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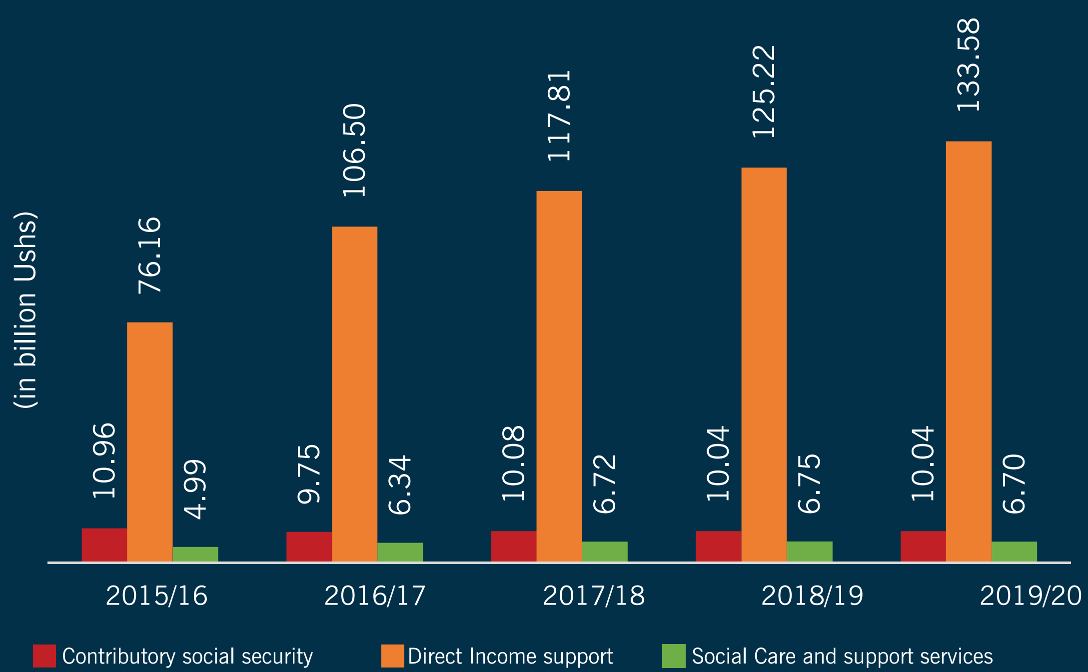
A PATHWAY TO SOCIAL PROTECTION DEVELOPMENT IN UGANDA: A SYNTHESIS REPORT



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May 2017

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ABSTRACT

Social protection is at the heart of attaining the Global Agenda 2030's Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and Africa's Agenda 2063. This synthesis reviews the institutions, policies, laws, implementation plans and evidence that are aligned to support social protection in Uganda. Evidence shows that there are many vulnerabilities within the economy and that females are at a greater disadvantage than males. Hence, there is a need for multi-faceted interventions from both state and non-state actors. Policy frameworks, particularly the National Social Protection Policy, are in place. However, the extent to which this policy is being implemented was not ascertained because it is still new. The funds allocated to social protection in Uganda are still small and insufficient. Actions taken by the institutions responsible for spearheading social protection are not adequate, as vulnerability is still high and uncoordinated interventions continue to proceed with no operational guidelines. Limitations on the harmonization and financial commitment of the government with regard to the national rollout of cash transfer grants to all elderly eligible persons will result in a failure to achieve social inclusiveness. For successful policy action, it is important to ensure institutional coordination, engage stakeholders at the onset of programme conceptualization, include the informal sector, liberalise the pension sector, and strengthen non-financial social protection initiatives.

ABBREVIATIONS

ALREP	Agricultural Livelihood Recovery Programme
DFID	Department for International Development
DRT	Directorate of Research and Training
ESP	Expanding Social Protection
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
KALIP	Karamoja Livelihood Programme
MDAs	Ministries, Departments and Agencies
MoFPED	Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development
MoGLSD	Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development
MoH	Ministry of Health
MoLG	Ministry of Local Government
MoPS	Ministry of Public Service
MoWE	Ministry of Water and Environment
NPA	National Planning Authority
NSSF	National Social Security Fund
NUSAF	Northern Uganda Social Action Fund
OPM	Office of the Prime Minister
PSPS	Public Social Pension Scheme
SACCOs	Savings and Credit Cooperative Societies
SAGE	Social Assistance Grants for Empowerment
UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UBRA	Uganda Benefits Regulatory Authority
UBRA	Uganda Beneficiary and Regulatory Authority
UNICEF	United Nations...Children's Education Fund
UPFSP	Uganda Parliamentary Forum for Social Protection
USAID	United States Assistance for International Development
UWONET	Uganda Women's Network
WFP	World Food Programme
YLP	Youth Livelihood programme

1. INTRODUCTION

Social protection is at the heart of attaining the Global Agenda 2030's Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and Africa's Agenda 2063. From this perspective, African countries – including Uganda – have endeavoured to incorporate social protection policies and programmes into their plans of action. However, most of these economies, together with their development partners, have contextualised social protection differently. For example, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) defines social protection (SP) as (a) expenditures on services and transfers to individual people and households; and (b) expenditures on a collective basis (e.g., for formulation and administration of government policy); social protection also includes enforcement of legislation and standards for providing social protection. The World Bank defines SP as assistance to reduce vulnerability through better risk management – hence the safety net programmes in many African countries – while UNICEF defines it as transfers and services that help individuals and households confront risk and adversity and ensure a minimum standard of dignity and well-being throughout the lifecycle (Holmes and Lwanga-Ntale, 2012). However, Uganda defines social protection as "public and private interventions that address vulnerabilities associated with being or becoming poor" (MoGLSD, 2015a). All these definitions share a common approach to SP, either as a preventive or protective measure.

According to the 2012/13 Uganda National Household Survey, out of Uganda's 34.6 million inhabitants, approximately 4.6% were elderly persons (above 60 years), 11% were orphans, 40% of children aged 5-15 years were working (implying that child labour was high), 7%werepersons with disabilities and 10 % were widows, more than 80% of whom were household heads with limited or no education (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2013). In addition, approximately 9.4% were unemployed (10.9 % for females Vs 8.1% for males), and youth (aged 18-30 years) unemployment was 11.1% (-8.9% for male youth Vs -13.7% for female youth). With regard to poverty status, the percentages of youth who were employed but poor were 49.8% for males and 50.2% for females. These facts reveal that there are many and various forms of vulnerabilities within Uganda's economy, and females are at a greater disadvantage.

On the policy front, SP was well articulated in the 1995 Constitution of the Republic of Uganda, which is the basis on which various laws, acts, policies and programme plans of action have been formulated, designed and implemented. However, with regard to taking further steps to enforce SP, since 2010, Uganda's vision 2040 SP has been acknowledged as an avenue for ensuring that vulnerable persons[1] are supported in a special way. The National Development Plans (NDPs) actualise the Vision by outlining specific targets to ensure that social development is in place and is being implemented by core sectors.

Multifaceted interventions by both government and non-state actors have been initiated to assist vulnerable persons. For instance, after the 20-year conflict in Northern Uganda, the World Bank began a public works programme – the Northern Uganda Social Action Fund – that is now in its third phase. The European Union has livelihood enhancement programmes – the Karamoja Livelihood Programme (in Karamoja) and the Agricultural Livelihood Recovery Programme (in Acholi). The World Food Programme (WFP) supported food-for-education programmes that were implemented in camps for Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs), which are currently in the Karamoja sub region only; and a donor-government supported a Direct Income Support pilot project called the Social Assistance Grant for Empowerment (SAGE), which has two components: the Senior Citizens Grant and the Vulnerable Family Grant. To enhance employment and business creation through the extension of credit to youth and women, the Youth Livelihood Programme (YLP), the Youth Venture Capital Fund (YVCF) and the Uganda Women's Entrepreneurship Programme (UWEP) are being implemented by the government.

Elsewhere, the evidence base on "what works" and "does not work" for SP in Anglophone Africa has focused on social transfer impacts, cost-effectiveness, implementation modalities, and delivery systems

1 These are categorised as individuals who are orphans, widows, elderly, children, disabled or youth based on their age, gender, social class, location, disaster-victim status or lack of any income.

