

NATIONAL ENVIRONMENT MANAGEMENT AUTHORITY



*Review of the existing poverty reduction policies, plans,
programmes and projects for their adequacy in
addressing environmental concerns*

By



**Sustainable Development Centre
Makerere University Campus
P.O. Box 5463,
Kampala
Tel: 039-726253
E-mail: sd@imul.com**

22nd December 2005

Table of Contents

<i>Acknowledgements</i>	v
<i>List of Abbreviations</i>	vi
<i>Executive Summary</i>	viii
1. Introduction	1
1.1 Background to the program on Policy Development and Law	1
1.2 Objectives of the study.....	2
1.3 Methodology to the assignment	2
1.4 Structure of the report	3
2. Context of socio-economic and environmental planning	4
2.1 Types of plans made in Uganda.....	4
2.2 Policy and legal framework for integrated planning.....	5
2.3 Institutional mandates for categories of planning	5
2.3.1 Development Planning.....	5
2.3.2 Environmental Planning.....	11
2.3.3 Monitoring and coordination	12
2.3.4 Private Sector’s mainstreaming of environment.....	12
2.3.5 Assessment of environmental performance	12
2.4 Environment as a powerful rallying sector for attainment of MDGs	17
3. Assessment of the adequacy of enabling environment for integrated planning	19
3.1 Legal and policy framework	19
3.2 Institutional mandates for integrated planning	20
3.3 Coordination mechanisms for planning and monitoring	21
3.4 Co-ordination for Multi-lateral Agreements	23
3.5 Guidelines for integrating environmental concerns in sector plans.....	24
4. Adequacy of policies in addressing environmental concerns	26
4.1 Criteria for assessing adequacy of policies	26
4.2 Articulation of problems	26
4.3 Linkages among socio, economic and environmental pillars	27
4.4 Strategies for implementing policy objectives.....	27
4.5 Statement of ‘baseline’ and ‘target’ indicators, monitoring plans and budgets.....	27
4.6 Mainstreaming of synergies of four conventions in national laws	28
4.7 Legal backing to give effect to the implementation of policy	29
4.8 Problems and policy statements lacking legal bite	30
4.9 Impacts of economy wide policies on livelihoods and conservation.....	31
4.10 Case of Local Government byelaws and ordinances	32
5. Adequacy of plans and programmes for addressing environmental concerns	36
5.1 Criteria used to assess the adequacy of plans.....	36
5.2 Focus areas of the plans	36
5.3 Cross-referencing among plans.....	37

5.4 Statement of the problem	37
5.5 Sources of pressure	37
5.6 Response interventions	37
5.7 Relationship among socio, economic and environment pillars	39
5.8 Causal relationship between poverty and the environment	39
5.9 Baseline and Target or performance indicators	40
5.10 Assessment of institutional roles	41
5.11 Resources budgeted	42
6. Assessment of integrating environment in PEAP	44
6.1 Treatment of ENR in PEAP	44
6.2 Values attached to the environment.....	45
6.3 Linkages among socio, economic and environmental pillars of sustainable development.....	46
6.4 Trade-offs among the pillars of sustainable development	46
6.5 Priority poverty-environment causal linkages	47
6.6 Relationship between PEAP and other plans and strategies.....	48
6.7 Adequacy of proposed actions	48
6.8 Baseline and target indicators to monitor PEAP's performance	49
6.9 Alignment of PEAP with MDG indicators	49
6.10 Time horizon of PEAP and implications for environment	51
7. Assessment of the processes for planning	52
7.1 Participatory poverty assessment.....	52
7.2 NGO/CSO participation.....	52
7.3 Private sector participation	53
7.4 Parliamentary participation.....	53
7.5 Donor participation	54
7.6 Commissioned studies	54
7.7 Annual assessment of local governments	54
7.8 Monitoring and Evaluation of strategic plan	55
8. Emerging best practices for scale -up	57
9. Emerging critical gaps to be addressed	59
10. Conclusions and Recommendations.....	61
10.1 Conclusion	61
10.2 Recommendations.....	63

List of Figures

Figure 1.1: Levels to be influenced by project outcomes..... 2
 Figure 2.1: Overview of planning/information flow 4
 Figure 2.2: Key plans and strategies..... 7
 Figure 2.3: Main-coordinating structures for integrated planning..... 9
 Figure 2.4: Estimated loss of forests cover in Uganda (1900-2000) 13
 Figure 2.5: Index reflecting the loss of biodiversity..... 13
 Figure 2.6: Uganda’s ESI in relation to the rest of the world..... 14
 Figure 2.7: Uganda Ecological Footprint 15
 Figure 2.8: Barometer of sustainability for Uganda 2001 15
 Figure 2.9: Key phases in mainstreaming environmental concerns 17
 Figure 2.10: Impact of MDG 7: Ensuring environmental sustainability on other MDGs 18
 Figure 3.1: Framework for monitoring and evaluation of government policies and programmes 23

List of Boxes

Box 3.1: Legislation pre-dating Local Government Act, 1997..... 19
 Box 3.2: How to mainstream ENR in other sector programmes 25
 Box 4.1: The basic criteria for assessing the adequacy of policies 26
 Box 4.2: Good practice of mainstreaming environment in a commercial ordinance 33
 Box 4.3: LC I Court of Nakasero II Parish halts environmental pollution..... 34
 Box 4.4: Are regulations and policies feasible for implementation?..... 34
 Box 5.1: Basic criteria to test for adequacy of the plans for environmental mainstreaming... 36
 Box 6.1: Illustration of the values PEAP attached to the environment 45
 Box 6.2: Some poverty- environmental casual linkages in PEAP..... 48

List of Tables

Table 2.1: Categories of Policies, Laws & Plans Reviewed..... 8
 Table 3.1: Location of focal points for conventions..... 24
 Table 4.1: Baseline Target indicators 27
 Table 4.2: Synergies of Four conventions 28
 Table 4.3: Giving legal bite to policy statement..... 29
 Table 4.4: The Poor’s perceptions of economy wide policies on livelihoods and environment
 Negative impacts 31
 Table 4.5: Tools relevant to monitoring impacts of polices along transmission channels 32
 Table 4.6: Ordinances and bye-laws for conservation and rural economic transformation 33
 Table 4.7: Multiplicity of structures at community level under different laws 35
 Table 5.1: Status of various environmental funds in Uganda..... 39
 Table 5.2: Use of baseline and performance indicators in plans and programmes 41
 Table 6.1: Integration of environment into 5 PEAP pillars 44
 Table 6.2: Marching actions with problems identified..... 49
 Table 6.3: Illustration of PEAP’s use of ‘baseline’ and target indicators 49
 Table 6.4: Relationship between MDG And PEAP Indicators..... 50
 Table 8.1: Key environment laws, policies and strategies formulated after Rio Summit,
 1992..... 57
 Table 8.2: Eco-benefits to factories 58

List of Annexes

Annex 1: Terms of Reference.....	65
Annex 2: Documents, Plans, Projects reviewed.....	69
Annex 3: People consulted	71
Annex 4: Illustrative examples of overlaps among the four conventions.....	58
Annex 5: Plan for Modernisation of Agriculture.....	73
Annex 6: Health Sector Strategic Plan (HSSP).....	75
Annex 7: Land Sector Strategic Plan.....	77

Acknowledgements

The consultant would like to extend sincere gratitude to the stakeholders from the Environment and Natural Resource sub-sectors who agreed to provide valuable information to this study. Gratitude is also extended to the National Steering Committee of this project for their valuable input in reviewing and contributing to the inception report. The consultant also acknowledges the technical input of all the studies, case studies, policies, plans, programmes and projects reviewed and all the stakeholders who were involved in the numerous undertakings. Finally, the consultant would also like to thank all other stakeholders who have participated in this study particularly Development Partners and Non-Governmental Organisations.

List of Abbreviations

CAO	-	Chief Administrative Officer
CBO	-	Community Based Organisation
CDM	-	Clean Development Mechanism
CSO	-	Civil Society Organisation
DEAP	-	District Environment Action Plan
DFO	-	District Forestry Officer
DP	-	District Plans
EF	-	Ecological Footprint
EIA	-	Environmental Impact Assessment
ELU	-	Environmental Liaison Unit
ENR	-	Environment and Natural Resource
ERT	-	Energy for Rural Transformation
ESI	-	Environmental Sustainability Index
GoU	-	Government of Uganda
HSSP	-	Health Sector Strategic Plan
IDP	-	Internally Displaced Person
LC	-	Local Council
LEAP	-	Local Environment Action Plan
LEC	-	Local Environment Committee
LLG	-	Lower Local Government
LMO	-	Lake Management Organisation
M&E	-	Monitoring and Evaluation
MAAIF	-	Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industry and Fisheries
MDG	-	Millennium Development Goal
MEA	-	Millennium Ecosystem Assessment
MFPED	-	Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development
MoLG	-	Ministry of Local Government
MTEF	-	Medium Term Expenditure Framework
MWLE	-	Ministry of Water, Lands and Environment
NAADS	-	National Agricultural Advisory Services
NEAP	-	National Environment Action Plan
NEMA	-	National Environment Management Authority
NEPAD	-	New Partnership for African Development
NFA	-	National Forestry Authority
NFP	-	National Forestry Plan
NGO	-	Non-Governmental Organisation
NIMES	-	National Integrated Monitoring and Evaluation Strategy
NPA	-	National Planning Authority
NUSAF	-	Northern Uganda Social Action Fund
OPM	-	Office of the Prime Minister
PEAP	-	Poverty Eradication Action Plan
PMA	-	Plan for Modernisation of Agriculture
PRSC	-	Poverty Reduction Strategy Credit
PRSP	-	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
SPIP	-	Social Development Strategic Investment Plan
TOR	-	Terms of Reference
UBTS	-	Uganda Blood Transfusion Service
UFA	-	Uganda Fisheries Authority

Review of the existing poverty reduction policies, plans, programmes and projects for their adequacy in addressing environmental concerns

ULAA	-	Uganda Local Authorities Association
UNCCD	-	United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification
UNCED	-	United Nations Conference on Environment and Development
UNEP	-	United Nations Environment Programme
UNFCC	-	United Nations Framework for Climate Change
UPPAP	-	Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process
UWA	-	Uganda Wildlife Authority
WCED	-	World Commission on Environment and Development
WID	-	Wetland Inspection Division

Executive Summary

This is an **evidence-based report** on the review of the existing poverty reduction policies, plans, programmes and projects for their adequacy in addressing environmental concerns. The review was justified because studies have indicated that there is considerable variation across countries in the degree of mainstreaming environmental issues in poverty reduction strategies. There is also recognition that beyond integrating environmental concerns, what ultimately matters are the results on the ground. This review was done under the auspices of a United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP)-funded project for ‘strengthening environmental policy and management capacity at the National and Local levels as a contribution to poverty alleviation and sustainable development in Africa’. The overall objective of the project is to ‘improve policies, plans, programmes and projects geared to poverty reduction in order to adequately reflect poverty-environment linkages’.

A key finding is that the policy and legal framework for addressing environmental issues in Uganda has been evolving particularly after its National Environment Action Plan (NEAP) process, 1990-1995. First, the National Environment Act 1995, as the apex law on environment set in motion the principles and tools for integrating environment in development. The Constitution of Uganda 1995 further emphasised the principle of ‘bottom-up’ integrated planning. The National Planning Authority Act 2002 re-emphasized the same principle. The Local Government Act 1997 devolved some of the environmental management responsibilities to local governments in line with the subsidiarity principle. Equally, several policies and laws for the management of wildlife, water, land, wetlands, environment, fisheries, forests, all have been made after 1995. In brief, Uganda is not short of policies and laws on environment and natural resources.

