make Uganda a productive country. On the whole, soils are fertile when compared to other tropical countries, and only 22% of the land receives less than about 800 mm of rainfall per year.<sup>1</sup> The highest levels of rainfall and the most generally productive soils are found in a crescent area along the east and northeast shore of Lake Victoria; the driest and least productive zone is Karimoja, in the northeast; moderately high productivity is found in western Uganda; while the areas to the north and northwest of Lake Kyoga are somewhat lower in agricultural potential. This of course greatly over-

## Introduction (p. 2)

simplifies the true distribution of rainfall and soil fertility, both of which can vary greatly within the broad regions sketched out here. Nevertheless it is fair to say that the south is generally more favored than the north, and is consequently more densely populated, with a more fully developed infrastructure of roads, industry and government services.

To some extent the geographical and climatic zones outlined here also delineate ethnic and linguistic zones. In the southern part of the country are found Bantu-speaking people who constitute the majority of the population of Uganda, and among whom the Buganda predominate. This area is also largely Christian. In the north are found Nilotic speakers and a few Central Sudanic speakers, who together constitute a minority of the population and among whom Islam is an important religion. Although greatly simplified, this categorization reveals the principal features of the cultural landscape. Much of Uganda's history and some of the nation's recent problems have been influenced by contrasts between the very productive southern parts of

the country and the relatively poor north; these contrasts are emphasized by concomitant ethnic, linguistic and religious variations.

### Poverty in Uganda

Poverty can be defined in many ways; here we focus on some rather simple parameters. In Uganda, smallholders operating at low levels of productivity with consequent reduced levels of material well-being are poor; rural and urban wage earners who are underemployed or whose real incomes are very low are poor; and people dwelling anywhere without access to essential educational and health services are poor. With this in mind we turn to a review of conditions in rural and urban Uganda.

### Conditions in Rural Areas

Uganda is overwhelmingly an agricultural country. Of an estimated total population of about 13 million, only 7% live in towns of over 1,000 people.<sup>2</sup> The contribution of agriculture to national output is difficult to estimate, given recent disruptions and a lack of reliable statistics,

Introduction (p. 4)

but the World Bank calculates that agriculture accounted for some 57% of output in 1978, compared to 36% for services and 7% for industry.<sup>3</sup>

Within the agricultural sector, most production takes place in the context of small scale farms. Nearly all food crops are grown by smallholders, who are also responsible for an estimated 95% of the value of coffee production, 100% of the value of cotton production, 40% of the value of tea production, 100% of the value of tobacco production, and 90% of the value of local cattle production.<sup>4</sup>

In 1965 a national survey concluded that Ugandan smallholders possessed an average of about 2 ha. of land in the fertile areas around Lake Victoria, ranging up to 4 ha. and above in the north where cultivation is necessarily more extensive; in other areas of the south and west smallholders were estimated to have an average of between 2 and 4 ha. of land.<sup>5</sup> These figures probably overstate the amount of land available in 1980, since the expansion of cropland has not kept pace with expansion of population.<sup>6</sup> There are, however, larger landholdings; in the south, particularly in Buganda, there exist farms of 10 to 40 ha. where commercial production (often of grade dairy and beef cattle) takes

place,<sup>7</sup> while holdings of 50 to 100 ha. can be found in the north.<sup>8</sup>

Land is held under a variety of tenure arrangements. The mailo system of tenancy is found over about one-half the area of Buganda, but does not seem to be pernicious in its effects;<sup>9</sup> elsewhere various systems of customary tenure still hold sway, although these have been greatly modified by increasing population density, which in conjunction with the monetization of the rural economy has in many places transformed land into a commodity that can be bought and sold, with an accompanying individualization of tenure. During Amin's time many influential individuals gained control of large amounts of land; rights to these areas are currently in a state of flux.

Labor for the production of food crops is provided largely by family workers,<sup>10</sup> while hired labor is a significant input in the case of other crops such as tea. Smallholders have been hampered to an indeterminate extent by lack of labor; wage rates have not kept pace with the rate of inflation, and so the many immigrant farm workers who formerly entered Uganda from Ruanda and Zaire have dwindled greatly.<sup>11</sup>

Analysis of the rural economy as it currently

## Introduction (p. 6)

operates is constrained by lack of up-to-date data, but it seems clear enough that output of export crops has dropped drastically from previous levels.<sup>12</sup> The picture regarding food crops is less certain. In some places the falling prices of export crops led to expansion in the area of land under food crops, as farmers responded to rising prices for staple foods such as plantains, grains and pulses—most likely this happened only in areas with comparatively easy access to urban or semi-urban markets. Elsewhere a retreat into genuine subsistence production seems to have taken place—caused by lack of availability and high prices of consumer goods, by lack of agricultural inputs of all kinds, as well as by lack of transport and other marketing facilities.

### Conditions in Urban Areas

Perhaps the most appropriate indicators of conditions in urban areas are those related to the cost of living. Table I illustrates.

Introduction (p. 7)

Table 1. Real Returns to Urban Wage Earners. 13

|   | 1970/71 | 1975/76 | 1978 |
|---|---------|---------|------|
| Cost of Living Index<br>(Kampala low-income;<br>1970 = 100) | 100     | 346     | 785  |
| Minimum Wage Index<br>(1970 = 100)                          | 100     | 40      | 20   |

Urban workers responded to these drastic drops in real income in several ways. Many simply left their work and returned to rural areas to take up farming; others whose work was near their homeland were able to stretch their income by farming on a part-time basis to meet basic food needs; others (perhaps most) entered into magendo, or black market, dealings. Here people trade scarce commodities and services which they control for other valued items, or for large sums of money. Magendo has expanded to the point that formal statistics on the performance of the monetary <sup>economy</sup> are virtually meaningless, and a major problem for donors will be to devise ways of bringing aid to Uganda without having it slip into the magendo channels of distribution.

In both rural and urban areas needed government

## Introduction (p. 8)

services have nearly collapsed. Educational facilities have no texts, no exercise books, no chalk; students study and (in the case of boarding schools) sleep on the floor. Many teachers no longer perform their duties; instead they farm to meet basic needs or enter into magendo, perhaps charging high prices for private tutoring. Health facilities are similarly reduced. Even the most basic medicines are only rarely available, and the <sup>Storage</sup> cold chain for distribution of certain medical commodities has in many places broken down. Doctors, nurses and health workers, like teachers, are often engaged in alternative or supplementary pursuits. This absence of services is more apparent in up-country zones than in the urban centers, but it is a serious problem everywhere in the country.