(UNICEF 2015; Holmes and Lwanga-Ntale, 2012; Deveraux and Cipryk, 2009). Holmes and Lwanga-Ntale (2012) note that in Francophone Africa, evidence has focused more on social insurance (including health insurance and weather insurance) as well as indirect social transfers (user fee exemptions). However, based on the above-mentioned programmes, Uganda's focus on ensuring social protection for the vulnerable has been largely indirect, implemented through agricultural livelihood-enhancement programmes. Boone et al. (2013) argue that transfers focusing on social protection, as well as pro-poor growth strategies that focus on agriculture, can both form part of an overall strategy for rural poverty reduction; however, the right balance has to be achieved. For some time, Uganda's expenditure on social protection initiatives has been low and stagnant, at 0.1 percent of GDP, compared to Kenya and Ethiopia at 0.3 percent and 0.7 percent of GDP, respectively (Holmes and Lwanga-Ntale 2012). This is partly because the SP agenda is largely donor-driven, and donors come up with the designs and funding for the projects.

From this perspective, this report provides an evidence review, a survey of supporting policy and regulatory frame works, an overview of actors, and a breakdown of the current and future streams of financing for social protection in Uganda. The purpose of this synthesis is to provide policy makers and implementers with a single report that combines all these issues together and also identifies gaps for action.

An extensive review of the grey literature was conducted together with Key Informant (KIs) interviews to inform this report. Annex 3 provides the KI questionnaire guide that was utilised in the engagements. The rest of the paper is organised as follows: section 2 reviews the grey literature with a focus on studies that have conducted impact evaluations in sub-Saharan Africa. In section 3, the paper highlights policies, programmes and stakeholders championing social protection. In addition, an analysis of the financing modalities of social protection is provided in section 4. The conclusions and way forward are presented in section 5.

2 PATHWAYS OF SOCIAL PROTECTION IN PRACTICE: A LITERATURE REVIEW

Social safety net interventions can reduce, or crowd out, informal social safety nets such as private transfers. Further, they may provide a disincentive for households to engage in new income-generating activities such as starting nonfarm own businesses (Berhane et al., 2014). However, other evidence argues that this is usually not the norm, asserting that SP that is well targeted has a greater positive impacts on the wellbeing of the beneficiary vulnerable populations and that it has additional spillovers.

This section brings together evidence on the emerging impacts of social protection programmes undertaken in sub-Saharan Africa. The focus is on interventions that had an impact evaluation component that can impact on future programme designs, including the targeting and implementation of on-going programmes in Uganda. We have categorised, by target group, the evidence from studies that directly targeted (i) young people and children; (ii) women and elderly persons; and (iii) economy-wide impacts and household wellbeing.[2]

2.1 Impact on the young and children

The relationships among children, gender, schooling, and poverty in the context of social protection have been widely studied (e.g., Alderman et al., 2012; Taylor et al., 2013; Pellerano et al., 2014; American Institutes for Research 2014). In these papers, children are often described as victims of the biased social systems they belong to, and, therefore, designed interventions have differing impacts that are often context-specific. For instance, Alderman et al. (2012) evaluated World Food Programme interventions in Northern Uganda's IDP camps that involved either providing school-going children with breakfast and lunch or giving them the same exact proportions to take home. The study showed that enrolment increased by 9 percentage points (pp) among schools offering meals at school

2 http://www.unicef.org/evaluation/files/Social_Protection_Evaluation_Synthesis_Final.pdf and https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/media/57a08a9d40f0b649740006ac/Social-protection-in-Africa_A-review-of-social-protection-issues-in-research.pdf

and that attendance, especially in the afternoon, increased by 13pp for both boys and girls regardless of the intervention among the older children.

In analysing Lesotho's Children's Grants Programme (CGP), Pellerano et al. (2014) found that enrolment at school increased by 5pp among 6-19 year olds. In Kenya, Taylor et al. (2013) found that unconditional cash transfers had a strong positive impact (19 pp) on enrolment among primary school-age children (aged 6-13 years) facing relatively high costs (defined as long distances to school, >2 km). Zambia's Child Grant Program led to increases of 7pp and 5pp in the number of children enrolled in and attending primary school, respectively (AIR, 2014). For Uganda, direct income support programmes (grants to both the elderly and to families) did not have an overall effect on education expenditures for beneficiary households (Merttens et al., 2016). However, an ex-post analysis shows that SAGE produced a 7pp increase in school attendance for children aged 7-12 years (MoGLSD, 2016b).

In Lesotho, the CGP improved primary school retention among children aged 13-17, particularly among boys, and the effect was higher among older children (Pelleranoet al. (2014). School feeding programmes reduced repetition for boys aged 6-13 years by at least one class and also reduced dropout rates by 4.2pp in Uganda (Alderman et al., 2012).

The CGP also had a significant impact on the proportion of pupils aged 6-19 years who owned uniforms and shoes Pellerano et al. (2014). The impact was even higher for children aged 6-12 years, with a gender bias in favour of boys (35pp). In particular, the number of beneficiary households that did not have enough food to meet their needs for at least one month in the previous 12 months decreased by 5pp (Pellerano et al., 2014). AIR (2014) also found that the number of households owning assets such as livestock increased by 17pp, while those owning chickens increased by 22 pp for CGP recipients in Zambia.

There was an increase of 22pp in the proportion of children aged 6-24 months receiving minimum feeding requirements (AIR 2014). The report further asserts that CGP did not reduce the rate of mortality and morbidity nor did it have an impact on stunting and wasting among children younger than 5 years in Zambia. Relatedly, childbirth registration increased by 37pp amongst children 0-6 for CGP households, and the morbidity rate decreased by 15pp among children aged 0-5 years regardless of gender (Pellerano et al., 2014).

There was an increase of $2.5 in pp in the squared poverty gap, and the indicator of the number of households having a second meal per day increased by 8pps (AIR 2014). Although the poverty rate among CGP recipient households in Lesotho decreased by 7pp, the results did not conclusively indicate that the programme had a statistically significant impact on poverty (Pelleranoet al. 2014). The MoGLSD (2016b) investment case for social protection impact, based on an ex-post analysis, shows that, overall, SAGE led to a decrease in the ratio of households with fewer than two meals per day by more than 11 pp, with no statistically significant impact on stunting. Nonetheless, the effect of SAGE on weight for height was positive and statistically significant in the short run for children under five by 0.86 standard deviations.

2.2 Impact on women and elderly persons

According to the UN-HABITAT (2009) report, gender is important in understanding vulnerability contexts because women and girls comprise 51.19 percent of the national population. Women play an important role not only in the national and urban economies but also in the social and environmental arenas. Women's triple gender roles – reproduction, economic and social roles, and responsibilities providing for their households and engaging in livelihood strategies – make them the cornerstone of household welfare.

Evidence from the evaluation of the Rwanda public works Vision 2020 Umurenge programme (VUP) shows that women were more constrained in terms of access to cash income sources, both from agricultural and non-agricultural activities (Pavanello et al., 2016). Furthermore, the authors argue that males are more likely to hold wage-paid jobs and have more decision-making power over cash income compared to women. On a similar note, Pellerano et al. (2014) find that the Child Grant programme's spill-over within beneficiary households in Lesotho did not appear to impact labour participation either positively or negatively, as the proportion of adults (18-59) and elderly (+59) who were active in the labour market in any activity increased marginally but significantly over time across groups. However, the programme seemed to have reduced the regularity of households' engagement in non-farm businesses, particularly home-breweries, and it also reduced the intensity of adults' participation in paid occasional and irregular work (Pellerano et al., 2014). However, Pavanello et al. (2016) find that participation in VUP positively enabled female beneficiaries to access wage labour and that men in both VUP and comparison households spent significantly longer hours than women (by factors of 2.3 and 2.7, respectively) on leisure time (a factor of 50 % - 75%).

Regarding food security, while evidence from Lesotho shows that beneficiaries improved their ability to produce food, particularly maize, there was no effect on the probability of households owning or planting land (Pellerano et al., 2014). Nonetheless, households' involvement in livestock activities appeared to be largely unaffected by the CGP (Pellerano et al., 2014). In addition, a higher proportion of households that engaged in livestock activities – compared to baseline households – also reported using and spending money on inputs (such as manufactured feed, fodder, etc.), with no significant differences between the treatment and control groups.

In Uganda, Merttens et al. (2016) evaluate the Social Assistance Grant for Empowerment (SAGE) programme. They find that elderly beneficiaries (more than general family grant beneficiary households) largely spent their transfers on food and other basic goods, with productive investments, health and education being the three other significant expenditures (approximately 54 % Vs 75%). Most of the grant was often used to purchase protein-rich foods (like meat, fish and milk) and to purchase (especially on payment days) personal hygiene items and clothing that families were previously unable to afford. Beneficiaries' self-esteem and psychosocial wellbeing improved, often enhancing the respect they received from others. On pay day, beneficiaries spent the majority of their Ushs50,000 paying off debts, and they were less likely to take on new debt (AIR, 2014; Merttens et al., 2016); they also purchased basic and luxury items or perhaps invested their funds, for instance in small livestock.