However, it also needs to be observed that some laws are rather out-dated and do not rhyme with the recent principles for sustainable development and participation. These include the Public Health Act, 1931, Town and Country Planning Act 1964, Fish and Crocodile Act, 1951 to list but a few. There is also a strong argument that implementation and enforcement of existing laws and policies would be more relevant than updating a few remaining laws.

A recent development has been the establishment of National Planning Authority under the auspices of National Planning Authority Act, 2002. The law gives it mandate to coordinate all plans. However, while it obligates it to integrate gender and disability, it is silent on environment. As a new institution, NPA’s capacity is still open to test. In addition, until National Planning Authority (NPA) makes guidelines on how to achieve bottom-up integrated planning, some aspects like the environment may be omitted during planning and implementation.

Further, government has set up a National Integrated Monitoring and Evaluation Strategy (MIMES). It is still too early to evaluate its effectiveness. Nonetheless, building on its mandate for coordinating monitoring of environment, among others, National Environment Management Authority (NEMA) should make a plan on how to relate to different institutions that also have responsibilities for monitoring. Clearing all the above would enhance the enabling environment for integrated planning and monitoring.

With regard to policies, it has been found that they are strong on the articulation of problems they seek to address, matching of the identified problems with policy statements, articulation of strategies to implement each policy objective and definition of institutional roles. However, policies are still weak in some aspects. They do not sufficiently **quantify** and **value** those problems. Secondly, they are weak at reflecting the benchmark (baseline) and target indicators. Consequently monitoring their effectiveness on the ground is difficult to measure. Some policy provisions are not seriously evaluated for their feasibility in implementation, a factor that actually makes them difficult to implement or enforce.

It was also found that many provisions of the Multi-lateral Environmental Agreements are properly reflected in national laws and policies. By implication, successful implementation of national policies would make Uganda fulfil its international obligation. The major weakness found was that their coordination is spread in many institutions, a factor that makes it ineffective to attain economy, and synergies. NEMA should invoke its mandate and bring all of them under its coordination.

Further, whereas the National Environment Act, 1995 mandated NEMA to be the ‘clearing house’ for approval of all projects for Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA), there is still an institutional gap in mandating an institution to act as a clearing house for policies and economy wide policies. Not all of them are benign to the environment, and all the time

With regard to plans and strategies the practice has been that they build upon the policies. They also reflect the budgets needed to implement them. The causal relationship between poverty and environmental degradation is becoming sharper among them. However, they still need improvement in the making of **trade-off choices** among competing objectives, quantification of baseline and target indicators and evaluation of different approaches to their financing.

The Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) (2004/05 – 2007/08) makes a strong case for integrating poverty and the environment in all its 5 pillars. This PEAP III points out the reversal in poverty reduction from 35% in 2000 to 38% in 2003 and it adds that this may be a result of temporary fluctuations or a structural set of problems. The consultants also noted general consistency between the actions proposed in the PEAP and the issues analysed in the main document.

The PEAP demonstrated good practice, the baseline indicators were reflected against which monitoring can be done. In addition, the target indicators to be achieved at the end of PEAP III in 2007/08 were stated. In fact indicators for 2015 as well the target for the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were also stated. The Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process (UPPAP) contributed to bringing out environmental concerns, which in turn were picked by the PEAP. However, by picking different districts in UPPAP 2 (2002/03) from those surveyed under UPPAP 1 (1998/99) the intertemporal comparison was lost.

An assessment of Uganda's environmental performance indicates a decline in forest cover, soil erosion, biodiversity, environmental sustainability and resource utilisation in recent times. Overall, Uganda is still falling short of the sustainability path of environmental performance. This implies that we need to look beyond mere integration of environment in policies and plans. UNEP should support other initiatives to identify barriers during implementation and enforcement.

Finally, but not the least, there is a strong case for NEMA to institutionalise an annual assessment of Environment and Natural Resources Sector and issues related to integration based on a set of indicators. The lack of such a framework does not help government audit its performance in implementing plans and policies.

Evidence has also shown that integration of environmental concern in plans and policies is a continuous and learning process. This has been reflected in the revision of laws and policies and PEAP, in UPPAPs and the implementation of Plan for Modernisation of Agriculture (PMA). With respect to the latter, a committee to oversee integration is in place, and has been perfecting the criteria to approve projects. Environment strongly features.

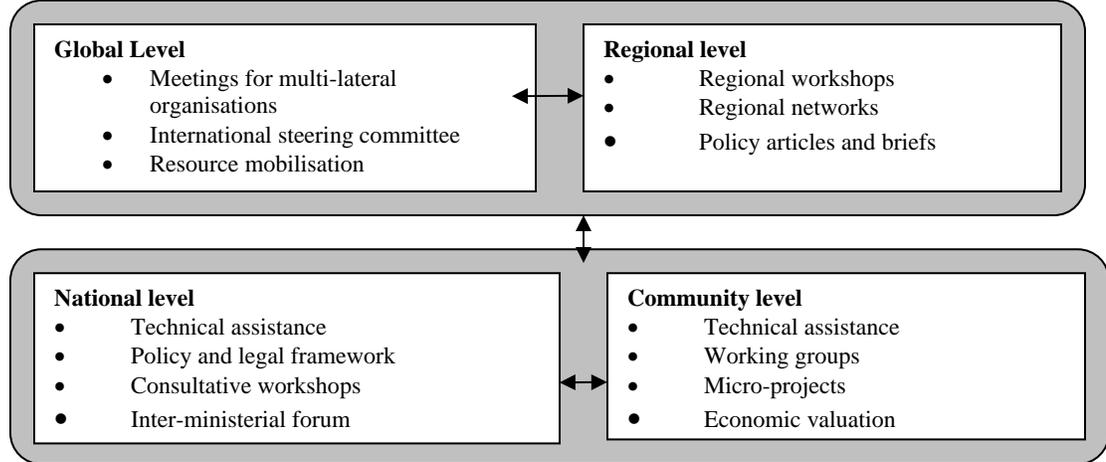
1. Introduction

1.1 Background to the program on Policy Development and Law

1. In recent years, several international declarations have underlined poverty reduction and sustainable development among the challenges in the world, and especially in Africa. This was true in the case of United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in 1992, the United Nations Millennium Declaration in 2000, and the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) in 2002, to mention but a few. Countries have responded differently to the above challenges. All in all, the findings pointed to the conclusion that ‘there is a considerable variation across countries in the degree of mainstreaming environmental issues in poverty reduction strategies¹.
2. However, beyond integrating environmental concerns in policies, plans and programs, ‘what ultimately matters are the results on the ground’ (ibid). By implication therefore, in order for one to understand where to maximize effort for change, one has to know the entire cycle from policy or plan formulation to monitoring and evaluation to gauge where the major bottlenecks are located.
3. Against this challenging background, UNEP developed a project entitled “*Strengthen Environmental Policy and Management Capacity at the National and Local Levels as a contribution to Poverty Alleviation and Sustainable Development in Africa*”. It is being implemented in 7 African countries of Kenya, Tanzania, Rwanda, Mali, Mauritania, Mozambique and Uganda under a program on Policy Development and Law. The overall objective of the project is to increase developing countries’ capacity to mainstream environment in their development strategies. This is expected to take place at community and national levels, but with lessons, to and from regional and global levels (See Figure 1.1). In essence therefore, the project’s focus is planning. The consultant’s view is that this project needs to be complemented by other initiatives to establish good practices and gaps in the funding for environment, implementation, enforcement and monitoring. Only then can each country have a complete understanding of what the major barriers to sustainable development are. This report mainly concentrates on integration of environment at the planning stage.

¹ Jan Bojo and Rama Chandra Reddy [2002] Poverty Reduction Strategies and Environment: A Review of 40 Interim and Full Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers. Pg 1. XX; 1bid, pg 2

Figure 1.1 Levels to be influenced by project outcomes



1.2 Objectives of the study

4. The overall objective of the study is to “*improve policies, plans, programmes and projects geared to poverty reduction in order to adequately reflect poverty – environment linkages*”. In that regard, the specific objectives are:
 - (i) to bridge the critical gaps in the current poverty reduction policies, plans and programmes with regard to the adequacy of addressing environmental concerns; and
 - (ii) maximise benefits and exploit linkages, synergies and key lessons and experiences from the existing poverty reduction initiatives in regard to environment.

The detailed Terms of Reference (ToR) for the study are given as Annex 1

1.3 Methodology to the assignment

5. The methodology consisted of two major activities:
 - review of literature and documents (these documents are indicated in *Annex 2*); and
 - carrying out of strategic interviews (some of those interviewed are indicated in *Annex 3*)

1.4 Structure of the report

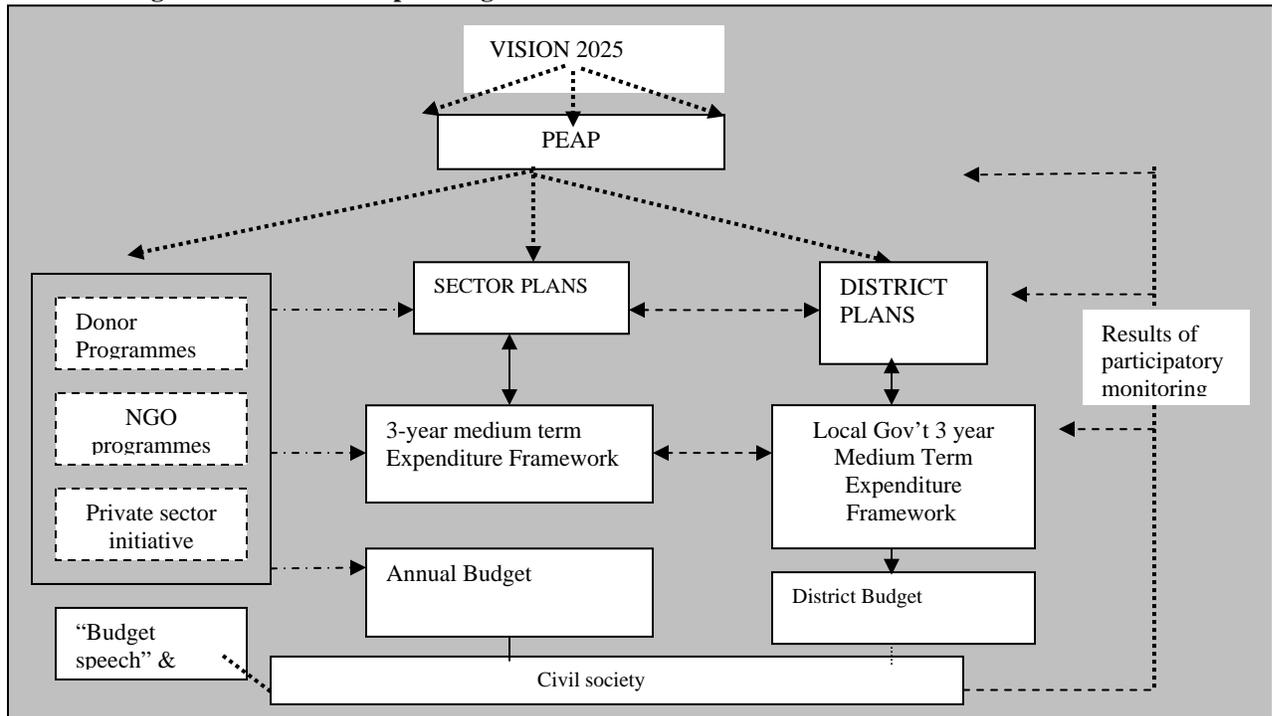
6. The report is divided into 10 chapters after this first chapter, the introduction; chapter two describes the national context of socio-economic and environmental planning; chapter three follows with an assessment of the adequacy of enabling environment for integrated planning. In chapter four the adequacy of policies in addressing environmental concerns is discussed and adequacy of plans and programmes for addressing environmental concerns tackled in chapter five. Chapter six provides an assessment of integrating the environment into the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) and chapter seven is an assessment of the processes for planning. Chapter eight delineates emerging best practices, with chapter nine showing the emerging critical gaps. Chapter ten consists of the conclusions and recommendations.