### Definition of Target Groups

It is probably not correct to regard Uganda as a "developing country." Since the early 1970's, and particularly since 1973, Uganda has in fact been "undeveloping" rather rapidly—and it is not yet certain that the trend has been reversed. The causes of Uganda's undevelopment are buried in complex

Introduction (p. 9)

social and historical processes, but the results are fairly obvious. There has been a severe negative impact on both rural and urban elements of the population. Among urban dwellers, particularly those earning wages in unskilled and semi-skilled positions, real incomes have dropped, opportunities for gainful employment have declined, and essential services are no longer available. Similar declines have likely been suffered by many self-employed artisans and owners of small businesses (see section on "Small Scale Rural Enterprise").

Among rural dwellers, particularly those with little land who may have depended on off-farm employment for supplementary earnings, incomes have also dropped. Production and marketing of agricultural commodities among all categories of smallholder have been complicated greatly by lack of inputs and transport, so that money for clothes, school fees and other needed things is difficult to obtain. In sum, these elements of the population in urban and rural areas are those who are currently suffering most from reduced productivity, lack of gainful employment, and lack of access to needed government services.

## Introduction (p. 10)

Those who know Uganda will recognize that this is a rather broad definition of target groups. It overlooks obvious regional disparities, as between the north and the south, or between zones of net out-migration and zones of net in-migration. The definition also takes little account of small but significant differences in well-being that exist at the community level, where a farmer with 3 ha. of land may thrive as his neighbor with only 1 ha. of land suffers. Some attempt to deal with the special problems of the very poor is contained in the pages that follow, but what Uganda needs most is immediate aid to raise productivity and multiply opportunities for gainful employment. This emphasis on productive efficiency rather than distributive equity should not, however, be regarded as an appropriate strategy for long-term national development. Insofar as many of Uganda's current problems can be laid to regional disparities, attempts should be made to redress these; but this is a long-term task. Research and planning to assess and address inequities can begin now, but the first priority is for stability in government and economy, which may best be achieved by raising productivity and increasing employment in the country as a whole.

## Introduction (p. 11)

### Footnotes

1. Area Handbook for Uganda, 1969, p. 14.
2. Commonwealth Secretariat Report, Vol. 2, p. 25.
3. World Bank, "Report and Recommendation..." Annex I, p. 3.
4. Commonwealth Secretariat Report, Vol. 2, p. 27. Smallholders however play no role in the production of grade beef cattle and are responsible for about 25% of the output of the grade dairy cattle industry.
5. Area Handbook for Uganda, 1969, p. 242.
6. FAO Production Yearbook for 1978, p. 47. It appears that land under production has been expanding at something more than 2.0% per annum.
7. Commonwealth Secretariat Report, Vol. 2, p. 37.
8. DAC, Gulu.
9. Commonwealth Secretariats Report, Vol. 2, p. 37.
10. Extra labor may be hired to meet seasonal needs, as at time of harvest.
11. This affects estate production more than smallholder production.
12. Commonwealth Secretariat Report, Vol. 2, p. 44.
13. Commonwealth Secretariat Report, Vol. 2, p. 33.

## Population Growth

In common with other East African countries, Uganda is experiencing a high rate of population growth, currently estimated at about 3.0% per annum. This is related to the circumstance that, while death rates are approximately 16 per 1,000, birth rates are in the neighborhood of 45 per 1,000.

Table 1. Population Growth Rates.<sup>1</sup>

|                    | 1960 | 1974-1977 |
|--------------------|------|-----------|
| Urban <sup>2</sup> | 7.3% | 8.5%      |
| Total              | 2.8% | 3.0%      |

The gross reproduction rate has apparently climbed from 2.6 in 1960 to 3.0 in the most recent estimate, and almost half of the population is under the age of 15.

These figures indicate that Uganda can expect high rates of population growth in the future, although the number of family planning acceptors in the country has climbed from under 4,000 in 1970 to over 16,000 in the mid-1970's.<sup>3</sup>

The evidence regarding current population dynamics

is meager. A recent KAP study carried out by Wandera-Mabaho<sup>4</sup> may shed light on these issues when the data which have been collected are analyzed; also, the national census conducted in January 1980 included questions that will provide much up-to-date demographic data, but it will be some time before this material becomes available.

In any event there can be no doubt that population growth is a factor to be considered in planning for development in Uganda. High growth rates complicate the delivery of essential services in health and education, especially in the urban and peri-urban areas where current rates of increase, compounded by in-migration, are highest. But there are more fundamental problems that arise in the context of agricultural production. Population density per square kilometer of agricultural land has increased from 72.0 in 1960 to 116.0 in the mid-1970's; of course, such aggregate figures mask a great deal of regional variation.<sup>5</sup> In Bugisu and Kigezi, for example, density figures range from 300 to 500 persons per square kilometer, while many other areas such as western Ankole are

relatively lightly settled. Light settlement should not, however, be regarded as an indication that further population growth can be accommodated; rangeland cannot support the densities observed in banana-coffee country.

The Commonwealth Secretariat estimated<sup>6</sup> that by 1981 Busoga, Bukedi, East and West Mengo, Kigezi, Ankole and Masaka districts will have achieved population densities under "high" ... a high proportion of new entrants will be facing problems of access to resources or employment."

When land carrying capacities are approached there are important implications for nutritional status among the poor. In Kabarole District, for instance, malnourished children brought to the nutrition rehabilitation unit come uniformly from the areas of densest settlement, and the reasons for this are not difficult to trace. Land scarcity means that people must plant crops that are highly productive per unit area, and these crops (in Uganda, usually plantains and cassava), although very high in calorie content and calorie production per unit input, are lacking in protein. At present, households with little land<sup>7</sup> may encounter serious difficulties in obtaining access to needed protein. Raising livestock, for instance, can be difficult. Cattle require fodder that may not be

available in sufficient quantity,<sup>8</sup> while the initial investment required is currently quite large (yearlings may cost 2000-4000 US\$). Milk production from relatively inexpensive, disease-resistant local animals is often unsatisfactory, while the more expensive and desirable exotic breeds and exotic-local crosses require regular veterinary attention that has disappeared in the wake of the war. Less demanding small stock such as goats and sheep, as well as poultry and poultry products, are more likely to be accessible to land-poor households; but such households are more likely to regard such resources as a means of increasing income rather than a means of improving consumption patterns. Such items are often sold for cash<sup>9</sup> with which to meet needs for school fees or essential household commodities such as salt, matches, clothes and shoes.