Merttens et al. (2016) also find that welfare increased by 9.5% for both the treatment and comparison groups and that the poverty headcount declined from 49% to 33% for elderly households and from 44% to 31% for family grant recipient households, and consumption per capita increased over time.

2.3 Multiplier effects on the economy and household well being

Studies of general household wellbeing and spill-over to the economy have mainly evaluated social cash transfer programmes. For instance, according to Boone et al. (2013), despite the expansion of the fertilizer and seed subsidy program, the social cash transfer recipients in Malawi tended not to directly benefit from it[3]. In addition, transfers led to an increase in sickle and axe ownership, while chicken ownership increased by over 50pp. In Ethiopia, households receiving 4 or 5 years of payments had predicted increases of 0.340 and 0.386 in total livestock ownership, respectively, and households receiving payments for 5 years saw an increase in their holdings of $221 (Berhane et al., 2014).

Boone at al. (2013) find an increase in time devoted to subsistence farming for household heads, however, the results were not significant. Nevertheless, the authors argue that this did not mean that the household was not devoting more time to productive activities, just that the household head in particular was not. Furthermore, there was no indication that time devoted to casual labour by household heads increased, suggesting that they were either well-off or were spending more time on leisure, nor did time devoted to household businesses or other employment increase significantly. As a result of the intervention, other adults in the household reduced their participation in casual labour by approximately 36pp, and they also reduced the number of days per month spent on casual labour (Boone at al., 2013). Berhane et al. (2014) find no evidence that longer participation in the programmes reduces the likelihood of entering into nonfarm own business activities.

3 Both the baseline and endline surveys were conducted during the "hunger season," while the midline survey occurred during the harvest season. In total, 751 households (386 treatment and 365 control) had complete questionnaires, and 51 eligible households were dropped due to incomplete survey information for all threerounds.

Berhane et al. (2014) evaluate a large-scale Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP) in rural Ethiopia whose aim was to provide cash transfers and food. The findings show that Public Works households that received payments for 3 years and 5 years had 0.22-month and 0.95-month improvements in food security, respectively. The impact of the latter, compared to receiving (virtually) nothing, is an increase in household food security of 1.288 months. This reduction is equivalent to reducing the length of the hunger season, which was 3.64 months (on average, in 2004) by more than one-third. In Malawi, the program had an impact on foods received as gifts, which often represent an informal social safety net. Furthermore, a change in gifting represents a change in household food security status (Boone at al., 2013).

In Lesotho, apart from the Child Grant Program (CGP) grant, approximately 15% of eligible households also benefited from the old age pension (OAP) transfer (Pellerano et al., 2014). In-kind assistance was also received by approximately 1 in 5 eligible households. In addition, the CGP had a significant impact on strengthening informal sharing arrangements in the community, particularly around food. Pellerano et al. (2014) highlight a reduction in the amount of private cash transfers beneficiary households received from non-resident members living abroad and from other family members.

Thome et al. (2014) simulate the Local Economy-wide Impact Evaluation (LEWIE) of Ethiopia's Social Cash Transfer Pilot Programme (SCTPP) on the local economy. The results demonstrated that for each dollar distributed in the Hintalo-Wajirat one region of the study area, an extra $1.52 was generated via local economic linkages, for a total income multiplier of $2.52. Similarly, each $ distributed in Abi-Adi generated an additional $0.35, for a total income multiplier of $1.35. Thus, the initial transfer of $5.58 million in Hintalo-Wajirat, and of $1.62 million in Abi-Adi, potentially generated $14.06 million and $2.19 million, respectively. Recipient households received the direct benefit of the transfer plus a small spillover effect of $0.02 (even smaller for Abi-Adi) per $ transferred. The non-recipient households benefited from spillovers to the amount of $1.5 ($0.35 for Abi-Adi) for every $ spent. Thus, because of their ownership of productive assets, the non-recipient households benefited from the SCTPP. With regard to production, cash transfers stimulated a positive impact on the production of crops by 0.2 birr per birr transferred, with even higher impacts on retail, which had a multiplier of $1.35 in rural Hintalo-Wajirat and $1.25 in Abi-Adi, per birr transferred.

Taylor et al. (2013) evaluate the Kenya cash transfer programme for orphans and vulnerable children (CT-OVC), which is aimed at encouraging fostering and retention of OVCs within their families and communities and at promoting human capital development. Simulation findings reveal that approximately $488,880 (Ksh 34.92 million) transferred at baseline produced a $655,060 (Ksh 46.79 million) increase in income for the Western region of Kenya, while the $148,960 (Ksh 10.64 million) transfers made at baseline in the Eastern region increased total income in the region by $269,640 (Ksh 19.26 million). However, while there was no evidence of a significant income multiplier for beneficiary households in the Western region, there was a positive spill over effect to the ineligible households of Ksh 0.12 per Ksh 1.0 transferred, such that the ineligible households' total income increased by $59,2200 (Ksh 4.23 million) even when they did not receive the transfer. For the Eastern region, the spillover effects were larger for ineligible households, where their nominal income rose by Ksh 0.23 per Ksh 1.0 transferred to the eligible households. The programme had positive impacts on production and assets – crops and livestock – with much higher impacts observed on retail trade, arising particularly from spillovers from the ineligible households (Taylor et al. 2013). Thus, it was noted that while ineligible households did not directly benefit from the OVC transfers, they tended to be better positioned – in terms of capital and labour – to increase their production in response to higher local demand for goods and services.

In Uganda, SAGE had multiplier effects. MoGSLD (2016b) reveal that for every 1 pp decrease in the ratio of households eating fewer than two meals in a day in non-SAGE districts, the programme led to a 2.13 pp decrease in this ratio, a 2.79 pp increase in the ratio of students attending school, and a 1.47 pp increase in the employment rate.The median wage increased 3.61 times more for SAGE districts than for non-SAGE districts.

Upcoming evidence from Uganda

- Reisen (2016),[4] in the 'Cost-benefit analysis of cash transfer programmes and post trauma services for the economic empowerment of women in Uganda,' will examine the extent to which a combination of cash transfers and trauma support addresses trauma and has an impact on the sustainable economic independence of highly traumatized women in Northern Uganda.

- This research project on 'Building the economic case for investment in social protection in Uganda' compares the cost-effectiveness of the Expanding Social Protection (ESP) flagship programme, the Social Assistance Grants for Empowerment (SAGE) and alternative social protection programmes (Gassmann, 2015). The main objective is to generate empirical evidence on the impact of social transfers on the development of human capital, improvement in household productive capacities, and local economic outcomes.

Conclusion

Generally, the results suggest that cash transfer programs should be recognised as part of a comprehensive strategy for agricultural development, in combination and coordinated with interventions that are specific to the agricultural sector. This is because, for instance, the large-scale fertilizer subsidy in Malawi had national and house-level impacts, yet it does not reach the very poorest households. Beyond their impact on productivity in the agricultural sector, Social Protection programmes that target groups such as the elderly have helped to boost expenditures on education and health and also help boost the social esteem of recipients in the communities. Specific interventions targeting women have led to improved health for children in those households. Spillovers have been observed in terms of self-employment through micro business start-ups. In terms of research knowledge and gaps, it is noted that there is wealth of literature examining institutional capacity and coordination at national levels but much less research at the decentralised levels. Moreover, key areas of knowledge in the literature include political economy analyses of commitment to social protection and, increasingly, the role of social protection in contributing to stability and social cohesion. Emerging areas for future in-depth analysis include the role of transparent and accountable mechanisms, the role of non-state actors, how research on social protection could influence or has influenced policy, and the role of "traditional social protection mechanisms" in particular.

Finally, the social protection programmes reviewed in this subsection had spillover impacts on other vulnerable categories of persons, despite the programme having targeted a specific group. It must be noted that SP programmes are expensive to implement and sustain. Governments must take this into consideration as they plan the financing stream of SP initiatives prior to rolling them out. To ensure sound public financial management and implementation, policy makers should note that once an expenditure programme providing subsidies or transfers is established, it can be extremely difficult to cut back those entitlements, even when the fiscal situation deteriorates.