2. Context of socio-economic and environmental planning

2.1 Types of plans made in Uganda

7. Before reviewing the practices of integrating environmental issues in policies, plans and programs, it was deemed necessary to describe the planning structure and related information flow in Uganda (Figure 2.1). The aim was to use it as a basis of identifying plans to review, and to identify in broad terms the actors who ultimately should be influenced by the findings of the study. On the basis of that structure, one can identify several categories of plans, namely:
- (i) Over-arching macro plans and programmes like PEAP, PMA, National Agriculture Advisory Services (NAADS)
 - (ii) Plans in environment and natural resources e.g. NEAP, Wetlands Strategic Plan, Land Sector Strategic Plan and National Forest Plan.
 - (iii) Sector-wide plans in economic and social development e.g. Medium- term Competitive Strategy for the Private Sector (2000-2005), the Health Sector Strategic Plan, and the Social Development Strategic Investment Plan (SPIP) 2003-2008 and Northern Uganda Social Action Fund (NUSAF) programme.
 - (iv) Local Government Plans that includes Plans of Higher Local Governments (Districts and Municipalities) and of Lower Local Governments (Sub-countries and Divisions)
 - (v) Programs and projects.
 - (vi) Corporate plans made by private sector firms and NGOs

Figure 2.1 Overview of planning/information flow



Source: MFPED [2001] Poverty Eradication Action Plan

8. The schematic Figure in 2.2 gives the key plans and strategies and their time horizons. Further reference is given in Table 2.1. Some of the revised ones offer lessons from one period to another (e.g. PEAP, Health Sector Strategic Plan) and others have been made for the first time (e.g. National Forestry Plan) (NFP).

Key message: The understanding of the planning cycles of different plans as depicted in Figure 2.2 is important because any revision of the plan offers opportunity to integrate environmental and other issues.

2.2 Policy and legal framework for integrated planning

9. The policy and legal framework for an integrated approach to planning has been evolving in Uganda. The Constitution 1995 set the principle of ‘bottom-up’ planning thus:

“District councils shall prepare comprehensive and integrated development plans incorporating the plans of lower level local governments for submission to the National Planning Authority”

When the NPA was subsequently established in 2002, it was given the primary function” to produce comprehensive and integrated development plans for the country elaborated in terms of the perspective vision and the long term and medium term plans”. This planning framework is applicable in the case of public planning. In the private sector, the requirement to undertake EIA makes it integrate environmental concerns. NEMA acts as the ‘clearing house’ for EIAs because of the mandate given to it to approve them. However, as mentioned elsewhere, the National Environment Act 1995 did not attach as much importance for EIA of *policies* as it did for projects. As such, the Act did not provide for a ‘clearing house’ of policies. Yet they too, can negatively impact the environment.

2.3 Institutional mandates for categories of planning

2.3.1 Development Planning

10. Figure 2.3 provides the hierarchy and coordination for development planning on one hand, and environmental planning on the other. It also emphasizes the interface between the two. The figure is meant to help the reader appreciate the complexity of inter-institutional coordination in the subsequent sections.

- **National Planning Authority**

11. In support of integrated planning, the government established several institutions and allocated to them different mandates as described in this section. The primary function of NPA is to produce comprehensive and integrated development plans for the country elaborated in terms of the perspective vision and the long term and medium term plans. NPA was established under the National Planning Authority Act 2002. Specifically, NPA is mandated to:

Review of the existing poverty reduction policies, plans, programmes and projects for their adequacy in addressing environmental concerns

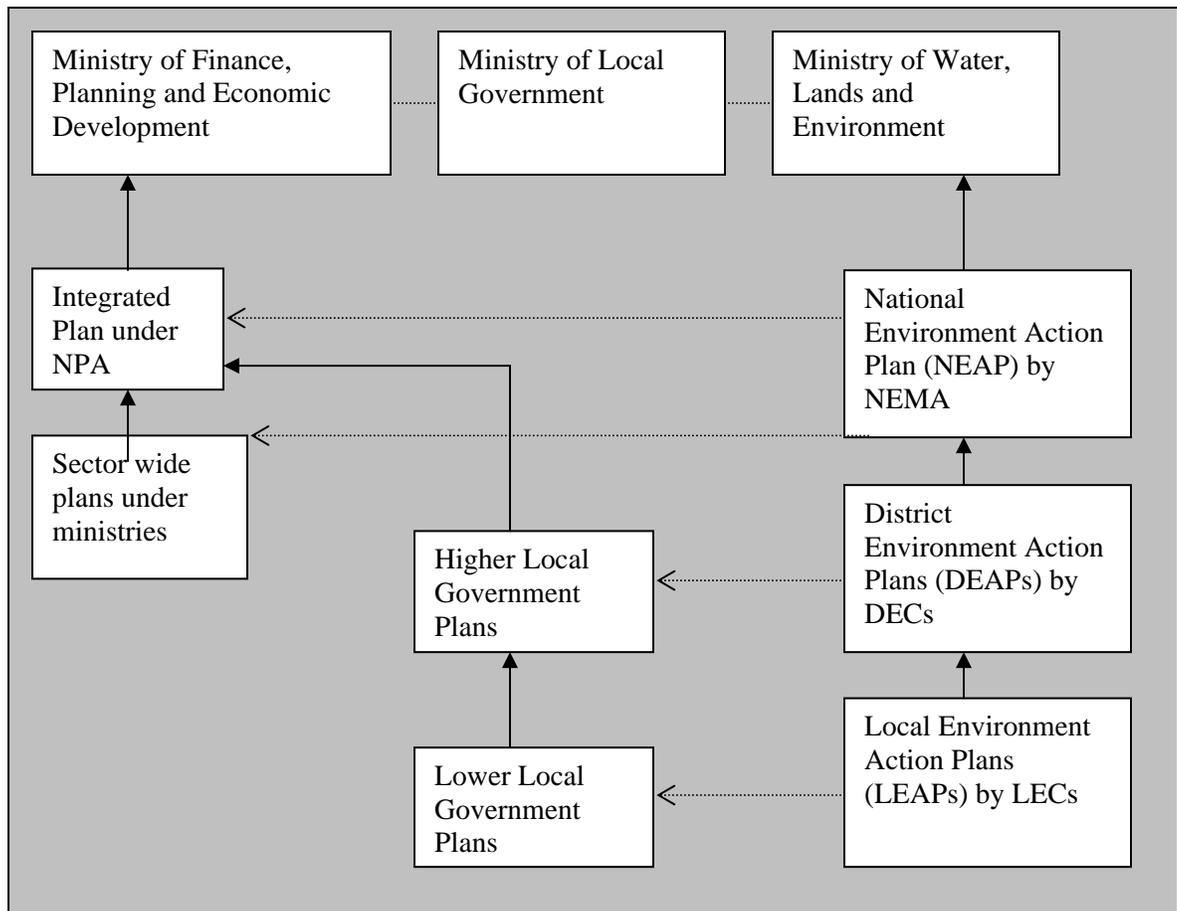
- (i) coordinate and harmonise development planning in the country,
- (ii) monitor and evaluate the effectiveness and impacts of development programs,
- (iii) support local capacity development for national planning and design and implement programmes to develop planning capacity in local governments.

Figure 2.2: Key plans and strategies

Table 2.1: Categories of Policies, Laws & Plans Reviewed

A: Macroeconomic and over-arching frameworks				
	Policy	Supportive law	Operational Strategy	Programme /projects
1		Constitution 1995	Vision 2025 Vision 2030 PEAP PMA NAADS PSMCS	
B: Planning				
	Policy	Supportive law	Operational Strategy	Programme /projects
1	Decentralization Policy	Local Government Act, 1997	LGDP II	- District Development Projects
2		National Planning Act	Comprehensive Development Plan	-
C: Policies, Laws, Strategies and Programmes in environment and natural resources				
	Policy	Supportive law	Operational Strategy	Programme /projects
1	Uganda Forestry Policy 2001	National Forestry & Tree Planting Act, 2003	National Forestry Action Plan-2002	- Forest management and conservation programme
2	National Environment Management Policy 1994	National Environment Act. 1995	National Environment Action Plan 1994	- EMCBP II
3	Wetlands Policy	National Environment Act 1995	Wetland Sector Strategic Plan 2001-2010	- National Wetlands Conservation and Management Programme Phase III
4	Uganda Wildlife Policy-1999 Uganda Tourism Policy-2003	Uganda Wildlife Act- 1996 Uganda Wildlife Act- 1996	UWA Strategic Plan Tourism Sector Strategic Plan 2002-2006	- PAMSU - Tourism Sector Support
5	Fisheries Policy 2003	Draft Fisheries Act-2004	Fisheries Sector Strategic Plan 2002-2010	- Lake Victoria Fisheries Research 2
6	National Water Policy, 1995	National Water Act- 1995	National Water Action Plan 1995	- Water resource management - South East/West Integrated Watershed Management Project
7	Energy Policy for Uganda, 2002	The Electricity Act, 1999	The Rural Electrification Strategy and Plan, 2001-2010	- Energy for Rural Transformation
8	National Soils Policy –2002 Land Policy (Draft)	The Land Act, 1998	The Land Sector Strategic Plan-2001-2010	
9	Uganda mineral policy-2000	Minerals Development Act, 1999	-	
D: Social and Infrastructure sectors				
	Policy	Supportive law	Operational Strategy	Programme /projects
1			Social Development Sector Strategic Investment Plan 2003-2008	- Northern Uganda Social Action Fund (NUSAF)
2	Health Policy		Health Sector Strategic Plan, 2000/01-2004/05	- Health Sector Support Programme - Rural Health programme
3	Education Policy		Education Sector Strategic Plan	-
4	Road policy		Road Sector Investment Plan	

Figure 2.3: Main-coordinating structures for development and environment planning



12. Since it came into effect in 2002, the National Planning Authority Act has brought (at least by law) a shift in the authority over decentralised planning from Ministry of Local Government, to NPA. For example, the Act provides that ‘the decentralised planning systems shall be regularised by statutory instrument issued by the Minister*’. Another observation to make is that the Act is strong on the integration of **gender** and **disability** in planning. It states thus:

“ In pursuance of its primary planning functions, the Authority shall ensure that all national plans are gender and disability sensitive ”

13. On the contrary, the Act is **silent** on the integration of **environmental** concerns. The provision to have the Executive Director of NEMA as ex-officio member of NPA’s Board is not adequate provision to ensure operational integration. Rather, it is good for contributing to oversight.

* In this case, it is the Minister of Finance, Planning and Economic Development

14. Needless to mention, the National Planning Authority Act 2002 has made Ministry of Local Government redundant in overseeing planning in Local governments. Yet by relationship and section 96 of Local Government Act 1997, the coordination of Local Governments was made the responsibility of the Ministry responsible for Local Governments.

Key message: National Planning Authority and Ministry of Local Government need to come up with clarification of their mandates in relationship to integrated planning and to jointly communicate it to Local Governments.

▪ **Sectoral Ministries**

15. Sector ministries have different specific mandates for planning. However, common to all of them are mandates to set policies, standards and guidelines, to provide technical assistance to local governments, and, to monitor and supervise the statutory bodies under them, and local governments.
16. The National Planning Authority Act 2002 provides that ‘a ministry or sector shall prepare a plan, and shall submit it to the Authority (NPA) whose duty shall be to harmonise all the plans from various Ministries or sectors for the purpose of formulating a national plan’. The implication of this provision is that integration of environmental concerns should start at sectoral level, and then be picked up again or verified by NPA. It also implies that institutions (i.e. Lower Local Governments (LLGs), Higher Local Governments (HLGs), Ministries, autonomous institutions should command different comparative advantage to deal with environmental issues even if they all have responsibility to do so. This is where NPA needs to give clear guidance to maximise use of scarce resources.