Nor can land-poor households turn to the production of commercial crops to gain income for the purchase of nutritious foods; prices for export commodities like coffee, tea and cotton are currently too low to make such modes of land-use appropriate for those with little

access to land. Although high prices may be had for staple foods like maize, beans and plantains, land-poor households must consume most of what they produce and little remains for income generation. To some extent these problems can be overcome by encouraging the consumption of local sources of vegetable protein, such as cassava leaves and various legumes, <sup>as well as increasing the production of small stock and poultry.</sup> On the other hand it should be recognized that land-poor households that cannot meet essential food needs are in fact probably non-viable production units; it may be possible to do more for the people concerned by encouraging growth in small scale rural enterprise or by assisting the development of Uganda's industrial sector.

The commercial sector is not growing quickly enough to provide productive employment for more than a fraction of the excess rural population, and so the food availability problems generated by rural population growth are likely to worsen in future. This is especially significant, given that important aspects of growth in agricultural output have failed to keep pace with population growth in Uganda in the recent past; from 1960 to the mid-1970's

Population Growth (p. 6)

per-capita supplies of calories declined from 93% of requirements to 90%, while per-capita supplies of protein declined from 56 grams per day to 54. This is somewhat less than a figure calculated by Cleave<sup>10</sup> in the late 1960's of 58 grams per day, but more important than the absolute levels of protein availability is the evidence of a downward supply trend.

Although no official policy on population and family planning has yet been articulated, the government of Uganda is sensitive to the problems that population growth poses for development. Schemes to resettle people from over-crowded areas have been a feature of development policy since before Independence, but such efforts are expensive and very difficult to mount on an adequate scale. Attention has also been given to fertility control. The Family Planning Association of Uganda is funded in part by government, and private voluntary organizations are encouraged to provide advice and some services to volunteering couples. The most favored approach is to integrate family planning services with health education

Population Growth (p. 7)

in the context of combined maternal and child health programs. USAID, the United Nations, and a number of other bilateral and private donor agencies have provided support for a variety of service delivery and research programs; government wishes to revive some of these efforts. The government position is that the public must be made aware of family planning issues through low-key health-related efforts of non-governmental agencies before an official policy can be formulated; this incremental and cautious approach is dictated by political considerations--chiefly an unwillingness on the part of government to alienate the Muslim population.

Efforts to control fertility are long-term in their impact on the development process. Uganda needs immediate aid to increase productivity and improve the delivery of essential public services, in order to cope with the severe problems generated by eight years of military misrule and the war of liberation. Accordingly, USAID Uganda should approach the question of population control indirectly rather than directly. This can be done in two ways: by beginning to plan now for a

significant effort in the population sector in future (perhaps by taking advantage of government expressions of interest in combined MCH-FP facilities); and by taking account of the constellation of issues outlined in AEDTO Circular A-211 on 104(d) considerations.

Although the current need is for development assistance that has immediate short-term impact on productivity and services, this need not be inconsistent with having an impact on population growth. Programs of increased productivity and rural development that improve the status of women and make smaller families an attractive option can have an indirect, but significant, effect on fertility. These issues are discussed more completely in the section on "Women and Youth in Development."

Population Growth (p. 9)

Footnotes

1. World Bank, "Report and Recommendation...." p.1, Annex I. December 7, 1979.
2. These figures apparently include increase due to in-migration.
3. World Bank, "Report and Recommendation...." p. 1, Annex I. December 7, 1979. Although the number of acceptors is quite small in proportion to the total population of women of child-bearing age, it is encouraging in the East African context.
4. Lecturer in the Department of Social Work and Social Administration, Makerere University. The work has been supported by the Ford Foundation office in Nairobi.
5. World Bank, "Report and Recommendation...." p. 1, Annex I. December 7, 1979.
6. Commonwealth Secretariat Report Vol. 2, pp. 25-26.
7. That is, households suffering from land scarcity, as opposed to viable smallholder production units. The point at which a household begins to "suffer" from scarcity depends on a variety of factors including soil fertility, crop mixes, opportunity for off-farm employment and so on.
8. In some but not all parts of the country Guatemala grass and similar grasses provide valuable sources of fodder when grown on field margins or along contours on steep slopes.
9. In rural villages eggs cost 4 Ush each; chickens may cost anywhere from 50 Ush to 100 Ush each.
10. J.H. Gleave, "Food Consumption in Uganda" East African Journal of Rural Development, \_\_\_\_\_.

## Small Scale Rural Enterprise

Small scale private enterprise in rural areas is a vital form of economic activity throughout East Africa, and Uganda is no exception. Recognizing this, the Uganda National Liberation Front (UNLF) has made encouragement of private enterprise an important part of its social and economic policy.

Indigenous private entrepreneurs shall be encouraged....  
[We] encourage establishment of small-scale industrial establishments, as these would attain diffusion of industrial enterprise and avoidance of monopolistic concentration of economic power and wealth.<sup>1</sup>

During Amin's time there appears to have been a tendency for the number of establishments employing less than 10 people to increase, while the number of establishments employing more than 10 people seems to have declined.<sup>2</sup> This underlines the need to consider the current situation and needs of small scale enterprise in Uganda.

Small Scale Rural Enterprise (p. 2)

No firm statistics are available, but it is safe to say that these small scale enterprises are chiefly concerned with motor vehicle and bicycle repair, trade and public transport, food processing, garment-making and repair, furniture-making, black-smithing, the manufacture of both sun- and fire-cured bricks, and also include bakeries, butcher shops and tanneries. In addition there are a number of artisan occupations--basketry, carpentry, brick-laying and so forth--that furnish much employment in rural areas. Even in Uganda's present depressed circumstances these enterprises are returning to life quickly.