3 POLICIES, PROGRAMMES AND STAKEHOLDERS IN SOCIAL PROTECTION: WHO BENEFITS?

3.1 Policies and programmes review

Global and regional level

Globally, Uganda must meet the Agenda 2030 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), and social protection measures have a role to play in attaining them. According to GoU (2016), social protection is embedded in 14 out of 17 SDGs, and measures put in place to achieve each of the indicators in the SDGs are vital in reducing people's vulnerabilities. For instance, a number of Ugandans suffer from food insecurity due to weather anomalies and thus go hungry, which

4 http://includeplatform.net/wp-content/uploads/2016/05/Van-Reisen_interim-findings.pdf

limits their full participation in economic activities/ production. In addition, most vulnerable groups in Uganda, especially women, are not adequately educated, which limits their understanding of the operation modalities of available information. Being unable to operate mobile phones, for example, makes women technologically vulnerable. The need for pro-poor interventions to ensure that poor people are included is important for meeting the Agenda 2030 aspirations.

Africa's Agenda 2063 (2015) encourages member states to adopt minimum social protection policies covering the following dimensions: essential health care, social insurance, social welfare, employment guarantees and non-contributory cash transfer schemes for children, informal workers, the unemployed, the elderly and persons with disabilities (AU, 2015). Notably, at the national level, African countries must provide at least 30 percent of their vulnerable populations (including persons with disabilities, older persons and children) with social protection; they must provide persons working in the formal sector with social security, and at least 20 percent of those working in the informal sector and in rural labour must have access to social security (AU 2015).An example of an area requiring scale-up financing for the first ten-year implementation plan of Agenda 2063 is the minimum social protection policy(e.g., cash transfers to poor households).

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) is based on dignity, equality and fairness. The law stresses that all human beings are born with equal and inalienable rights and fundamental freedoms, and thus social protection measures help to foster this in practice.

Broad national-level policies and plans

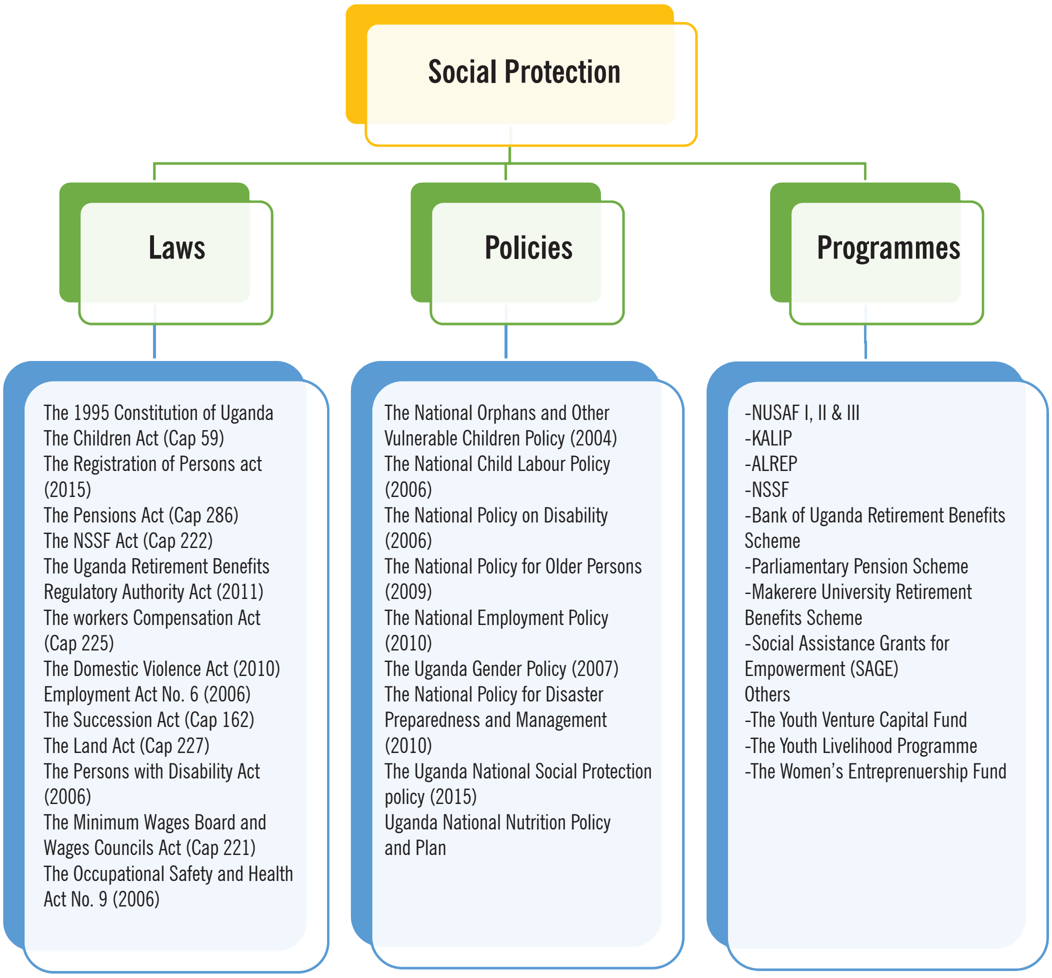
The 1995 Constitution of the Republic of Uganda provides for the protection and promotion of fundamental human rights and freedoms in its Chapter four. Furthermore, some of the objectives of the constitution, such as objectives VII, XI (i) and XIV (b), succinctly outline aspects directly related to protecting the rights of Ugandans. With this as a basis, it is noted that SP is anchored in several laws and policies in Uganda (see Figure 2).Figure 2 summarizes some of the known SP initiatives taking place in the country.

Vision 2040 clearly articulates the importance of social protection in addressing risks and vulnerabilities by age, social class, gender, climate disaster exposure and cultural norms. This is to be achieved through national programmes targeting elderly persons in both formal and informal employment, through social assistance to children and disabled persons, and by offering national health insurance as a strategy to provide affordable health services for all.

Using Vision 2040, the government developed the National Development Plans (NDPs), five-year plans that will be developed over the course of the vision's time frame. Currently, the second NDP2015/16-2019/20 identifies social protection as an avenue for transforming Uganda and achieving middle-income status by 2020. Specifically, NDP II sets out 8 interventions to realise this Vision. These include(i) expanding the scope and coverage of social security services to include the informal sector; (ii) expanding labour-intensive public works to poor and vulnerable households; (iii) promoting access to social care and support services for Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVC), Persons With Disabilities (PWDs) and older persons; (iv) promoting and protecting the rights of vulnerable groups, including children and PWDs, and protecting older persons against abuse, exploitation, violence and neglect; (v) strengthening the scope of social assistance grants to vulnerable groups; (vi) promoting the formulation of legal frameworks for vulnerable persons at all levels; (vii) enhancing social rehabilitation; and (viii) establishing the National Council for Older Persons.

Various policies have been implemented to support social protection programme planning and implementation. Figure 1 summarizes some of these.

Figure 1: **Social protection polices, regulations and programmes in Uganda**



Source: Authors' own compilation, 2016

As a result, sector-specific policies and plans have been passed to implement the Constitution, Vision 2040 and NDPs.

The policy most directly relevant to this discussion is perhaps the National Social Protection Policy (NSPP). The government, through the MoGLSD, developed and passed the NSPP in November 2015, together with a Programme Plan of Interventions for Implementation of the NSPP 2015/16-2019/20, to collectively address and guide other policies and programmes that address aspects of Social Protection. The NSSP envisions a society in which all individuals are secure and resilient to socio-economic risks and shocks. It aims at providing comprehensive social protection services to address risks and vulnerabilities. Thus, the three major objectives of the policy are (1) to increase access to social security; (2) to enhance care, protection and support for vulnerable people; and (3) to strengthen the institutional framework for social protection service delivery. The SP policy has seven priority areas of focus. They are (a) to reform the public pension scheme; (b) to expand social security services in the private sector to include the provision of pensions; (c) to develop appropriate social security products for the informal sector; (d) to introduce an affordable health insurance scheme; (e) to expand access to direct income support for vulnerable groups in need; (f) to strengthen family and community capacity to provide for children, persons with disabilities, older persons and other individuals in need of care; and (g) to enhance institutional capacity for the provision of comprehensive social protection services (MoGLSD, 2016a).

The Programme Plan for Interventions (PPI) was passed to implement the NSPP. The PPI aims at improving the delivery of social protection services in Uganda by i) expanding the scope and coverage of contributory social security; ii) expanding the provision of direct income support to vulnerable individuals and households; iii) enhancing the provision of holistic social care and support services to individuals and families at risk of social exclusion, neglect or abuse; and iv) strengthening the institutional framework for coordinated social protection service delivery. The PPI also proposes to do this through: i) improving the accessibility, effectiveness and efficiency of contributory social security; ii) improving compliance with legislation on mandatory social security contributions; iii) enhancing access to direct income support for vulnerable groups affected by specific life-cycle risks and external shocks; iv) promoting Direct Income Support (DIS); v) integrating DIS into local planning and service delivery frameworks; vi) strengthening the capacity for delivery of social care and support services at all levels; vii) promoting community-based response; viii) promoting specialised social care and support services; and ix) enhancing institutional capacity for the design, management, coordination and monitoring of Social Protection.