▪ **Ministry of Local Government**

17. According to the Local Government Act, 1997, the Ministry of Local Government (MoLG) was mandated to coordinate and advocate for Local Governments. The Uganda Local Authorities Association (ULAA) has spearheaded the advocacy function of local governments. However, it has not had a specific programme on environment. In light of ULAA's existence, one wonders whether the advocacy function should still remain under MoLG.

▪ **Local Governments**

18. The Local Government Act 1997 obligated the District Council as the Planning Authority of a District. It is expected to work according to the guidelines by NPA. NPA has not yet made them because it is still young. In meantime, MoLG has over the years provided and revised guidelines for planning. The law expects the comprehensive and integrated district plans to be incorporating plans of lower local governments before Local government submits them to the NPA. In all these processes, the District Technical Committee composed of technical heads and chaired by Chief Administrative Officer (CAO) coordinates and integrates all the sectoral plans and plans of LLGs. The planning units carry out the planning function.

2.3.2 Environmental Planning

▪ NEMA

19. NEMA is obliged to make a National Environment Action Plan (NEAP) after every 5 years². The last NEAP was made in 1994. Thus NEMA is in arrears of revision or evaluation of its NEAP by 5 years. Nevertheless, on the basis of NEAP, NEMA has guided and supported districts in the District Environment Action Plans (DEAPs). It is also doing the same with line ministries to the extent that, NEAP would be “binding upon all persons and all Government departments, agencies and organs”, it is a powerful instrument.
20. At the time NEAP was made in 1994, the understanding of environment and its linkage to socio-economic development was not as strong as it is now. Besides, through sectoral and district efforts to mainstream environment in plans, a lot of issues and lessons have emerged. Likewise, new institutions like NPA have been established. Globally, there is a shift from resource based planning to ecosystem and landscape planning in order to attain a minimum **scale** effect. Global commons like ozone layer protection to mitigate against the impacts of global warming and related natural disasters are gaining more prominence. New institutions especially the traditional rulers who own and control vast natural resources have come into existence. Regional and global co-operation for shared resources are also featuring more than in the past.
21. To that end, institutions like the East African Community (EAC), Lake Victoria Commission, Lake Victoria Fisheries Organisation to mention but a few have been formed. Many people want to understand better the causal relationships between environmental degradation and poverty and vice-versa. Likewise, they want to understand how environmental governance and partnerships impact on sustainable use of environmental resources. All these developments have implications for institutional arrangements, environmental financing, environmental governance and community level actions, to mention but a few.

Key message: Ten years into the implementation of NEAP provides good basis for NEMA to critically evaluate and reflect back on what has worked and what has failed and why. It would also give it an opportunity to deal with emerging issues amidst the changed institutional and policy framework.

▪ District and Local Environment Committees

22. The National Environment Act obligates the District Environment Committee to coordinate the activities of the District Council relating to the management of the environment and natural resources. It also obligates them to ensure that environmental concerns are integrated in all plans and projects approved by the District Council. At Lower Local Governments, these functions are performed by the Local Environment Committees.

² Section 18 of National Environment Act, 1995

2.3.3 Monitoring and coordination

23. The office of the Prime Minister has the mandate for coordinating all government policies and for monitoring them. This role is discussed in more detail in Chapter 3.

2.3.4 Private Sector's mainstreaming of environment

24. With government reiterating commitment to “*transform the economy based on private investment in competitive enterprises*”³, the understanding of how private sector integrates environment in planning and decision making processes is pertinent. Presently, one can group the approaches by the private sector into 4 categories, namely:
- undertaking of EIAs and environmental audits under the compulsion of the laws like National Environment Act, the Water Act, the Wildlife Act to mention but a few.
 - adherence to environmental standards and regulations, also under the compulsion of the law.
 - responding to incentives and disincentives
 - voluntary compliance under the auspices of corporate social responsibility.
25. However, it needs to be observed that 80% of the private sector firms are small and medium, and working informally. Accordingly, it is not easy to bring them into the ambit of the law, let alone to monitor their actions effectively.

2.3.5 Assessment of environmental performance

26. In order to objectively assess the adequacy of integrating environment in plans, policies, strategies etc, it was necessary to provide an overview of the status of environmental performance in Uganda using national and global indicators. This is provided in this section. According to Jeffrey D. Sachs, Director The Earth Institute, “*sustainability is multidimensional and not easily summarised in a single figure*”. Thus, here the Consultant used national and global indicators to make an overall assessment of Uganda's environmental status. They are forest cover, cost of soil erosion, biodiversity loss index, Environmental Sustainability Index (ESI), Ecological Foot Print, (EF) and Barometer of Sustainability.

³ PEAP, 2005-2008

27. **• Forest cover.**

Figure 2.4 clearly shows that forest degradation has been on the increase since 1900, with negative repercussions for **biodiversity conservation**, soil conservation, water and micro-climate regulation, agricultural productivity to mention but a few. Much of that degradation has taken place on private land where 70% of forests and woodlands are located. It is also indicative of the fact that forest conservation is increasingly being out-competed by alternative land use options, particularly subsistence and commercial agriculture.

• Loss of biodiversity.

Based on a composite index (1970=100), Uganda's biodiversity richness declined steeply from the 1960s (Figure 2.5). That loss has been registered for forests, wildlife protected areas, wetlands and aquatic ecosystems. Decline in fish species is probably the most documented loss of biodiversity. Indications are that up to 200 species that were originally endemic to Lake Victoria have disappeared.

• Soil erosion

28. According to the State of the Environment Report 2000/2001, out of a stream of environmental degradation costs of \$1.3 and 3.8 billion today, 85% of it is attributed to soil erosion. For an economy with its 88% of its population rural based, this presents a high ecological debt the present generation will leave to the future generation unless stern measures are taken.

• Environmental trends from the Voices of the poor

29. The voices of the poor from participatory poverty assessments and commissioned studies also point to undesirable trends with regard to climate change, loss of fertility and vulnerability.

“When we grew up, this area had loam soils. The soils gradually became dry due to prolonged drought. Now everywhere there are only brown soils” [Moroto District Report, page 19]

“ Our land has declined so much that the yields are very low. Can you advise us on what we can do to restore the yields?”. [Bushenyi District Report page 9].

Figure 2.4: Estimated loss of forests cover in Uganda (1900-2000)

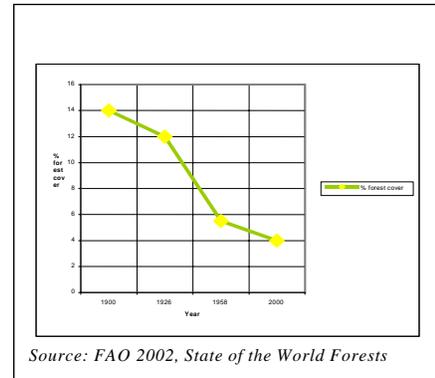
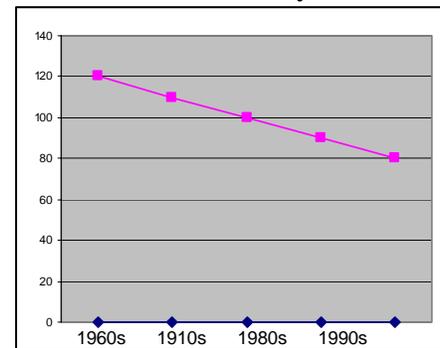


Figure 2.5: Index reflecting the loss of biodiversity



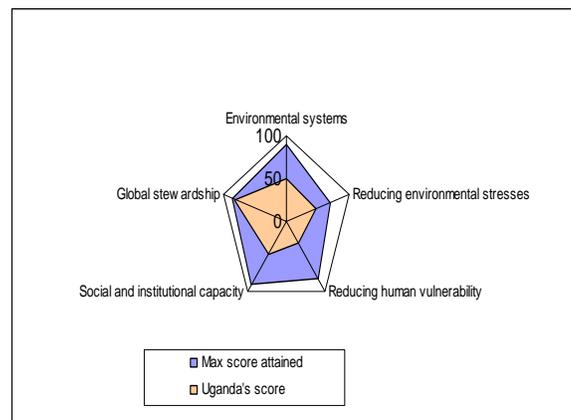
“Every house and shop becomes flooded in Jambula LC I whenever it rains”.
[Kampala Report, page 23].

(i) Environmental Sustainability Index

30. Environmental Sustainability Index (ESI) is measured through 21 “indicators” each of which combines two to eight variables, for a total 76 underlying data sets. The ESI tracks relative success for each country in five core components; (i) environmental systems, (ii) reducing environmental stresses, (iii) reducing human vulnerability (iv) social and institutional capacity to respond to environmental challenges and (v) global stewardship. Thus, the collaborating institutions for making ESI defined it as the ability to produce high levels of performance on each of these dimensions in a lasting manner. They regarded these dimensions as the core “components” of environmental sustainability. The cumulative picture created by these five components represents a good gauge of a country’s likely environmental quality a generation or two into the future. The higher a country’s ESI score, the better positioned it is to maintain favourable environmental conditions in the future. Uganda’s ESI score is 51.3 giving it a ranking of 57 out of 146 countries for which ESI was constructed in 2005.

31. Figure 2.6 depicts Uganda’s performance on the radar. Kenya and Tanzania scores are 45.3 and 50.3 respectively, giving them ranking of 100 and 63 respectively, among 146 countries. Among the current 40 NEPAD member countries, Uganda takes position 9, relatively performing well-vis-à-vis Africa. Overall, the whole region needs to improve its environmental sustainability.

Figure 2.6: Uganda’s ESI in relation to the rest of the world



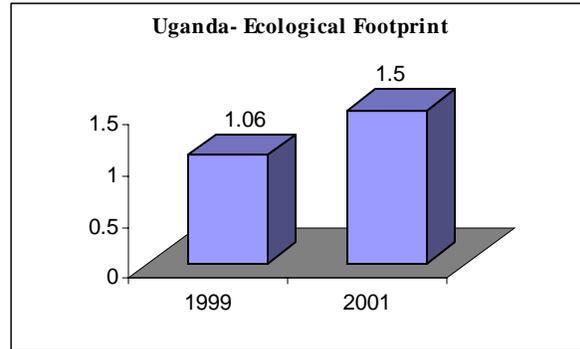
Source: 2005 ESI main report

• **Ecological Footprint**

32. The Ecological Footprint (EF) is a measure of the consumption of renewable natural resources by a human population. A country’s EF is the total area of productive land or sea required to produce all the crops, meat, seafood, wood and fibre it consumes, to sustain its energy consumption and to give space for its infrastructure. The EF can be compared with the biologically productive capacity of the land and sea available to that country’s population. At least 12 percent of the ecological capacity, representing all ecosystem types, should be preserved for biodiversity protection.

Uganda’s EF for 1999 and 2001 are given in Figure 2.7. It is still very far to coming close to 12%. In 2001, Uganda’s ranking was 43 out 149 countries whose EF was calculated¹². Kenya and Tanzania’s ecological footprint for 2001 was 0.9 for each, putting both countries in the 49th position.