Much commerce takes place along roadsides and in town or village marketplaces, where farmers from outlying rural areas bring headloads and bicycle-loads of vegetables, fruits, grains and other farm products for sale to urban residents and road transporters. Trade and public transport, ~~which~~ operating at magendo prices, are operating with some vigor. In Hoima, for instance, to travel a distance of 10 miles formerly cost between 10 and 15 USh,

Small Scale Rural Enterprise (p. 3)

but now costs 100 USh; and yet busses, lorries, taxis and tractors can be seen jammed with people. Transport owners prefer to haul people over goods, partly because people who travel these days do so out of substantial need and are thus willing to pay high prices, and partly because people can load and unload themselves--which reduces turn-around time greatly. Among commodities, high-value food products such as matoke and cattle<sup>3</sup> are currently preferred to less remunerative goods such as coffee; but it would be a mistake to think that there is no profit in transporting coffee. Farmers desperate to sell their harvest will accept 5 Ush per kilogram from a transporter, which is 2 Ush below the official government price that is paid by primary societies to growers. A five-ton lorry can haul about 5,000 kilograms of coffee; the gross return to the transporter may thus be in the neighborhood of 10,000 USh for a task that may involve not more than four or five days spent collecting, bulking and delivering the cargo. High transport prices and the opportunity for making large profits quickly will

remain until the transport constraint is eased.

The construction industry is active nearly everywhere in the country, as people repair and rebuild homes and businesses damaged or destroyed during the war. In addition a number of new foundations are being laid, surely a sign that investment is taking place and faith in the future is reviving. Three sectors of activity in particular may have even been stimulated by recent events--these are in the areas of transport repair, clothing repair, and production of firewood and charcoal.

Transport shortages, especially in up-country zones more than 100 miles or so from Kampala, and particularly in places remote from paved roads, has placed a premium on being able to maintain and repair vehicles. Even in small villages there are repair shops surrounded by cannibalized vehicles, where local mechanics work hard to maintain the vehicles that are still running. Even more vital is the bicycle repair industry--many towns have up to a dozen such repair facilities, all busily involved in maintaining this increasingly important

means of transport.

Tailors and cobblers are also visibly thriving; as with bicycle repair, all towns have many such facilities. These are now fully occupied in repairing garments and shoes that have been made precious during the years of Amin's economic war.

Finally, the shortage and <sup>at times</sup> high cost of kerosene and gas cylinders, particularly in up-country areas, has forced many people to return to firewood and charcoal as a means of preparing food. A bundle of firewood of a size that can be carried by a woman may sell for 20 US\$ to 40 US\$, while gunny sacks of charcoal sell from 70 US\$ to 150 US\$, depending on quality and location. Both farmers and townsmen have turned to the production of firewood and charcoal as a means of earning needed income during the current period of high inflation, and roads everywhere in the rural areas are lined with piles of these essential fuel commodities waiting for transport to small towns or urban centers. Although this activity furnishes valuable employment to many needful persons,

Small Scale Rural Enterprise (p. 6)

there are negative environmental implications; utilization of fuelwood at increased rates will bring nearer the day when Uganda's wood resources must be replenished. These matters are discussed in the section on "Environment and Energy."

All of the small scale rural enterprises described here are hampered by the same commodity shortages that afflict other sectors of the economy. Painters are working with brushes worn down to  $\frac{1}{4}$ " of bristle; they must often manufacture their own paint. Hand construction tools are scarce and expensive, as are spare parts for the repair of machinery and vehicles--a bicycle tire may cost 650 US\$, if it can be found.

Private enterprise seems to be recovering from the recent disruptions more quickly than is the public sector, and has an obvious and major contribution to make to the process of reconstruction and development. The entrepreneurial skills and business opportunities are already in existence; needed are material inputs. Given that private entrepreneurship in Uganda is officially sanctioned

in social and economic policy, it may be appropriate for USAID/Uganda to consider assistance to this sector. As with other sectors, essential commodities are the priority needs. There may also be a role here for low-cost loans for purchase of equipment and capital investments of other types; but a means must be found of channeling both financing and commodities to the private entrepreneurs who can best use them. This is a task that needs further study, but may be done by furnishing support to low-overhead private voluntary organizations with previous African experience; by assisting in the rehabilitation of indigenous raw materials industries (e.g. cement, clay and forest products), and perhaps by distributing commodities and financing through existing district-level infrastructure, such as the previously-thriving network of primary cooperative societies.

Footnotes

1. Economic and Social Policy of the Uganda National Liberation Front, pp. 2 and 7.
2. Commonwealth Secretariat Report, Vol. 2, p. 127.
3. Kampala traders drive as far as Kabarole to purchase livestock for the rich Kampala market. Many livestock owners in need of cash find the current prices of 10,000 to 20,000 USh per head irresistible.

## Women and Youth in Development

In Uganda as in other East African countries women and youth contribute greatly to national output, particularly in the rural areas. Women are responsible for the bulk of work involved in staple food production, and may take a hand in many phases of commercial agricultural production as well. It is important, then, to insure that programs of increased productivity and agricultural training give adequate attention to the needs and capabilities of (especially) women farmers. In Vihiga District of Kenya, for instance, a quantitative assessment of farm management and farm outputs demonstrated that women manage smallholder production units more efficiently than men, when factors such as access to education and agricultural inputs are held constant.<sup>1</sup> Young people, especially girls, begin performing essential household functions at an early age. In addition to engaging in productive enterprise within the context of the household, women and youth in Uganda have mobilized widely to create social infrastructure and to develop income-generating activities.

### Creation of Social Infrastructure

In Uganda the Ministry of Culture and Community Development has responsibility for a wide range of district-level self-help rural development activities. The District Community Development Officer (DCDO) cooperates with other district administrative officers to build schools, bridges, culverts and roads, to develop community water supplies, to provide adult literacy facilities and various types of non-formal education, and to assist local people in organizing for the production and marketing of agricultural and livestock commodities. The most significant aspect of this work is that the DCDO with his or her staff helps people mobilize their labor and capital as needed to undertake self-help activities that the people themselves have identified as important. This mobilization takes place largely through the creation of women's and youth groups at the village, parish, county and district levels.