Other supporting policies include the Education Policy; the Government white paper on education; the Gender-in-Education policy and the Amended National Youth Policy 2016. The Public Finance Management Act 2015 comes into play to ensure accountability and limited leakage of public funds. In this article, we will not detail each of these policies and the aspects of social protection interventions they contain. A detailed analysis of these policies is undertaken in the NSSP (MoGLSD, 2015). Nonetheless, that policy review shows a limited use of research and evidence beyond the descriptive statistics and situational analysis, and the practical functionality of some of the suggested interventions is not well articulated.

3.2 Addressing social protection: The country context

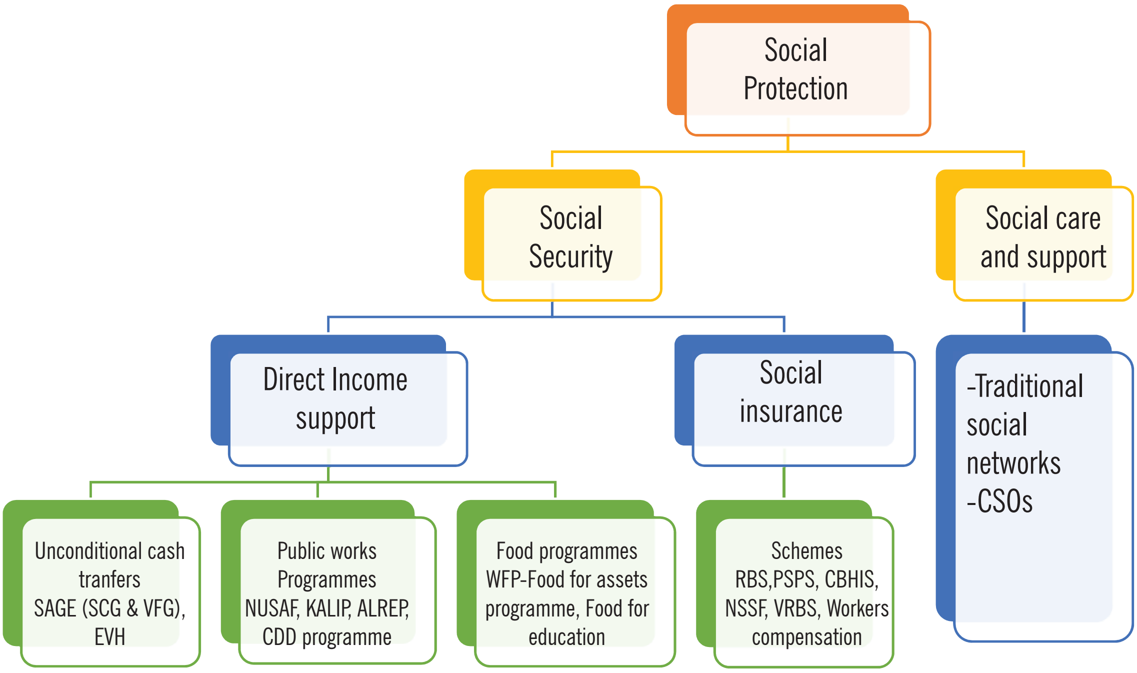
According to MoGLSD (2016b), social protection interventions have been classified into two broad groups, those that address social security and those that address social care and support. The interventions being undertaken largely fall under these categories (Figure 2).Under social security, there are two sub-categories: Direct Income Support-DIS (including aspects of programmes tackling unconditional cash transfers, public works programmes and food programmes) and social insurance (which mainly comprises all pension or compensation schemes that address both the private and public sectors). The second category is social care and support, which encompasses traditional social networks (family support systems and community-driven initiatives such as Voluntary Savings and Loans Associations & Rotating Savings and Credit Associations) and Civil Society Organisation (CSOs) activities.

On the one hand, under DIS, unconditional cash transfer programmes include the now-nationally implemented Social Assistance Grant for Empowerment's (SAGE) Senior Citizens Grant (SCG) and (previously) the Vulnerable Family Grant (VFG)[5] and the Extremely Vulnerable Households (EVH) programme. Public Works programmes include the Northern Uganda Social Action Fund (NUSAF) I, II & III; the Karamoja Livelihoods Improvement Programme (KALIP and the Agricultural Livelihoods Recovery Programme (ALREP), mainly for the Acholi and Lango sub-regions and excluding the Karamoja sub region. A synopsis of the programmes' status is provided in Annex 2-Table A.1. Other than the SAGE programme, all other initiatives are being coordinated directly under the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM). Almost all programmes are being implemented in Northern Uganda, a region classified as the most vulnerable that is still recovering from 20 years of civil conflict and cattle rustling. However, this classification should be revisited given the changing livelihood patterns across the country and high population growth, especially in eastern Uganda, where stunting and poverty rates are equally high.

On the other hand, ongoing social insurance schemes include the Retirement Benefits Scheme (RBS), the Public Service Pension Scheme (PSPS), Community-Based Health Insurance (BBHI) Schemes, Private Health Insurance Arrangements (such as AAR, Jubilee, AIG and others), the National Social Security Fund (NSSF), Voluntary Retirement Benefit Schemes (VRBS) such as the Bank of Uganda Retirement Benefits Scheme, Parliamentary Pension Scheme and

5 This was discontinued due to lack of popularity among the beneficiaries during the pilot phase. Thus, all VFGs target groups are now receiving SCG if they qualify.

Figure 2: **Classification of social protection**



Source: Adopted from MoGLSD, 2016

Makerere University Retirement Benefits Scheme) and workers' compensation (in case of firm closure, accident, gratuity and others). Figure 2 summarizes this discussion succinctly. Specific interventions – particularly social insurance targeting the informal sector – are not yet well documented.

There has been limited use of impact evaluation findings in guiding policy and intervention frameworks in Uganda. Use of situation analysis is the most commonly applied approach in guiding social protection policies and related interventions, and it is not sufficient. In addition, the initiatives in place do not have an impact evaluation measurement built in from the beginning, which makes it difficult to evaluate programme success midway or at the end, as benchmarks in the form of baselines are non-existent. So far, only the scaling up of SCG at the national level has an embedded evaluation component, which was developed based on evidence from the first round of programme successes. In addition, limited evidence to-date in Uganda on what works and does not work in social protection approaches could explain the dismal usage of social protection evidence-based research in policy and programme theorisation and implementation.

Social Assistance Grants for Empowerment: Current status in implementation

The Expanding Social Protection Programme (ESPP), with its goal of reducing poverty by establishing a sustainable national social protection system, was started in 2010 under the MoGLSD with a full secretariat and a full-time staff to run it. Specifically under the ESPP, the social protection programme that is now being implemented nationally – and whose objectives are aligned to the NSSP – is an unconditional cash transfer scheme termed the Social Assistance Grants for Empowerment (SAGE). This program began in 2010 as a pilot in 14 of the poorest districts in Uganda[6] with funding[7] from United Kingdom-Aid through the Department for International Development (DFID), Irish Aid and UNICEF. The additional 15th district (Yumbe) was funded by the government during this initial phase. Thus, the programme was designed around two components:

- policy support focusing on strengthening

6 These areKiboga, Kaberamaido, Kyenjojo, Nebbi, Apac, Katakwi, Moroto, Nakapiripirit, Kyegegwa, Kyankwanzi, Kole, Zombo, Napak, and Amudat.
7 DFID (£51.5 million), Irish Aid (£7 million) and the GoU (£3.51 million, mainly via in-kind contributions including office space and staff time). UNICEF provided initial in-kind support for household registration in SAGE pilot districts.

leadership on social protection across the government, developing a national social protection policy, generating evidence on the impacts of social protection, and building government commitment and investment in social protection; and

- the implementation of a cash transfer pilot – SAGE – to generate evidence of impact and establish and test delivery systems for a national system of direct income transfers. SAGE piloted two cash transfers – a Senior Citizens Grant (SCG)to people aged 65 years and over (60 years in Karamoja), and a Vulnerable Families Grant (VFG)that targeted labour-constrained households.