Figure 2.7: Uganda Ecological Footprint

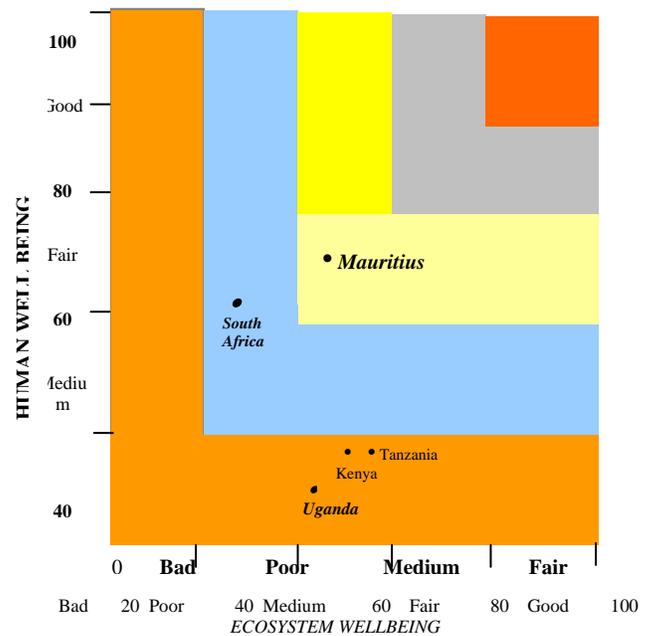


Source: globalis.gvu.unu.edu/indicator_detail

• **Barometer of Sustainability**

The barometer of sustainability is the performance scale designed to measure human and ecosystem well-being together without submerging one in the other. Its two axes enable socio-economic and environmental indicators to be combined independently, keeping them separate to allow analysis of people ecosystem interactions. Figure 2.8 shows that Uganda’s case is a **bad** one on the barometer; so is that of its neighbours Kenya and Tanzania, justifying cooperation for environmental management within the EAC framework. Mauritius performance is medium.

Figure 2.8: Barometer of sustainability for Uganda 2001



Source: Robett Prescott Allen: *The well being of nations. A quality life index and the environment.*

33. Overall therefore, it can be asserted that Uganda is still falling short of a sustainable path to sustainable development. This is despite the fact that a lot of investment has been put in the formulation of policies, plans and strategies and projects for environment and other sectors

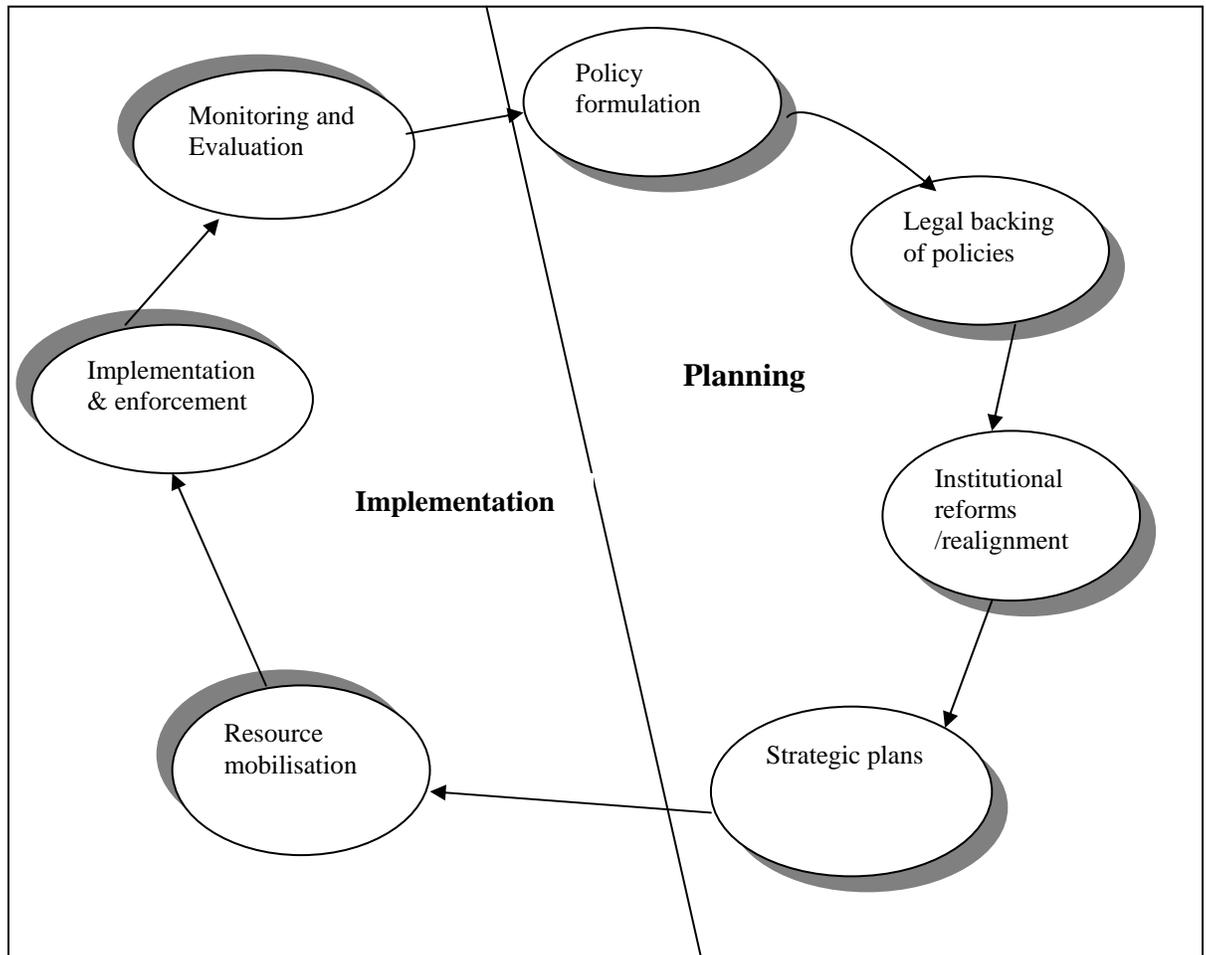
Key message: The government should re-assess all its instruments and approaches to sustainable development with a view of addressing the critical barriers to sustainable development.

34. In this report, only the review of how policies, plans, programs integrate environmental concerns has been made. This level is only concerned therefore with looking at how policies, plan and programs create an *enabling environment* for a wide range of other processes and interventions like investment, financing, enforcement, monitoring, capacity building, empowerment of resource users, etc. All these are not a subject of this report.
35. Figure 2.9 presents what we consider the main phases in the environmental mainstreaming. One side presents the formulation of policies, plans and strategy. They all fall under the planning perspective. In themselves, they are not enough unless resource and capacities are marshalled for their implementation, the enforcement is held, and an institutionalised framework for monitoring and evaluation, based on a set of indicators are in place.
36. By way of an example, in 1996 Uganda carried out the Public Expenditure Tracking Survey (PETS) in education sector after it established that there was no impact commensurate with the level of funding to the sector. Findings were that only 20% of the non-wage education spending was actually reaching the target beneficiaries. It subsequently made improvements which now assure that 90% of the spending actually reaches the beneficiaries.
37. Public Expenditure Tracking Survey have shown that in many countries that budget allocations, when used as indicators of the supply of public services, are poor predictors of the actual quantity and quality of public services, especially in countries with poor accountability and weak institutions. At least four breaks in the chain can be distinguished between spending meant to address efficiency and equity concerns and its transformation into services (Devarajan and Reinikka 2002). First, governments may spend on the wrong goods or the wrong people. Second, even when governments spend on the right goods or the right people, the money may fail to reach the frontline service provider. Third, even when the money reaches the service provider, the incentives to provide the service may be weak. Fourth, even if the services are effectively provided, households may not take advantage of them

Key message: Mere integration of environmental concerns in poverty reduction polices, strategies, plans and projects is **NOT** a good predictor of the actual environmental quality on the ground.

Key message: Given Uganda's low performance on environmental sustainability, this UNEP's funded project needs to look at wider issues, to include the second side of Figure 2.9 that deals with implementation. Only then shall the country know where the major bottlenecks lie and how investment to address them can be rationalised and maximised.

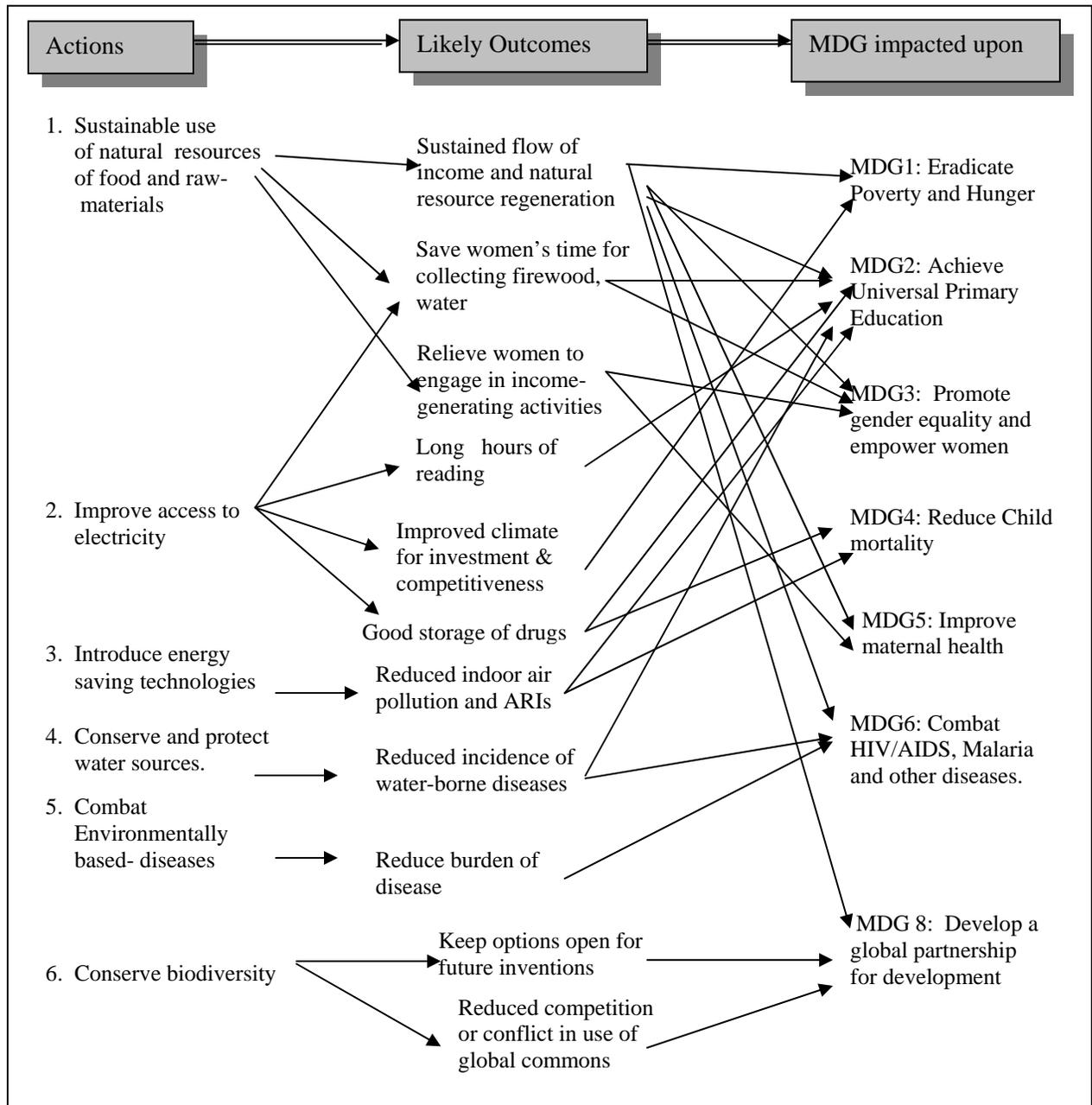
Figure 2.9: Key phases in mainstreaming environmental concerns



2.4 Environment as a powerful rallying sector for attainment of MDGs

38. Despite Uganda's low performance on environment described in the previous section, suffice it to mention that environment and natural resources sector is potentially powerful for rallying all stakeholders for the attainment of MDGs. (See Figure 2.10). This gives this study a very important justification. It also underscores the importance of an integrated approach to planning if Uganda has to deliver on its several commitments.