The youth groups are particularly active in the development of social infrastructure. It is important to note that while it is the community youth who provide

labor for these activities, their participation inevitably draws in and engages the more senior members of the community, who provide essential management skills, tools and capital. Thus community-level infrastructure development in Uganda can potentially make good use of local resources, can proceed with a minimum of government direction, and may be particularly effective in dealing with the problems of underemployed rural youth.

Unfortunately, the years of misrule under Amin and the subsequent liberation war have disrupted the mobilization of local resources for development. Essential building supplies and transport are no longer available, and the district officers responsible for assisting self-help groups to gain access to needed inputs are unable to perform their duties for lack of money, communications and staff. Hoima District, for example, formerly made use of 50 unpaid Community Development Assistants, but has only five now. The need to earn income to cope with inflation has made it impossible for people of all ages to offer their services voluntarily as they did before. The

District Rural Training Centers (funded by USAID in the past), which provide valuable facilities for some phases of agricultural extension, training in artisanry, and various educational services, have become largely defunct through lack of needed inputs and damage suffered during the war. Even where training facilities still operate, as at Mukuku in Kabarole District, the training may be of doubtful value. At Mukuku, young people are taught building skills; the district government formerly provided starter tool-kits to graduates so that they could find immediate employment, and the cost of the kits was repaid from earnings. Nowadays government cannot provide the tools (nor are they available at reasonable prices from the private sector), and so graduates cannot be placed in construction jobs. Similarly, parents in former times gave hoes and other agricultural implements to youths freely for use in rural development projects; these days each household has only one or two hoes and guards the use of these jealously. Thus the formerly vital youth programs have come largely to a halt, and

\* Demonstration materials, teaching equipment, maintenance materials, etc.

require immediate access to commodities like hoes, ploughs, cement and hand tools before they can begin again to perform their important developmental role. Over the long term, USAID Uganda may wish to consider programs that address the underlying causes of underemployment among rural youth. Needed is research to assess the scale of rural underemployment in various parts of the country, as well as support for employment generating rural enterprises such as artisanry, vehicle repair, garment-making and so forth.

#### Income Generation

The Ministry of Culture and Community Development is also responsible for directing programs of productive employment for women and youth; again, the District Community Development Officer plays a facilitating role in helping committed local groups to gain access to needed inputs. Community-level women's organizations are particularly active in this sphere. In Gulu, for instance, there is a women's group that has been officially registered as a cooperative society, with over

300 members. In the early 1970's this organization marketed hundreds of bales of cotton each year--cotton grown by the women themselves and cultivated with the aid of a tractor owned by the society. Most recently this group mobilized the money needed to purchase day-old chicks to begin poultry farming, and hired a lorry to go to Kampala to pick the chicks up. Those who are familiar with Uganda's current problems of transport, communications and high rate of inflation will appreciate the magnitude of this accomplishment. Endeavors of this kind are found elsewhere; in Hoima, for example, over 200 women's organizations were active during the 1970's in agricultural production, sewing and handicrafts as a means of earning household income. Unfortunately, just as the need for these types of activity has increased (in Gulu alone over 150 women lost their husbands during recent disruptions) the possibility for undertaking them has nearly vanished. As noted before, essential building supplies, agricultural inputs and transport are unavailable or extremely costly.

Much can be done to reduce rural underemployment,

increase productivity and improve levels of income in rural Uganda by providing formerly active women's groups with the inputs needed to get moving again. Perhaps most encouraging is the knowledge that these groups were developing strongly in the early 1970's, and that they are currently regrouping, clamoring for government attention, and mobilizing their own resources for development. The commitment and managerial capacity are already in place--needed are basic commodities like poultry feed, fertilizer, cement, transport and the like. These are commodities that are needed throughout the country, and by all sectors; it is only necessary to insure that women receive a share of the development assistance currently planned. This can be done by including the Ministry of Culture and Community Development in plans to support the transport, communications and input supply needs of the country as a whole.

#### Women in Development and Population Issues

It is generally accepted that among the most important

social and economic determinants of fertility are those related to women's role in the community and the national economy. Where women's status is depressed and their roles confined to those of wife and child-bearer, fertility rates tend to be high; where women have access to education and productive employment, family sizes are seen to decline. This fact underlines the importance of insuring that women participate fully in the development process, and the outlook for this in Uganda is somewhat mixed. The table below illustrates.

Table 1. Education and Labor Force Participation Among Women in Uganda<sup>2</sup>

|  | 1960 | 1970 | 1974-77 |
|--|------|------|---------|
| <b>Primary School Enrollment Rates</b>   |      |      |         |
| Male                                     | 65%  | 72%  | 61%     |
| Female                                   | 32%  | 49%  | 42%     |
| Total                                    | 49%  | 61%  | 61%     |
| <b>Secondary School Enrollment Rates</b> |      |      |         |
| Male                                     | 4%   | 9%   | 10%     |
| Female                                   | 1%   | 3%   | 4%      |
| Total                                    | 3%   | 6%   | 6%      |
| <b>Labor Force Participation Rates</b>   |      |      |         |
| Male                                     | 58%  | 57%  | 56%     |
| Female                                   | 31%  | 29%  | 28%     |
| Total                                    | 45%  | 44%  | 42%     |

Two facts emerge from this data. First, access of women to education and commercial employment is drastically less than is the case among the male population, especially in secondary education; this is of course not a circumstance unique to Uganda. Second, changes in rates of participation in education and employment among women parallel the changes in rates of participation observed among men. These facts have great developmental significance. First, parents apparently consider the same range of factors (related to the performance of the national economy) when deciding whether to send female children to school as they do when deciding whether to send male children to school. This means that, in all likelihood, increases in rural productivity and incomes will bring proportional increases in school attendance among girls. Second, women in the commercial sector apparently respond to the same range of socio-economic incentives and constraints to which men respond. This means that expansion in the commercial sector will, in all likelihood, be accompanied by a proportionate increase

But priority of education women have than men  
∴ with  
Δ↑ in income a disproportionately greater number of women will benefit.

↳ Distro

in the amount of participation in the labor force by women.

At the aggregate level, then, development in Uganda is likely to proceed with increased women's participation, rather than otherwise; and this has positive implications for indirect effects on fertility decline.