SAGE provides direct income support of Ush 25,000 per month via the MTN Mobile Money service to approximately 113,000 direct beneficiaries. At the end of the pilot in 2015, an impact evaluation was undertaken,[8]the findings of which have greatly informed the scaling-up of the programme in 2015/16 -2019/20 (over the NDP II planning period). During this second phase, the government is taking on a bigger role in owning the programme, as an indication that it is responsible for its citizens' wellbeing. Furthermore, only the Senior Citizens Grant (SCG) is being implemented due to the unpopularity of the VFG during the pilot phase. Box 1 details the process of scaling up the SCG nationally during the second phase of programme implementation.

Box 1: Rolling out of the SCG under ESPP II

The scaling up of SCG will consider

1. Impact on old age poverty and vulnerability: the higher the level of coverage, the higher the positive impact will be.
2. Affordability: the overall cost of the scheme needs to be affordable in the short- and long-term.
3. Social and political acceptability: the programme needs to be rolled out in a manner that is socially and politically acceptable.

From 2016 to 2020, the SCG will be rolled out in 40 additional districts not covered by the SAGE pilot, covering all sub-counties in the district. However, in 2015/16, only 20 new districts will be added: Kaabong, Abim, Kotodo, Koboko, Gulu, Pader, Agago, Lamwo, Amolatar, Pallisa, Amuria, Kween, Namayingo, Mayuge, Kamuli, Kayunga, Nakasongola, Kibaale, Kisoro and Bundibugyo. The other 20 will be added in phases, five per year up to 2019/20. The oldest 100 eligible senior citizens in each sub-county will be enrolled in the first five years, with coverage increasing within sub-counties between 2021 and 2025 to achieve full national coverage.

As in ESPP I, the government (GoU) will fund the Yumbe district fully while the remaining 14 pilot districts will continue to be funded by development partners. The key issue now is that SCG will be implemented in all former VFG pilot sub-counties.

ESP II is expected to reach 226,085 direct beneficiaries by 2020. The age eligibility criteria for ESPP I will be maintained; however, senior citizens who are eligible for benefits under the Public Service Pension Scheme will not be eligible for the SCG.

The beneficiary entitlement of Ush 25,000 per month from ESP I will remain, indexed to inflation. However, SAGE will shift to a flexible payment system with multiple low-cost pay points available.

Source: Expanding Social protection Programme (ESPP) Phase II, MoGLSD

Regarding functionality, SCG II targets the 100 oldest persons at the sub-county level rather than all older persons above 65 years as mandated by the 1995 constitution of the Republic of Uganda and the NSPP. The beneficiaries must have a National Identification Card that demonstrates (using birth date registered) that he/she indeed qualifies for the cash grant. All pensionable older persons do not automatically qualify for this grant. According to key informants, this targeting approach will not achieve social inclusion, as the likelihood of the most vulnerable older persons being left out is high. However, the government argues that due to financial constraints and the political economy of every Member of Parliament (MP) seeking what is best for their constituency, the 100 oldest persons model was employed to appease MPs. Evidence shows that universal targeting, rather than piecemeal targeting, is not only cheaper in implementation but also achieves higher returns in terms of reducing the vulnerabilities of the most needy (MoGLSD, 2016b).

8 Merttens et al. 2016

Conclusion

In conclusion, while social protection has fully taken root in Uganda, the integrated focus has been on the elderly who have no pension. To a certain extent, there has been a focus on women and youth, but direct child-focused social protection cash transfer programmes are totally non-existent. The social protection child-related programmes are piecemeal and largely driven by UNICEF and USAID. Simply put, the Government has relegated its duty with regard to children's well-being to donors. Furthermore, many broad national-level strategies, plans, policies and programmes are in place; however, the challenge lies in obtaining their desired effects downstream, or simply put, there are "implementation deficits". Without a doubt, social protection issues have received much more attention in recent times, with increasing vulnerabilities arising from widening income inequalities amidst poverty reduction and climate change, which has exacerbated food insecurity and malnutrition, especially among the uneducated and unemployed. However, the abilities of the interventions to address the various exacerbating vulnerabilities are still in question. This is because programmes under government control are marred by governance challenges, corruption, and political interference in implementation; they are not well targeted, they are poorly financed, and they have dysfunctional institutional frameworks. Furthermore, implementation and enforcement of the programmes is not directly informed by evidence from research, making it difficult to plan for future interventions and sustainability.

Well-functioning institutions – that are independent of political interference when implementing their visions and ensuring that social protection matters – are of critical importance.

3.3 Stakeholder engagement in the social protection agenda

The MoGLSD is the major stakeholder on behalf of the government; it manages all social protection activities with regard to vulnerable groups in the country to ensure inclusiveness. To achieve this, the ministry has divided the population into age groups along which the various departments (and hence subsequent policies and plans) within the ministry are formed. These are Youth and Children; Gender and Women's affairs; Disability and Elderly; Equity and Rights; Labour and Employment Services; Occupational Safety and Health; and Family &Culture Affairs. Some of these are full directorates (Social protection, Gender and community and Labour) with substantive directors (who report to the Permanent Secretary) and Ministers of State. Thus, according to the ministry, all interventions targeting these segments of the population along the departmental lines thus address social protection. In addition, individuals – both technocrats and policy actors championing these groups – are considered stakeholders in advocating for the rights of vulnerable groups in Uganda.

Figure 3 presents the key actors that are the drivers of change in promoting one or more versions or visions of social protection development in Uganda. We categorise these into Government, Development partners, Civil Society Organisations and others. The Cabinet committee that provides social protection oversight and policy direction includes ministers from OPM, MoGLSD, MoFPED, MoPS, MoH, MoES, MAAIF, MoLG and the Ministry of Justice and Constitutional Affairs (MJCA).

Figure 3: **Key actors in Uganda's social protection agenda**

Government	Development partners	Civil Society	Others
• MoGLSD • OPM (Refugees, Karamoja, NUSAF, etc) • MoPS • UBRA • NPA • MoH • MoFPED • MoLG (Community mobilization) • Ministry of Works and Transport • MoWE • Equal Opportunities Commision	• DFID • Irish Aid • World Bank • UNICEF • Save the Children • WFP • USAID	• Uganda Social Protection Platform (Uganda NGO Forum, DRT, Help Age International, Platform for Labour Action, UWONET etc) • World Vision • Uganda Parliamentary Forum for Social Protection • Religious institutions • SACCOs	• Business Associations (e.g., Federation of Uganda Employers-Policy engagement, helping setting in-house schemes, etc) • Workers' organizations • Families and communities • Cultural institutions • Academia and research institutions

Notes: Validation mapping exercise from stakeholder consultative meeting held on October 20, 2016.

Source: Authors' own compilation, 2016

Each of the stakeholders plays a specific role in the SP agenda. Specifically,

- Parliament –These table, debate and pass legal frameworks and undertake advocacy through the Uganda Parliamentary Forum on Social Protection (UPFSP)
- Uganda Beneficiary and Regulatory Authority (UBRA) – Undertakes regulatory framework, Monitoring &Evaluation of all social insurance schemes
- MoGLSD – Policy and coordination, research and advocacy
- OPM – Monitoring and Evaluation
- MoFPED – Budgeting and financing
- Umbrella schemes –Collect, invest and pay pensions
- Local Governments (LGs) –Managing, processing and payment at the community level
- SACCOs –Collect, manage, invest and pay
- Academia and Think Tanks – research and publication
- CSOs – Research and advocacy

However, what is also important to note here is what is missing from current debates over SP, except at the very margins. In particular, Uganda tends to be a signatory to various international and regional policies and regulatory frameworks, rather than ensuring that social protection is seen as being an integral part of its own political economy.

4. WHO FINANCES SOCIAL PROTECTION?

Analysis of the MTEF data from the social development sector reveals that Domestic Development expenditures receive the highest share of resource allocations in MoGLSD. This trend is likely to increase over the period of the National Development Plan 2015/16-2019/20. The increase is likely driven by the Youth Livelihood Programme and the Uganda Women's Entrepreneurship Programme, both of which have secretariats at the Ministry. More specifically, the scaling up of SAGE, particularly the DIS project (dubbed the SCG), also explains the approved domestic development expenditure increase in 2016/17 to 79.5 percent from 54.6 percent in 2015/16,as well as the subsequent fiscal year projections (Table 1).

The Local Government Social Development vote function comprises three budget lines: (i) the District Functional Adult Literacy Grant, (ii) the District Women, Youth, and Disability Councils Grant, and (iii) Community Based Rehabilitation/Public Libraries. These collectively receive 10 percent of the total budget expenditure to social services, which subsequently declines in future budgets (Table1). Given that services are executed through the decentralised structures, financial support should be highest at this level. The effectiveness/ ineffectiveness of social development programmes are a reflection of the funds allocated to these activities. Much needs to be done to streamline resources for this vote function.