Figure 2.10: Impact of MDG 7: Ensuring environmental sustainability on other MDGs



Source: Sustainable Development Centre Database for Civil Society Organisations

Key message: NEMA should conduct awareness workshops on MDGs for line ministries and NGOs particularly on the linkage between MDG 7 and other MDGs with a view of helping them reflect the synergies among MDGs in their work plans.

3. Assessment of the adequacy of enabling environment for integrated planning

3.1 Legal and policy framework

39. The National Environment Management Policy for Uganda 1994 laid the foundation in which the subsequent policies, laws and strategies for sustainable development are anchored. Its overall goal is “ *sustainable social and economic development which maintains or enhances environmental quality and resource productivity on a long-term basis that meets the needs of the present generations without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs*”.
40. Overall, the legal and policy framework for integrating environmental concerns in development is strong, and has actually become even stronger in the recent years. This has been shown in the case of the Constitution, National Environment Act and National Planning Authority Act. Further, whereas the policies and laws formulated in early 1990s broadly talk of socio-economic development, those in 2000s expressly specify the importance of poverty reduction and livelihoods. For example, one of the purposes of the National Forestry and Tree Planting Act 2003 is “to promote the improvement of livelihoods through strategies and actions that contribute to poverty eradication”.
41. However, there are some few gaps or shortcomings with regard to the policy and legal framework. The Local Government Act 1997 delegated a lot of functions to Local Governments. The relevant sector legislation predates the Local Government Act, and it makes Local Governments ill equipped to facilitate the implementation of decentralisation principles. Such laws are given in Box 3.1. Government should thus make a road map to update or revise them. There is also an argument that if government could successfully enforce the existing policies and laws, the urgency would not be on revising or making new laws. The consultant agrees with this argument.

Box 3.1 Legislation pre-dating Local Government Act, 1997

- Public Health Act, 1931
- Roads Act, 1943
- Fish and Crocodile Act, 1951
- Animal Diseases Act, 1918
- Animals (prevention & cruelty) Act, 1957
- Hides and skins Act, 1951
- Town and Country planning Act, 1964.
- The prohibition of the Burning of grass Act, 1974
- The Grazing Act
- Soil and water conservation Regulation

42. Another weakness relates to the practice of integrated planning using a micro-meso-macro vertical step-wise approach. Whereas the concept of 'bottom-up' planning is enshrined in the Constitution and the National Planning Authority Act, no procedural guidelines have been put in place to effect that. From environmental perspective, lack of such guidelines leaves a lot of gaps.
43. First of all, it means there is no screening system, based on criteria, to decide at which level, environmental problems are **best** handled in order to maximise impact, and to recognise availability of resources and capacities. It is therefore not by surprise that agencies like NEMA get involved in tree planting even when it has no presence on the ground, and NGOs, communities, and local governments do the same. Secondly, it leaves the principle of bottom-up planning vulnerable to reversal. Thirdly, it reduces economies of scale (e.g. for inter-district cooperation) in environmental management of shared resources like watersheds, riverbanks, wetlands, to mention but a few.

Key message: National Planning Authority should produce clear guidelines for integrated planning including defining roles and giving guidance on which projects or activities can be implemented at each level.

3.2 Institutional mandates for integrated planning

44. Since mid 1990s, government has improved the institutional framework for integrated planning. In this regard, it has established several autonomous institutions out of traditional civil service, a factor that gives them flexibility in planning, decision-making and use of resources. They include NEMA, Uganda Wildlife Authority (UWA), NFA, NPA e.t.c. Others are being planned like the National Fisheries Authority.
45. Secondly, it established structures and positions within the Local Government set-up to coordinate environmental planning. These are District and Local Environment Committees, and District Environment Officers. Institutionally, the government has given a lot of powers and responsibilities to coordinate all national, sectoral and district planning, including capacity building for the purpose to NPA. Unfortunately, both in the structures and definition of specific functions, *environment is lacking visibility*, except for providing that the Executive Director of NEMA is an *ex-officio* member of NPA.
46. Our view is that NPA's Board would *strategically* be a strong institution for ensuring the environmental compliance of all plans. To do this would require two strategies, namely staffing it with environmental planners, and giving it additional functions to verify the integration of environment in the planning. This would not be overstretching. For example, the NPA Act already obligates NPA to integrate disability and gender in the plans. But it does not obligate it for environment and other national issues like HIV/AIDS. Presently, NPA lacks capacity and experience and needs to make its own plan for capacity building.

47. One of the tasks of NPA is to monitor and evaluate the effectiveness and impacts of development programs. As already mentioned, Uganda already has a ‘clearing house’ for projects under NEMA. No institution has the responsibility to ‘clear’ policies for their likely environmental impacts, and to monitor that policies remain benign to the environment during implementation. **This still remains a gap.**
48. In the budget speech June 2005, the Minister of Finance, Planning and Economic Development announced that NPA will make a National Development Plan to guide resource allocation. The concept of a National Development Plan was last heard of 1960s. They used to be 5 years in duration.
49. Building on the above and its mandate, the NPA has come up with a National Development Planning framework with 5 facets, namely:
 - (i) Vision 2035
 - (ii) 10 Year Perspective Outline Plan
 - (iii) 5 Year Development Plan
 - (iv) PEAP
 - (v) Annual Plans
50. NPA has already made a working draft for **Vision 2035**. The vision captures the importance of sustainable development, and it makes specific reference to importance of natural resources and energy. It also reflects the vulnerability due to climate change. Finally, vision 2035 provides the baseline indicators and target indicators for 2035. The theme of the vision 2035 is: **Towards a Modern, Industrialized and Knowledge Based Society.**
51. A few observations need to be made. First, given that PEAP lasts 3 years and there is a proposal for a 5 Year Development Plan, it may be unnecessary to have both. Secondly, going by the experience of other countries (Kenya, Djibouti, Mauritania), it is possible to have a PEAP of long-term perspective. In short, NPA has yet to show the clear differences among those plans. Thirdly, the National Development Planning framework does not state the position of sector-wide plans. More curiously, one wonders about the introduction of Vision 2035 when Vision 2025 is still in force.

Key message: Uganda needs to rationalise its planning processes at national sectoral and local government levels with NPA providing guidance.

3.3 Coordination mechanisms for planning and monitoring

52. The government has mandated several institutions to coordinate and monitor plans and polices. Under the National Environment Act 1995, it mandated NEMA to monitor, coordinate and supervise all aspects of environment. Under the National Planning Authority Act 2002, it gave NPA the powers to monitor and evaluate the functions, the effectiveness and impact of development programmes and the performance of the economy of Uganda.

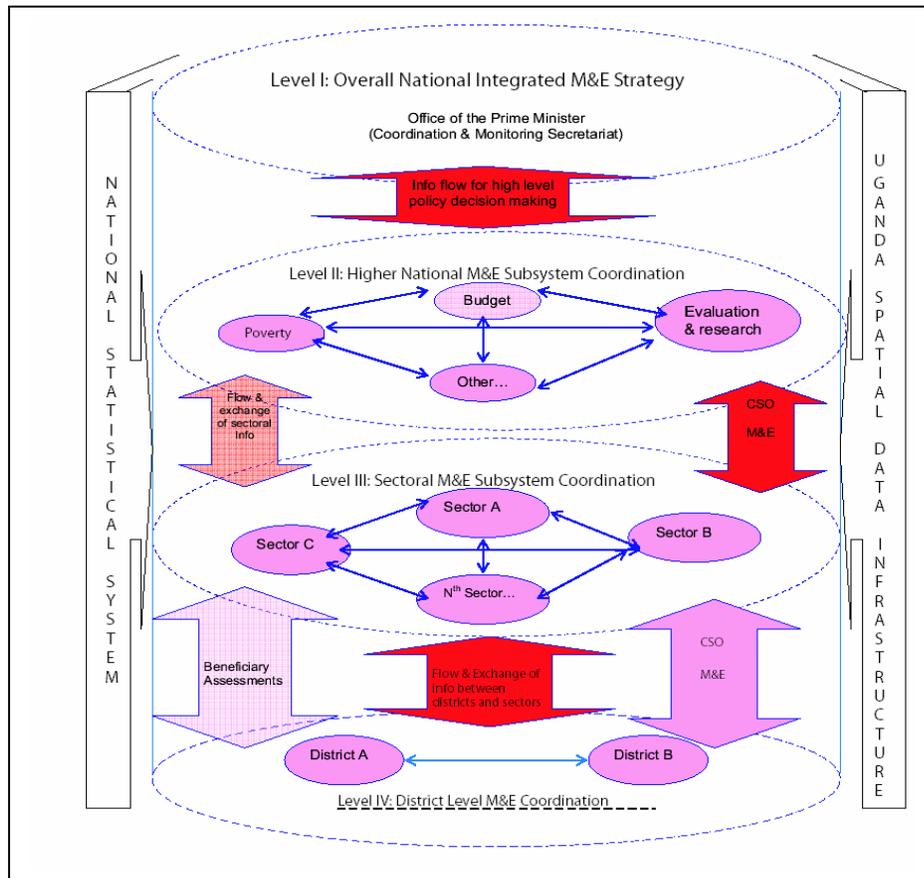
Within the same year of establishing NPA, the cabinet in 2003 approved a paper setting out a new institutional framework for coordinating, and implementing the government policies and programmes under the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM). This consists of a four-tier hierarchy of coordinating committees capped by a cabinet sub committee on policy coordination attended by ministers and implementation coordination steering Committee attended by Permanent Secretaries. A full time secretariat in the OPM has been established to provide support to the apex committee as well as the Technical Committee that forms the third ring in the ladder. The functions of the secretariat include coordination of monitoring and evaluation (M & E) of government policies and programmes (See Figure 3.1). On this basis, OPM has led the development of a new National Integrated Monitoring and Evaluation Strategy (NIMES).

53. However, a few weaknesses need to be observed. The first one relates to **conflict of mandates**. The NPA Act specifies that, in pursuance of its primary planning functions; the Authority shall “monitor and evaluate the functions, the effectiveness and impact of development programmes and the performance of the economy of Uganda” (GoU, 2002:6). There is an apparent clash of mandates with OPM. This cannot be easily brushed aside by arguing that the monitoring and evaluation of the plans is a different activity of the monitoring and evaluation of implementation of policies and programmes. Such an argument would clearly be spurious.
54. Secondly, in 2004 a task team for NIMES established that there were a multitude of poorly linked M&E systems resulting in duplication, wasted resources, inefficient use of limited capacity and a number of critical information gaps remained unfitted. It is therefore not apparent whether the new secretariat under the OPM is sufficiently empowered and resourced for its tasks under NIMES.
55. Overall, our view is that NIMES would need to define its specific measurable outputs different from the outputs other institutions are already making, and on whose basis it can be supported to deliver that output.

Key message: Building on its mandate for coordinating monitoring of environment, among others, NEMA should make a plan on how to relate to different other institutions that also have responsibilities for monitoring.

Key message: NEMA should design a framework for national environmental monitoring, and institutionalise annual reviews using that framework.

Figure 3.1: Framework for monitoring and evaluation of government policies and programmes



Source: GoU (2004: 378)

3.4 Co-ordination for Multi-lateral Agreements

56. Weak coordination is again evident in the implementation of Multi-lateral environmental agreements (MEAs). Many MEAs have a lot of synergies among themselves, and their implementation would greatly benefit from a coordinated approach to achieve cost-effectiveness. For example, four conventions reviewed have similar focus on sustainable (wise) use of ⁴natural resources, improving access to technology, promotion of traditional technologies, and improving information and data exchange. They also emphasise use of environmental impact assessment and economic instruments, and promotion of public awareness and participation, capacity building and above all integration with national programmes⁴. Unfortunately, the MEAs are all spread in different departments and ministries, a factor that increases the costs for their implementation and integration in development plans (Table 3.1).