To the extent that the USAID Uganda program contributes to overall development, it is likely to contribute to reduced fertility. This is because there do not seem to be any basic social or economic processes working to exclude the participation of women as development proceeds; and women's participation in development is generally conceded to increase their status as producers and decision-makers, and to make smaller families a viable alternative for at least some categories of households. On the other hand, it is clear that there is much room for improvement in the absolute rates of women's participation in education and employment. This is unlikely to be achieved over the short term, although commodity support to rehabilitate women's organizations and educational facilities will certainly help. Over the long term, USAID Uganda may

\* But in Kenya rapid development has been accompanied by a rate of population growth of over 4.0% per annum. This indicates that fertility declines in Uganda <sup>38</sup> should not be looked for over the short term.

wish to proceed by fostering research that clarifies the current roles of women in Uganda's economy, and by providing continued assistance to the existing network of productive women's organizations. Other means of increasing women's participation in development, such as pressing for government-financed incentives to place girls in school or women in employment, will likely have to wait until the stability of the Uganda government and the national economy are both more firmly established.

Footnotes

1. Peter Mook, "Farm Management...", unpublished PhD dissertation, Columbia University, 1974.

2. World Bank, "Report and Recommendation..." Annex I, December 7, 1979. Some aspects of this table are puzzling but the critical points that male and female attendance rates parallel each other, and that female participation is lower than male participation, have been confirmed by knowledgeable observers.

Uganda is favored with an abundance of water, generally fertile soils, and significant reserves of tropical forest and savannah woodland. In this section we draw particular attention to the forest and woodland reserves, which provide two development resources of great significance in Uganda: wood for fuel and building poles in rural areas, as well as for commercial use; and the game parks, which formerly constituted an important source of foreign exchange.

In Uganda about 15,000 KM<sup>2</sup> of forest and woodland are reserved for forestry,<sup>1</sup> out of a total forest and woodland area of about 28,000 KM<sup>2</sup>.<sup>2</sup> In 1976 this resource provided about 11 million m.<sup>3</sup> of wood for use as fuel and building poles; commercial consumption accounted for an additional amount of at least 2 million to 10 million m.<sup>3</sup> per annum during the period 1973-1978. Only about 150 KM<sup>2</sup> have been reforested since Independence, and so the outlook for the future is bleak. Commercial demand will outpace supply by 1990 even if no industrial expansion takes place;<sup>3</sup> and by that time the demand for wood fuel and building poles will have grown to about 15 million m.<sup>3</sup> per annum, assuming that population growth increases at the current rate of

3.0% per annum.

Programs to meet needs for wood can proceed along three lines: reforestation at rates high enough to keep pace with current demand and meet projected ~~future~~ future demand; conservation and more efficient use of existing resources; and development of alternative and renewable sources of energy. A complete program would of course incorporate elements of all these approaches, but this is not often feasible due to lack of funds, management capacity and host country commitment. At this point it may be appropriate to sketch out for USAID Uganda the types of programs that can be mounted to accomplish the complementary goals of reforestation, conservation, and adoption of alternative sources of energy.

#### Reforestation

In many parts of the world reforestation and watershed recovery has been accomplished through PL 480 Title I and II programs that provide local currency and food for workers. This makes great demands on government capacity to organize work forces and distribute the

necessary commodities, and can be very expensive if large areas are targeted for replanting. In addition, it can be quite difficult to protect trees from unauthorized use. The technical aspects of assuring successful tree growth are however usually straightforward.

UNFAO and USAID's Africa Bureau have been active in smaller scale attempts at reforestation, using a variety of approaches that are usually referred to collectively as community forestry or agro-forestry. Under such programs attempts are made to involve small communities in the identification and implementation of projects that make use of local resources and local commitment to increase the production of wood fuel and building materials for local use. This may involve the planting of trees along roads and streams or on land unsuitable for food crop production; it may involve the allocation of land for community woodlots; and it can also lead to the incorporation of trees into indigenous farming systems, since there are many available species that provide not only wood, but fodder for livestock, fruit for sale or

consumption, and useful industrial products such as tannin or latex. In Uganda, the World Bank and various Scandinavian donors have financed successful large-scale and community-scale replanting projects along the lines outlined above; the community level efforts were mostly in conjunction with the introduction of flue-cured tobacco, which requires vast amounts of fuelwood in the curing process. Among the problems that can be encountered in planning programs of this nature are those related to land tenure, to control of the distribution of products, and to the technical difficulty of introducing changes to local systems of agricultural production and land use.

### Conservation

Conservation can be accomplished by protecting existing resources from unauthorized use, by improving timber processing industries so that waste is kept to a minimum, and by searching for efficient modes of end-use. This latter point relates most directly to wood fuel use in rural areas, where open fires and consequent inefficient

combustion create a great deal of waste. There are available designs of improved low-cost stoves that can reduce waste under rural conditions.

#### Alternative and Renewable Sources of Energy

Peasant households around the world consume wood fuel at a rate that varies between 0.5 m.<sup>3</sup> and 2.5 m.<sup>3</sup> per capita per annum, and little substitution for petrochemical fuels takes place as development proceeds, since the price of petrochemical fuels is rising more quickly than incomes in the developing world. This makes it necessary to look to other alternative energy sources such as solar, wind and water power. In Uganda there may be much scope for the development of hydroelectric power, especially through mini-hydro facilities for service at the community level; but there is also scope for construction of major facilities.<sup>4</sup> Solar and wind power generating plants may also work well, but these tend to be costly and subject to maintenance difficulties.

Over the short term Uganda has sufficient wood resources to satisfy both industrial and rural demand, but

by 1990 constraints will begin to emerge. Given the long delay (at least five to eight years) before planted trees can be harvested, it may be appropriate for USAID Uganda to begin planning now for the needs of Uganda in the future. This can take the form of assessing host government awareness of the potential problems and commitment to finding solutions; of coordinating with other donors to make the best use of existing experience and financial resources; and of undertaking research to assess the feasibility of various approaches to conservation and development of the wood resource and other alternative energy sources in Uganda.