Table 1: **Share of Social Development Sector MTEF 2014/15 - 2018/19 budget, %**

	MoGLSD	EOC	LG- SD	KCCA-SD Grant	Total (Ushs.Bn)
2014/15 Outurn					
Wage	3.4	2.1	-	-	3.97
Non-wage Recurrent	24.3	1.9	10.0	0.2	26.01
Domestic Development	57.5	0.4	-	-	41.02
Total excl. External Financing	85.3	4.5	10.0	0.2	71.30
2015/16 Approved					
Wage	2.6	2.8	-	-	4.89
Non-wage Recurrent	29.9	1.5	7.9	0.2	35.67
Domestic Development	54.6	0.4	-	-	49.60
Total excl. External Financing	87.2	4.7	7.9	0.2	90.17
2016/17 Approved					
Wage	1.8	1.5	-	-	6.40
Non-wage Recurrent	11.5	1.8	3.7	0.1	32.80
Domestic Development	79.5	0.2	-	-	153.09
Total excl. External Financing	92.7	3.5	3.7	0.1	192.29
2017/18 Projected					
Wage	1.7	1.5	-	-	6.40
Non-wage Recurrent	11.0	1.7	3.6	0.1	32.80
Domestic Development	76.3	0.1	-	-	153.09
Total excl. External Financing	89.0	3.3	3.6	0.1	200.29
2018/19 Projected					
Wage	1.6	1.4	-	-	6.72
Non-wage Recurrent	10.7	3.4	3.4	0.1	36.08
Domestic Development	77.0	0.2	-	-	185.26
Total excl. External Financing	89.3	3.1	3.4	0.1	228.05

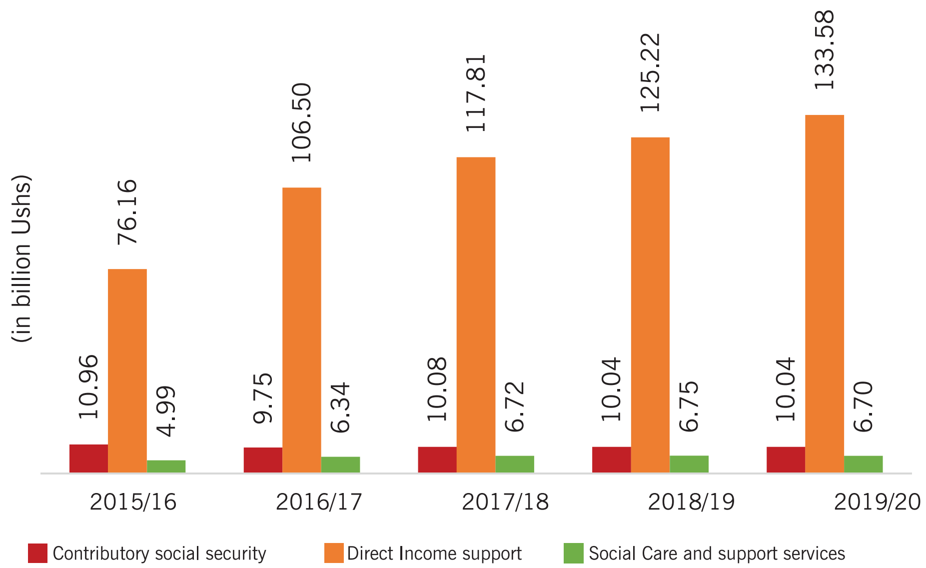
Notes: **SD**-Social Development; **EOC**-Equal Opportunities Commission, **LG**-Local Government

Source: Background to the Budget, MoFPED, 2016

Under the MTEF, for the next five years, expenditure is geared mainly towards the SAGE. This is a major focus of the government under the Expanding Social Protection (ESP) Programme Phase II. Figure 3 shows that government commitment to social protection is skewed towards the Direct Income Support (DIS) activities, in particular the Senior Citizens Grant (SCG). Elderly persons are being provided with Ush 25,000 on a monthly basis; however, only the 100 oldest persons at the sub-county level are eligible to receive this grant. The increase in the share of DIS reflects the level of scale-up by the government at the district level. The scale up has been driven by the evaluation findings from the SAGE programme, coupled with the political aspirations of Members of Parliament to see that their own constituencies benefit from the initiative. However, the financing in MTEF (including donor funding) that is monitored through the Public Finance Management Act (2015) and is expected to be incorporated into Sector Wide Approaches (SWAPs) is still dismal. Simply put, funding of interventions by development partners is still dismal, and there is limited government commitment to the cause.

However, based on evidence from MoGLSD (2016b) using micro-simulations of the SCG national roll out, it is argued that in the medium term, as the fiscal burden increases due to the gradual expansion of the SCG, it will be necessary to allocate 20% of the collected resources to cover the cost of the SCG. However, this evidence also indicates that in the medium to long-term, after the programme reaches its full scale, less than 10% of the revenues would guarantee the affordability of the SCG if expanded to the national level. In addition, every 1% of GDP spent on the SCG will lead to an approximately 10% reduction in the poverty gap, hence value for money in achieving the Country's long term vision. Nonetheless, given the dwindling sector financing as postulated in the National Budget Framework Paper 3017/18, the likelihood of this actually happening is in question.

Figure 3: **Budgeted cost of implementation SP by major sub-category (in billion Ushs.)**



Source: National Social Protection Policy, MoGLSD 2015

5. CONCLUSION AND THE WAY FORWARD

The synthesis report shows that Uganda has many vulnerable groups, as highlighted in the introduction (children, women, widows, persons with disabilities (PWDs) etc.). While SP programmes offer an opportunity to address these vulnerabilities, the extent to which the desired programme implementation is fiscally sustainable in the Ugandan context, where the revenue base is narrow, is doubtful. In addition, through the articulation of a social policy framework, important steps have been undertaken in Uganda to ensure that social protection is conceived within a wider and more inclusive social policy framework and one that prioritizes social policy and social protection in Uganda. The institutions responsible for spearheading social protection are inadequate, as vulnerability is still high and uncoordinated interventions are still the norm, creating a "business-as-usual" scenario with no operational guidelines. In addition, with so many supporting policies and regulatory frameworks in place, their clear lack of harmonization shows that the Government and institutions have no clear sets of goals or sense of direction. The limited success of social protection initiatives has resulted from certain actors that seem to have double roles in championing the social protection agenda in Uganda (country needs vis-à-vis donor needs).

The Government's commitment to social development is reflected in the increasing, albeit narrowly increasing, expenditure on domestic development activities undertaken by the MoGLSD. The scaling up of DIS's Senior Citizens Grant is a step in the right direction; however, with the stagnating expenditure support for social development activities, the impact and sustainability of the programmes have to be reviewed in a more pragmatic way, beyond the political environment that surrounds programme implementation; people who benefit from these grants through decentralised systems should be targeted specifically. The local government's social development funds are too small to enable the success of the programmes being run at this level.

The way forward

- Increase funding to Local Government Social development activities. Strengthening LG structures to fulfil this social support mandate at the grassroots level will require expanding expenditure support to these categories. However, it is essential to create awareness, especially among the stakeholders in the informal sector, to specifically ensure that social protection/ development programmes are inclusive of workers in the informal sector and rural areas.

- Institutional coordination and collaboration. Expand the mandates of the SAGE Secretariat and LG structures. Currently, the social protection authority that is in place and recognised is the Expanding Social Protection Programme (ESPP) under MoGLSD and the Uganda Beneficiary and Regulatory Authority (UBRA). These two institutions need to coordinate their activities; hence the former should be given a stronger mandate to coordinate all social protection-related programmes and funds at the national level beyond SAGE.

- Engage stakeholders when developing programme concepts and include the informal sector as well. Understanding and engaging with the movers and shakers in government to put SP at the top of the agenda is important. For instance, MFPED can increase the funding of SP from 2 percent to 10 percent. In addition, enhance compliance and enforcement for institutions such as NSSF; simplify and popularise SP interventions; foster coordination of all SP interventions; undertake impact evaluation studies of all SP programmes in place and those that are in the pipeline; and create awareness, especially among the stakeholders in the informal sector. Specifically, ensure that SP programmes are inclusive of workers in the informal sector and rural areas.

- Liberalisation of the pension sector: Liberalisation of the pension sector is necessary to achieve the desired impact, especially in terms of fostering savings. There is a need for reforms where ALL employers contribute to staff benefits (currently

NSSF follows up with those who have 5 employees +) while ensuring that such reforms do not scare away investors. Also, encourage informal sector contributions as a measure of inclusiveness to extend coverage to this vulnerable group.