⁴ The conventions are UNCCD, CBD, UNFCC and RAMSAR. See Forum Proceedings on Development of synergies between four international conventions on environment in Uganda, 24th-25th September 2001.

Key message: NEMA should exercise its mandate and bring all MEAs under its coordination.

Table 3.1: Location of focal points for conventions

Convention	Location of focal point
1. Convention of Biological Diversity	NEMA
2. RAMSAR	Ministry of Water, Lands and Environment (Wetlands Inspection Division)
3. United Nations Framework for Climate Change	MWLE - Meteorology Department
4. United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification	Ministry of Agriculture, Animal, Industry and Fisheries.
5. Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species (GIES)	Ministry of Tourism Trade and Industry

3.5 Guidelines for integrating environmental concerns in sector plans

57. In 2003, the ENR PEAP Revision sub-committee made “guidelines for mainstreaming Environment and Natural Resources Issues in other sector programmes”. The guidelines were for example used in the revision of the current PEAP. Specific, they serve to:
- (i) identify specific ENR concerns that need to be addressed by other sectors;
 - (ii) identify priority actions that can be integrated in other sectoral plans and programs;
 - (iii) provide monitoring and evaluation indicators that can guide other sectors in determining whether they are effectively integrating ENR issues in their plans and programs;
 - (iv) create an understanding of the contribution of ENR sector to Uganda’s economic growth, and social welfare;
 - (v) promote partnerships in the management of ENR with central and local government agencies, the private sector, civil society and local communities;
 - (vi) tap and maximize inter-sectoral linkages with key sectors; and
 - (vii) to guide other collaborating institutions on how to mainstream environmental concerns in their policies, plans and programs.
58. Further, the guidelines prescribe the “hows” of mainstreaming environment and natural resources in other sector programmes, as shown in Box 3.2.

Box 3.2: How to mainstream ENR in other sector programmes

- Analyse poverty-environment links, with reference to the PEAP document to keep within the national framework;
- Identify key relevant ENR concerns under each of the pillars;
- Assess capacity available within the collaborative institution to address ENR concerns;
- Identify allies and initiate partnerships;
- Develop ENR sector plans;
- Identify resource requirements; and
- Mobilise resources and implement planned activities

59. Overall, the guidelines are a useful tool as a starting point. The 65 types of actions listed in the guidelines and the performance indicators are quite comprehensive and representing the minimum package. The only observable omission is that, the guidelines were made assuming that the current PEAP would retain the 4 pillars of the previous PEAP. On the contrary, PEAP 2004/5-2007/08 has a 5th pillar on **human development**. The guidelines do not reflect the type of issues, actions or indicators for this pillar from environmental point of view. **Needless to mention, they need to address this omission.** Guidelines have also helped Local governments to reflect environmental concerns in their plans. In fact, Local governments are annually assessed for, among others, their compliance to environment.

4. Adequacy of policies in addressing environmental concerns

4.1 Criteria for assessing adequacy of policies

60. Several criteria were used as the basis for assessing the adequacy of policies in integrating environmental concerns. They are given in Box 4.1.

Box 4.1: The basic criteria for assessing the adequacy of policies

- the adequacy in articulation of the problem
- the matching of the identified problem with a policy objective to address the problem
- the articulation of strategies to operationalise the objectives
- the definition of institutional roles
- the statement of 'baseline' and 'target' indicators
- indicative budget to implement the policy

4.2 Articulation of problems

61. Overall, the policies reviewed described the sectoral problems they seek to address. The only limitation is that they have rarely *quantified and valued* the problems. For example, the National Environment Management Policy 1994 states that 'overgrazing, poor stocking methods, inadequate disease control and socio and cultural practices have greatly contributed to general decline in livestock'. The policy neither **quantified** nor **valued** the general decline in livestock. The National Policy for the Conservation and Management of Wetland resources states all the problems in **qualitative** terms. Likewise, the National Fisheries Policy 2004 mentions that inadequate funding to the sector has been a barrier to sustainable fisheries management. It does not state the actual budget it receives for the reader to appreciate the gravity of the problem. The same is true of the Tourism Policy, 1999 (pg 2) where inadequate funding is mentioned.
62. On the other hand, the Ministry of Health National Health Policy overcomes this by stating that 'there is inadequate funding of the sector with total per capita health expenditure in the range of US\$ 7 to \$ 12, with only \$ 3.95 attributed to government and donor spending, the balance coming from the individuals.
63. The major limitation of failure to 'quantify environmental or any other problem among policies makes the monitoring and evaluation of their impacts and support very difficult to track. Otherwise, the matching of identified problems with policy objectives is adequate.

4.3 Linkages among socio, economic and environmental pillars

64. Policies in many sectors have expressions that recognise the three pillars of sustainable development-socio, economic and environment. The wetlands policy of 1995 describes for example ecological and socio-economic functions of wetlands (pg 1&2). The Energy Policy (2002) states that government formulated it in the context of existing economic, social and environmental policies, the nature and linkages of the energy sector with other sectors; and international and regional linkages of the sector. The National Health Policy argues that ‘for development to be sustainable, health and economic growth must be mutually reinforcing’. The above findings imply that sectors are increasingly coming to appreciate the inter-sectoral linkages, which is in principle, a good practice to policy formulation.

4.4 Strategies for implementing policy objectives

65. A common feature of the policies is their statement of a broad policy objective, followed by other specific objectives to address *specific* problems identified. Several of them also specify strategies for achievement of policy objectives. Notable examples are National Environment Management Policy, (1994), Wetlands Policy (1995), Forestry Policy (2002), Fisheries Policy (2004), and the Energy Policy (2002). On the other hand, some policies lack a statement of strategies, including the National Health Policy. Overall, policies are strong as far as articulation of strategies for operationalising policy objectives.

4.5 Statement of ‘baseline’ and ‘target’ indicators, monitoring plans and budgets

66. Policies are weak in their specification of ‘baseline’ and ‘target’ indicators. This complicates an objective monitoring of their performance. (See Table 4.1). **This is a fundamental gap.** Nor do they reflect resources needed to implement them.

Table: 4.1: Baseline Target indicators

	Policy	Baseline Indicators	Target Indicators	Monitoring plan	Budget
1.	National Environment Management Policy, 1994	No	No	No	No
2.	National Policy for the conservation and management, 1995	No	No	No	No
3.	The Energy Policy for Uganda, 2002	No	No	Yes	No
4.	Tourism Policy for Uganda	No	No	No	No
5.	The Uganda Forestry Policy, 2002	No	No	No	No
6.	The National Fisheries Policy, 2004	No	No	No	No
7.	National Health Policy	No	No	No	Yes

Key message: Government needs to adopt basic guidelines for effective policy formulation, which should include, among others, statement of baseline and target indicators.

4.6 Mainstreaming of synergies of four conventions in national laws

67. In Annex 4, the synergies and overlaps among the four conventions (CBD, UNCCD, UNFCCC, and Ramsar) are shown. All in all, the conventions have focus more or less on similar aspects of sustainable development, including sustainable management and use, transfer of technologies, public participation and research. As a step further, another test carried out was to find out the extent to which the key synergistic provisions of four conventions (CBD, UNCCD, UNFCCC and Ramsar) are integrated in national laws. There is no doubt that this integration is very strong as reflected in Table 4.2.

Key message: Successful implementation of the national laws would actually give effect to the implementation of multi-lateral environmental agreements.

Table 4.2: Synergies of Four conventions

Synergies among four conventions (CBD, UNCCD, UNFCCC, Ramsar)	National Environment Act 1995	Uganda Wild Life Act, 1996	National Forestry and Tree Planting Act 2003	Constitution
1. Sustainable management or wise use	Sec 33	Sec 5	Sec 92	xxvii 245
2. Create nature reserves or protected areas		Sec 17	Sec 6,9	Xiii
3. Environmental impact assessment	Sec 19	Sec 15	Sec 38	
4. Transfer of technology				
5. Research	Sec 6	Sec 5	Sec 54	
6. Information collection analysis and exchange	Sec 86		Sec 91	
7. capacity building and training	Sec 6		Sec 54	
8. Public education and awareness	Sec 85-87			xviii
9. Public participation				
10. Incentives/disincentives (economic instruments)	Sec. 88, 89, 93,94	Sec 68,69	Sec 40,70,74	
11. National Action programmes/strategies	Sec 6		Sec 49	
12. Technical information centre				
13. Sub-regional action programmes				
14. Monitoring and evaluation	Sec 23	Sec 16		

4.7 Legal backing to give effect to the implementation of policy

68. An important test was made to establish the extent to which policy objectives have legal backing in the relevant sectoral or other laws. Without legal backing, enforcing compliance can be rather difficult. A case study was made of the National Environment management Policy. The aims were:
- to establish whether the policy objectives have legal backing, and
 - the extent to which the legal provisions have been implemented to date.
- Generally, policy statements were given legal provisions. The few examples illustrate this point in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Giving legal bite to policy statement under the National Environment Act (1995)

Problem identified	Policy objective	Legal
1. The use of EIA has not yet been fully understood and appreciated by the policy makers and resource users	To provide a system of EIA and environmental monitoring so that adverse environmental impacts can be foreseen, eliminated or mitigated	Section 20 (3) EIA to be taken by developers
2. Environmental standards and laws on pollution management are still inadequate and/or non-existent in some areas. No adequate waste disposal facilities in place	To control the pollution of water, land and air from domestic, industrial and other emissions and discharges, and promote environmentally sound management of wastes and hazardous materials.	Section 27: Establish standards for discharge of effluent into water. Section 29: Establish standards for the control of noise and vibration pollution. Section 54: management of hazardous waste
3. Overgrazing, poor stocking methods, inadequate disease control and socio-cultural practices have greatly contributed to general decline in livestock and range land sector	To manage the nation's rangeland resources within the capacity of the land to support both livestock and wildlife	Section 48: make guidelines for management of rangelands
4. Degradation of wetland as a result of being drained mainly for agricultural production brick-making and industrial expansion	To promote the conservation of wetlands to sustain their ecological and socio-economic functions for the present and future well-being of the people	Section 37: Establish guidelines for the identification and sustainable management of all wetlands in Uganda
5. The effects of indirect and direct economic measures on the environment are not considered and integrated in the national socio-economic development planning procedures	To integrate environmental costs and benefits into economic planning and development at all levels of government in order to reflect the true costs and benefits of development.	Section 93: user fees to ensure that those who use environmental resources pay the proper values for the utilisation of the resource.

4.8 Problems and policy statements lacking legal bite

69. A test was carried out to find out whether all identified problems and policy statements get legal provisions within the laws to address them. The request was made by the project's steering committee, which wondered why despite good policy statements, there is little to show in terms of effective implementation. The test was made specifically on the National Environment Act.
70. In brief, the finding was that there are policy provisions without legal bite. During the NEAP process 1991-1995, it was identified that one of the problems to deal with was to balance population growth, agricultural production and environmental quality. It accordingly set the policy objective "to manage population growth, settlement, distribution of health in such a way as to match people and resources in an economically productive socially acceptable and environmentally sound manner". There was no legal provision in the National Environment Act to deal with this problem. Secondly, as it is in many policy provisions, the National Environment Policy provided for "promotion of increased involvement of NGOs capable of assisting in grassroots' implementation of the policy". Again, this provision has no backing of a legal provision, implying one can choose or not choose to work with NGOs.

Key message: Policy statements without legal provisions to back them up are not easily enforced.