#### Game Parks

Tourism in Uganda has been an important sector of economic activity for many years, peaking in 1972 with about 85,000 visitors. Foreign exchange earnings in that year amounted to 156 million US\$, which made tourism the third largest source of foreign exchange

in Uganda, after coffee (1,128 million US\$) and cotton (368 million US\$).<sup>5</sup> Subsequently a number of unfortunate events have combined to reduce Uganda's tourist industry to near insignificance. In 1973 the government banned tourism completely (the ban was lifted in 1974); Amin's poorly paid and uncontrolled army began to depend on the game parks for food and income (through sales of skins and ivory); during the liberation war soldiers slaughtered animals indiscriminately; and since the war poorly-paid Tanzanian troops have made inroads on the game reserves as well. The current easy access of poachers to arms and ammunition has made the task of park rangers nearly impossible. Kabalega Falls National Park in the north is said to have had virtually all its animals destroyed, while very few animals are in evidence elsewhere, such as Rwenzori National Park in the southwest.

Tourism has an important contribution to make to development in Uganda, and USAID Uganda may wish to consider support to this sector, particularly in the

form of supplying essential commodities such as transport and radios to park rangers. The staff of most parks maintain gardens to grow needed household food; as with other areas of agricultural activity, much good could be done here by simply making hoes and other necessary agricultural inputs available. These are immediate options that would enable the working staff of Uganda's game parks to perform their tasks more effectively; over the long term USAID may wish to consider support for international restocking programs and support for the development of appropriate wildlife management procedures (ironically, some of Uganda's parks were heavily overstocked prior to recent disruptions).

Environment and Energy (p. 8)

1. Commonwealth Secretariat Report, Vol. 2, p. 153.
2. FAO Production Yearbook 1978, p. 47.
3. Commonwealth Secretariat Report, Vol. 2, p. 153-4.
4. Commonwealth Secretariat Report, Vol. 2, p. 171-5.
5. Commonwealth Secretariat Report, Vol. 2, p. 183-4.

## Local Administration

Whatever form development assistance to Uganda may take, it will be necessary at some point to link up with and interact with district-level administration. This makes it important to understand how local administrations currently operate. A number of informal patterns and procedures emerged during the Amin years and subsequent to the liberation war, of which only the most important can be sketched out here. These related to the role of the District Commissioner, and to the conditions of district staff employment.

### The Role of The District Commissioner

A Ugandan District Commissioner (DC) is a member of the civil service, and ordinarily has many years of experience as a junior district officer. Most DCs have served in many parts of Uganda and are familiar with a wide range of development and administrative problems. The appointment to the position of DC comes from the Office of the President, and so Ugandan DCs have in effect two masters: they perform an administrative role under the Ministry of

Local Administration (p. 2)

Local Administration, and they perform a political role under the Office of the President. The DC is therefore an extremely powerful actor on the local scene, and his authority has been enhanced by two recent events: the dissolution of the system of military provincial governors following the overthrow of Amin, and the breakdown in communications with the central ministries due to disruptions caused by Amin's misrule and the liberation war. This enhanced authority is particularly visible in areas geographically distant from Kampala, where both radio and telephone communications have either partially or completely broken down.

The lack of communications with and support from central ministries constitutes de facto decentralization, and places a premium on district-level initiative and cooperation. DCs allocate transport, and to some extent funds and staff, and they are responsible for setting priorities regarding local needs. Most outlying districts now have no more than one vehicle at their disposal; if, say, a message comes from Entebbe that medical supplies

## Local Administration (p. 3)

have been allocated to the district and must be picked up, it is the DC who decides whether the necessary transport will be made available. There are of course multitudinous demands on transport, and quite often the DC may decide that other matters have priority. Thus, with circumstances as they currently are, development efforts that do not have the support of the DC are unlikely to make much headway. Three points emerge: in planning for development assistance the local DCs must be consulted to the maximum extent possible; all aid should be accompanied by a transport support system extensive enough to relax the current constraints faced by district administrators; and every effort should be made to take advantage of and build on the de facto decentralization that has already taken place, so as to avoid the delays and wastage that occur in central locations, and to avoid the mistakes that are often made in planning development from a "top-down" perspective.

### District Staff

District Officers are for the most part a competent

body of administrative officials--they possess the technical skills and managerial capacity to perform their duties. Lacking are transport, inputs of all kinds, and (to a large extent) coherent direction from the central ministries. These of course are familiar problems, and it can be expected that solutions to them will be found as development assistance proceeds. There are however other more fundamental constraints on district-level action that may prove more intractable, and these relate to the conditions of staff employment.

Until the early 1970's, district-level staff in Uganda transferred quite freely among duty posts; the typical duration of a posting was two or three years. This had a number of beneficial effects. First, staff gained much useful experience in dealing with a wide range of development problems in various local contexts. Second, there was relatively little opportunity for corruption to emerge in official circles, for the constant circulation of officers in places distant from their homes inhibited empire-building. Third, each officer had opportunity to meet and interact with colleagues from a wide range

\* Office equipment, materials for maintenance, stationery and the like.

of ethnic and economic backgrounds. District administrators as a category were often isolated by virtue of education and occupation from local community leaders such as businessmen and persons with traditional sources of authority, but among themselves there were a number of shared goals. There was thus a commonality of feeling among local administrators, and this may have helped to bring cohesion and stability to Uganda.

These circumstances have altered drastically during the last eight years. The decline in real wages resulting from soaring inflation has made it impossible for district staff to subsist on their salaries; the prices of purchased food and manufactured goods are simply too high. Consequently the old pattern of rotation among duty posts has virtually disappeared. Currently nearly all district officers are serving in or near to their home districts--this gives them access to farmland, lodging and an indigenous social support system that enables them to satisfy their needs independently of salaries and government facilities. This is necessary, given present-day

conditions in Uganda, but there are several unfortunate consequences. First, district officers may spend up to 50% or even more of their work time managing their private affairs. Second, the opportunity for inefficient or illegitimate allocation of government resources is more open than before. And finally, junior staff are no longer receiving the variegated experience that was a feature of earlier times--in many places these people have never worked elsewhere than in their home districts.

Clearly all these factors are going to complicate the business of reconstruction and development in Uganda, insofar as they reduce the ability of current and future staff to support the development process. Over the short term there is little that bilateral development assistance can do to address the basic causes of these problems, other than to recognize the constraints that exist and to plan the delivery of aid in such a way as to minimize potential difficulties. This can be done by making it easier for district staff to do their work--through providing transport,

Local Administration (p. 7)

improved communications and perhaps staff quarters. Over the long term there is a need to improve the conditions of service for district staff, to rejuvenate in-service training, to give support and direction to technical and graduate schooling, and to make it possible for the valuable system of duty post rotation to operate once again.