- Use of evidence in programmes. Improve use of evidence in programme conceptualization, implementation, and evaluation. Research should focus more on impact evaluation to identify and optimize those investments that offer value for the money and foster inclusive development to ensure no one is left behind.

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ANNEX

Annex I: Sustainable Development Goals

- Goal 1. End poverty in all its forms everywhere.
- Goal 2. End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture.
- Goal 3. Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages.
- Goal 4. Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all.
- Goal 5. Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls.
- Goal 6. Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all.
- Goal 7. Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all.
- Goal 8. Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all.
- Goal 9. Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation.
- Goal 10. Reduce inequality within and among countries.
- Goal 11. Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable
- Goal 12. Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns.
- Goal 13. Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts.
- Goal 14. Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development.
- Goal 15. Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss.
- Goal 16. Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels.
- Goal 17. Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the global partnership for sustainable development.

Annex 2

Table A.1: **Synopsis of public works programmes in Uganda by funding source and status**

Programme	Period	Objectives	Funding Source	Project cost	Region	Monitoring& Evaluation
NUSAF 3	May 27, 2015 to December 31, 2020	The development objective of the Third Northern Uganda Social Action Fund (NUSAF 3) Project for Uganda is to provide effective income support to and build the resilience of poor and vulnerable households in Northern Uganda. The project comprises of four components. • Labour-intensive public works (LIPW) and disaster risk financing. • Livelihood investment support aimed at supporting poor and vulnerable households increase their productive assets and incomes. • Strengthening transparency, accountability, and anti-corruption (TAAC) • Safety net mechanisms and project management	World Bank	US$ 130.00 million	Northern Uganda	
NUSAF 2	May 28, 2009 to February 29, 2016	The development objective of the Second Northern Uganda Social Action Fund Project (NUSAF2) is to improve access of beneficiary households in Northern Uganda to income earning opportunities and better basic socio-economic services. There are three components to the project. • Livelihood investment support-through supporting community based public works program (PWP), income generating activities, provision of skills for creation of self-employment and productive assets for targeted poor community households. • Community infrastructure rehabilitation. • Institutional development by financing activities at the national, district, sub-county and community levels	World Bank	US$ 100.00 million	Northern Uganda	Moderately satisfactory in achieving the project objectives
NUSAF 1	July 23, 2002 to March 31, 2009	The Northern Uganda Social Action Fund Project (NUSAF 1) aimed to empower communities by enhancing their capacity to systematically identify, prioritize, and plan for their needs and implement sustainable development initiatives that improve socio-economic services and opportunities. The project consisted of four components. • Community demand initiative component. • Vulnerable group support will identify the vulnerable groups and CSOs, NGOs, and private sector agencies in order to develop strategies likely to contribute to their poverty alleviation. • Provide support and encourage communities to identify innovative ways for community reconciliation and conflict management using traditional and non-traditional approaches, based on indigenous knowledge • Institutional development- training and capacity building for different sets of stakeholders.	World Bank	US$ 133.50 million		It was rated to be satisfactory in achieving project outcomes

Programme	Period	Objectives	Funding Source	Project cost	Region	Monitoring& Evaluation
ALREP I operating under PRDP II	9 March 2009 and will end on 9 March 2015	Northern Uganda Agricultural Recovery Programme (ALREP) aimed at supporting livelihoods recovery in the war affected areas of Acholi, Lango and Teso, supporting the enhancement of productive assets for agriculture through labour intensive works approaches, training farmers through the Farmer Field Schools (FFS) methodology, supporting the transition to a commercial agriculture sector, and building the capacity of production departments in Local Governments (LG).	European Union	€ 20 million	Acholi and Lango sub regions	moderately satisfactory
KALIP I operating under PRDP II	9 March 2009 and will end on 9 March 2015	Given the different climatic, cultural and historic background of Karamoja, as compared to Northern Uganda, the focus of KALIP is placed on improving livestock health, on improving crop production to address immediate food security and basic incomes, and on enhancing general peace and security in areas that are being resettled and re-establish their production capacity. In light of drier climate and the importance of the livestock sector, special emphasis is placed on water for production infrastructure.	European Union	€ 15 million	Karamoja sub region	Satisfactory
ALREP II operating under PRDP III		Same objectives as in ALREP I	11th European Development Fund (EDF)		Acholi and Lango sub regions	Started in June 2016
KALIP II operating under PRDPIII		Same objectives as in KALIP I	11th European Development Fund (EDF)		Karamoja	Started in June 2016
PRDP I, II & III			GoU			

Source: Authors' own compilation

Table A.2: **Synthesized impact evaluation literature by country and funding source**

Author (s)	Year	Study title	Country of Study	Social Protection programme	Cost per individual or household	Funder (s)	Year of Baseline	Year of Follow-up	URL
Berhane, G., Gilligan, O. D., Hoddinott, J., Kumar, N., and A. S. Taffesse.	2014	Can Social Protection Work in Africa? The Impact of Ethiopia's Productive Safety Net Programme	Ethiopia	Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP)		World Bank, DFID, USAID and CGIAR	June–August 2006,	2nd -round late May and early July 2008; 3rd round in June and July 2010	
Berhane, G., Devereux, S., Hoddinott, J., NegaTegebu, F., Roelen, K. and Schwab, B	2012	Evaluation of the Social Cash Transfers Pilot Programme Tigray Region, Ethiopia_ Baseline Report	Ethiopia	Social Cash Transfer Pilot Program (SCTPP)		UNICEF	Quantitative data, May-June 2012; Qualitative data July-August 2012		
Thome, K., Taylor, J.E., Davis, B. and Alfani, F.	2014	Local Economy-wide Impact Evaluation (LEWIE) of Ethiopia's Social Cash Transfer Pilot Programme	Ethiopia	Social Cash Transfer Pilot Program (SCTPP)	approximately US$ 8.50	UNICEF	2012	2013	http://www.fao.org/3/a-i4098e.pdf
UNICEF	2014	Cash Transfer as a Social Protection Intervention: Evidence from UNICEF Evaluations 2010-2014	Africa region						
Pavanello s., Pzarny, P., de la O Campos, A. P and N. Warring	2016	Rural Wome's Economic empowerment and social Protection: The impacts of Rwanda's Vision 2020 Umurenge Programme (VUP)	Rwanda	Rwanda's Vision 2020 Umurenge Programme (VUP)		FAO, UNICEF	2008	2014	

Author (s)	Year	Study title	Country of Study	Social Protection programme	Cost per individual or household	Funder (s)	Year of Baseline	Year of Follow-up	URL
Taylor, J. E., Kagin, J., Filipski, M. and K. Thome	2013	Evaluating general equilibrium impacts of Kenya's cash transfer programme for orphans and vulnerable children (CT-OVC)	Kenya	Cash transfer- Orgphans and vulnerable Children (CT-OVC)	US$21	DFID, FAO, World Bank, EU, UNICEF	2007	2009, 2011	
Kardan, A., Sindow, E and L. Pellerano	2014	The historic and furture costs of the Child Grants Programme and its affordability	Lesotho	Child Grants Programme (CGP)		UNICEF	2007	2011	
Pellerano, L., Moratti, M., Jakobsen, M., Bajgar, M., &Barca, V	2014	The Lesotho Child Grants Programme Impact Evaluation: Follow-up Report	Lesotho	Lesotho Child Grants Programme (CGP)		UNICEF-Lesotho (with EU funding)	2011	2013	https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/media/57a08a9d40f0b649740006ac/Social-protection-in-Africa_A-review-of-social-protection-issues-in-research.pdf
Boone, R., Covarrubia, K., Davis, B. and P. Winters	2013	Cash transfer programs and agricultural production: The case of Malawi	Malawi	Social Cash Transfer (SCT) program	Us$14	Governnemtn of Malawi, FAO	Mar-07	Apr-08	
American Institutes for Research	2014	Zambia's Child Grant Program: 30-month impact report	Zambia	Social Cash Transfer Programme-Child Grant		DFID, Irish Aid, Government of Finland, UNICEF	2010	2013	

Annex 3:

Key Informant Interview- Questionnaire Guide

1. What do you understand by social protection in the Ugandan context?
2. Is social protection a priority for Uganda? If yes/or No, why?
3. How has the role of government been in driving the Social Protection agenda in the country?
4. Are government actions enough in your opinion in addressing social protection issues? If Yes/or No provide reason? Provide some examples of actions that are being undertaken by government to this effect?
5. What has been the role of development partners in driving the social protection agenda in Uganda?
6. What of CSOs, NGOs?
7. What can government do to further drive the social protection agenda at national level?
8. Who have been the major key players/actors in the Social protection initiatives in Uganda?

Thank you for your time!

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