January 30, 1980

List of Persons Contacted

U.S.

|                  |            |
|------------------|------------|
| Hunter Farnham   | AID        |
| Charles Good     | AID        |
| Ann Reid         | State      |
| Lou Jonowski     | State      |
| E. K. Bigirwenka | World Bank |

Nairobi

|              |             |
|--------------|-------------|
| Ned Greeley  | USAID       |
| Anita Mackie | USAID       |
| David Court  | Rockefeller |
| David Smock  | Ford        |
| John Gerhart | Ford        |
| Goran Hyden  | Ford        |
| Richard Hook | HIID        |

Kampala

|               |       |
|---------------|-------|
| David Halsted | State |
| Donn Weaver   | State |
| Stan Robinson | State |

Jack Gwayambadde (Makerere University: Acting Chair,  
Department of Social Work and Social Administration)  
Zack Kaheru (Chairman and Managing Director,  
Coffee Marketing Board)  
Absolom Wandera-Mabaho (Makerere University: Lecturer,  
Department of Social Work and Social Administration)  
Anthony Ochaya (Minister of Planning and Economic Development)  
John Bulinda (Senior Economist, Ministry of Planning and  
Economic Development)  
Paul Mugambi (Makerere University: Chair, Mathematics Department)  
Ezra Majalya (Ex-Senior Superintendent, Uganda Police)  
Tarsis Kabwegyere (Minister of Lands and Natural Resources)  
Richard Ntiru (Editor-in-Chief, East African Publishing House)  
Mr. Katera (Legal Advisor to the President)  
Dr. Karugire (Junior Minister for Foreign Affairs)  
Mr. Kitembo (Ministry of Transport and Communications)  
Aston Mutisa (Private Economist)  
Frances Mukama (Assistant Minister of Agriculture)  
Charles Olweny (Director of Cancer Research, Mulago Hospital)  
Sara Odongo (Deputy Director of Exchange Control,  
Bank of Uganda)  
Jackson Kanyarugkove (ESSO Standard)  
Fayce Kanyarugkove (Ministry of Transport and Communications)

Brendan O'Brien (UNICEF)

Jack Sentongo (Ministry of Finance)

Mr. Wekessa (Economist, Ministry of Cooperatives and Marketing)

Mr. Bangirana (Commissioner for Taxation, Ministry of Finance)

|      |  |
|------|--|
| DC   | District Commissioner                  |
| ADC  | Assistant District Commissioner        |
| DCDO | District Community Development Officer |
| DMO  | District Medical Officer               |
| DHI  | " Health Inspector                     |
| DCO  | " Cooperatives and Marketing Officer   |
| DEO  | " Education Officer                    |
| DVO  | " Veterinary Officer                   |
| DAO  | " Agriculture Officer                  |

Gulu

|                         |  |
|-------------------------|--|
| George Oagom            | DC                                       |
| C. A. Amone             | DAO                                      |
| Dr. Olwir               | DVO                                      |
| Dr. Onyom-Oola          | DMO                                      |
| Tom J. Odongo           | DHI                                      |
| S. M. Odora             | Assistant Education Officer              |
| P. L. Acire             | DCO                                      |
| Mrs. Labeka Auma Okwong | District Community<br>Development Worker |

Lira

|                          |                         |
|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| Mr. J. R. E. A. Okia     | ADC I                   |
| John Ojuka-oyie          | ADC II                  |
| Mr. Emarara              | DAO                     |
| Mr. Eddongo-Opurpoeapalh | DCO                     |
| C. L. C. Opoya           | Town Clerk              |
| Jimmy Ongom              | Senior Clerical Officer |
| J. Y. A. Obita           | O.I.C. Police           |

Hoima

|                     |  |
|---------------------|--|
| Mr. Muwanga         | DC                                       |
| Philemon Ngongaha   | DAO                                      |
| Amos Murindangabo   | DCO                                      |
| J. Tibenda Kabianga | DVO                                      |
| Benon Byarugara     | Senior Tea Officer                       |
| Mathias Kagoro      | Senior Agriculture Assistant             |
| Erastus Nyakana     | Senior Tobacco Officer                   |
| Harnna B. Batulemwa | Assistant DEO                            |
| David Waitlaya      | DCO                                      |
| Henry K. Makune     | (Agriculture Information<br>Officer)     |
| Amos K. Kalyebara   | Youth Officer                            |
| Evah Ruth Auma      | DCDO                                     |
| Francis Barigye     | Culture Officer for Hoima<br>and Masindi |
| Dr. J. J. Lutaaya   | DMO                                      |

Kabarole

Mr. Ndikora  
Simon Mukide

DC  
Senior Agriculture Officer,  
Western Zone

Dr. A. G. M. Bagonza  
Dr. John Ndiku  
John A. K. Nkuubwa  
Amos R. Kajura  
Fred Y. B. Kasumba  
Margaret Acayo  
Onesimus Alituha

DVO  
DMO  
DCO  
DEO  
DCDO  
District Youth Officer  
DAO

Itinerary

|          |       |  |
|----------|-------|--|
| January  | 9-11  | Consultations in Washington, D.C.                        |
| "        | 12-13 | Travel to Nairobi  |
| "        | 14-15 | Consultations in Nairobi                                 |
| "        | -16   | Travel to Kampala  |
| "        | 17-21 | Consultations in Kampala                                 |
| "        | -22   | Travel to northern zones                                 |
| "        | -23   | Consultations in Gulu and Lira                           |
| "        | -24   | Consultations in Masindi and Hoima                       |
| "        | -25   | Travel to Kabarole                                       |
| "        | -26   | Consultations in Kabarole                                |
| "        | -27   | Travel to Kampala through Bonyesi,<br>Mbarara and Masaka |
| "        | 28-29 | Prepare draft report                                     |
| "        | -30   | Rigby leaves   |
| January  | 30-   | Fleuret prepares final report                            |
| February | 2     |  |
|          | 3     | Fleuret leaves   |

Patrick Fleuret