71. Further, a test was made of the National Environment Act to establish the extent to which the provisions have been implemented. It was found that several institutions and structures have been put in place. They include NEMA, policy committee on environment, DECs, LECs, technical committees, district environment officers, environmental inspectors e.t.c. Various standards on soil quality, noise and discharge of effluent into water or on land have been made. Several regulations have also been made, particularly for EIA, waste management, hilly and mountainous area management, wetlands and river banks, ozone depleting substance, waste discharge and conduct and certification of environmental practitioners, to mention but a few.
72. A few guidelines, policies and instruments have not yet been made, including the land use plan, guidelines for rangeland management and plans for responses to local environmental disasters. Even though a few legal provisions are yet to be affected, those that have been effected do not seem to have caused a reversal to degradation.

Key message: There is a case to critically evaluate the performance of NEAP, and for identifying other barriers like financing of environment, management and enforcement, monitoring and capacity building.

4.9 Impacts of economy wide policies on livelihoods and conservation

73. Besides the sectoral policies and laws, the Government has also been prescribing economy wide policies aimed at stimulating economic growth and stabilizing the economy from inflation. Examples of such policies include liberalization of trade, labour and foreign exchange. It also includes privatisation, removal of subsidies, price controls and quotas. However, while these policies are also well intentioned, they are not always environmentally benign. This then calls for their periodic review so that those yielding negative impacts on both livelihoods and environment are fine-tuned. Table 4.4 illustrates some of the ‘voices of the poor’ in some districts of Uganda. It is evident from the table that some sources of livelihoods, particularly employment was negatively affected by privatisation. Besides, the poor are weary of pollutions and malnutrition because of unregulated fish trade liberalization.

Key message: Working in consultation with NEMA, NPA should institutionalise a system to periodically review the impact of economy wide policies on the environment with a view of mitigating negative efforts in a timely manner.

Table 4.4: The Poor’s perceptions of economy wide policies on livelihoods and environment

District	Positive impacts	Negative impacts
Trade liberalization		
Kalangala District	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A rapid increase of fish processing plants, generating employment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Reckless fishing (including fish poisoning) in order to maximize profits ▪ Increase in the pollution of Lake Victoria ▪ Fish is exported at cost of people’s nutrition
Kampala District	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A wide range of commodities are now available at competitive prices 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Some industries which were offering employment closed down because of cheaper imports
Kabarole District	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Privatisation has improved service delivery e.g. town cleanliness and tax collection 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪
Moyo District	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ “ Government should hurry to sell what is not yet sold. It is more effective and efficient. Those who accuse it are the ones who were benefiting at the expense of millions of Ugandans especially us the rural people” Bushenyi Report, pg 64 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Trade liberalization killed the co-operatives and gave middlemen opportunity to make supernormal profits
Privatisation		
Kampala District		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ With improved technology, privatisation has created unemployment
Kapchorwa District		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Workers have been enslaved because investors do not respect the institutions of the trade union

74. It is argued that for an effective linking of micro-meso-macro aspects of poverty monitoring, one needs to understand transmission channels through which policy reforms can be expected to have an impact on the various segments of society. The World Bank Users' Guide to Poverty and Social Impact Analysis (PSIA) (World Bank, 2003) outlines a framework of 5 transmission channels through which policies may cause distributional impacts. They are employment, prices, access, assets, transfers and taxes. Recently, Development for International Development (DFID) working with the World Bank have expanded the meaning of employment to include other sources of income beyond cash price paid. They have also introduced a sixth transmission channel for cases where **authority-** comprising power, structures and processes- is directly changed through policy reform, notably through civil service reform, decentralisation and other similar institutional reforms (Jeremy Holland, Anis, Dani and Peter Poulsen 2005). Each policy reform can have impact through more than one transmission channel. Further, different stakeholders are likely to be affected differently through these channels. Table 4.5 presents the range of tools that can be used to measure impacts along each of the transmission channels.

Key message: Beyond integrating environmental issues in policies and plans for poverty reduction, governments must equally develop the capacities to monitor how policies impact on the poor via 6 transmission channels using appropriate tools.

Table 4.5: Tools relevant to monitoring impacts of polices along transmission channels

Transmission channel	Vulnerability Analysis	Gender Analysis	Livelihood Analysis	Network Analysis	Participatory methods	Non contextual methods	Contextual methods	Process mapping Analysis	Transaction cost Analysis	Empowerment Analysis	Power Analysis
Employment	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓						
Prices	✓	✓				✓					
Access	✓				✓		✓	✓	✓		
Assets		✓	✓		✓					✓	
Transfers and Taxes	✓								✓		
Authority					✓			✓	✓	✓	✓

Source: Jeremy Holland, Anis Dani and Peter Poulsen, 2005

4.10 Case of Local Government byelaws and ordinances

75. As a good practice, the implementation of environmental policies should be taken closer to the people. This is in line with subsidiarity principle. It is gratifying that some local governments have enacted byelaws on environment. Some of the examples are shown below (Table 4.6).

Table 4.6: Ordinances and bye-laws for conservation and rural economic transformation

Location	Instrument	Ecosystem/problem
Kampala City Council	The Kampala City Council (Solid Waste Management) Ordinance 2000	Environment
Jinja Municipal Council	The Jinja (Wetland Resources Management) Bye-laws, 2000	Wetlands
Sironko District	The Sironko District (Coffee, Cotton and Produce) Ordinance 2002	Agricultural Production and Marketing
Country wide	The National Environment (Wetlands, River Banks and Lake Shores Management) Regulations 2000	Wetlands, agro-ecosystems, freshwaters and environment

76. To the extent possible, environmental issues should equally be mainstreamed in other laws (e.g. commercial laws). The reason is that institutions charged with overseeing that such other laws are implemented could be the best to identify and address the environmental issues at **source**, as opposed to waiting for or relying on institutions with environmental mandate. The consultants found practice in mainstreaming environment in a bye-law for Production and Making of Coffee, Cotton and other Produce for Sironko District (See Box 4.2)

Box 4.2: Good practice of mainstreaming environment in a commercial ordinance

In 2002, Sironko District passed the Sironko District (Coffee, Cotton and Produce) Ordinance 2002. It is an ordinance to provide for the production, processing and storage of coffee, cotton and dry produce; to streamline and improve the marketing of coffee and cotton in accordance with the Coffee Regulations of 1994 and Cotton Regulations of 1994 respectively, to provide for the assessment, liability and payment of cess on coffee and cotton; to provide for produce licences, loading fees and other connected matters.

As seen above, the ordinance is to promote and streamline production and marketing of crops. However, the bye-law also has clauses which ensures that those involved in production and marketing of the said crops address environmental issues at source. For example it states:

Section 6(3): Polythene bags and other containers, which may taint coffee beans, shall not be used for fermenting pulped coffee

Section 6(6): The water used for washing fermented coffee shall not be disposed off in rivers, ponds, protected springs or other water bodies.

Section 13(3): Every cotton grower shall reasonably control cotton pests and diseases

Section 13(4): Cotton plants shall be sprayed with chemicals recommended by the agriculture staff or the Cotton Development Organisation.

77. However, according to the legal drafter of the ordinance, she mainstreamed environmental issues unconsciously, meaning that she could as well have ignored or

forgotten them. The question then it raises is: should there be a ‘clearing house’ for laws and bye-laws where their integration of environment can be verified?

Key message: Government needs to consider establishing a clearinghouse for laws, regulations, ordinances and economy wide policies to ensure that they too, mainstream environmental concerns.

78. Beyond looking at the formulation of byelaws in local governments, the consultant evaluated the extent to which mandated local structures can enforce environmental laws and regulations. In this case, the potential of LCI Courts, established under the auspices of Local Council Court Act were studied. The case in Box 4.3 shows good practice of using LCI courts to enforce environmental standards. The lesson is very clear, namely to **empower** LC1 Courts so that they can enforce administration of justice at the very source or location of environmental problems. In turn, this has implications for maintaining quality of life, which is one of the PEAP pillars.

Box 4.3: LC I Court of Nakasero II Parish halts environmental pollution

Uganda Blood Transfusion Service (UBTS) is a government agency mandated to collect blood from the public and supply the screened blood to hospitals. It is located in Nakasero II Parish Kampala. The agency had developed a habit of burning waste blood in the open within the village. However, the LC I Court summoned one of the agency’s officials over the matter. But the official reasoned that action of burning waste blood was being done within the premise of the UBTS. However, the residents could not accept the position. Ultimately, and with involvement of NEMA, UBTS was forced to reduce the act of burning waste blood from daily to once a week.

79. The consultant also came across extreme case where some of the regulations do not lend themselves for implementation by the local authorities. A case study is given in Box 4.4. The case is typical of many laws whose provisions are not seriously weighed against the context in which they will be implemented. Ultimately, they are neither implemented nor enforced, a situation we call policy failure.

Box 4.4: Are regulations and policies feasible for implementation?

Under the National Environment (Wetlands, River Banks and Lake Shores Management) Regulations 2000, the Government has listed 10 activities that may be regulated in a wetland. They are: brick making, recreation, cultivation, drainage, commercial exploitation of wetland resources, sewage filtration, fishing, construction of transport and communication facilities, burning and any exploitative activity of a commercial nature. The Regulations impose a fee of shillings equivalent to \$28 for the application for wetlands use permit, and another \$28 for the granting of a permit. The Regulations also require that the Executive Summary of Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) be attached to the application. The cost of the application, and the permit given above are irrespective of the area to be used in wetlands, and the time. Both the procedure for EIA, and the cost (\$56) for accessing the use of wetland resources are barriers to many subsistence users of wetlands. Consequently, many people use wetlands without reference to the regulations and often unsustainably.

80. The National Environment Act 1995 established district and local environment committees to foster greater citizen participation in environmental management and planning. As districts and NEMA have tried to establish these structures, the resources required to maintain their viability is enormous. Their functioning needs to be rationalised as much as possible. We also observe that, subsequent laws have established more or less parallel institutions (See Table 4.7). Our view is that resources and capacities are being thinly spread into many structures.

Key message: NEMA needs to study whether environmental responsibilities cannot be rationalised so as to be cost-effective and make savings which can then be used to build the capacities of the few.

Table 4.7: Multiplicity of structures at community level under different laws

Law	Structure
1. National Environment Act, 1995	Local Environment Committees
2. The Water Act, 1995	Water Use Groups and Associations Water and Sanitation Committees
3. Uganda Wildlife Act, 1996	Local Government Wildlife Committee
4. National Agriculture Advisory Services Act, 2001	Sub-county Farmers Forum and Farmers groups, Parish Coordination Committees, Parish Development Committees.
5. The National Forestry and Tree Planting Act 2003.	Forest Committees
6. Land Act 1998	Communal Land Associations
7. Local Government Act, 1997	Technical Planning Committees, Parish Investment Committees.
8. Fisheries Policy 2002	Beach Management Unit.

5. Adequacy of plans and programmes for addressing environmental concerns

5.1 Criteria used to assess the adequacy of plans

81. Several criteria were used to test for the adequacy of plans in integrating environmental concerns. They are given in Box 5.1. They are further illustrated in selected plans in Annexes 5-7.

Box 5.1: Basic criteria to test for adequacy of the plans for environmental mainstreaming

- Focus area of the plan
- Relationship with pillars for sustainable development
- Analysis of trade-offs
- Causal relationship between poverty and environment
- State of the problem
- Source of pressure
- Response interventions
- Baseline indicators
- Target indicators of performance
- Assessment of institutional roles
- Budget
- Monitoring Plan

5.2 Focus areas of the plans

82. Generally, Uganda's poverty reduction plans and programmes have been designed to focus on eradicating poverty, to be achieved by improving economic performance especially in the natural resource sectors, reducing the vulnerability of the poor and sustainable utilisation of resources. All strategic plans were reviewed using a format shown in Annexes 5,6 and 7. Although some of them, have not been presented in the report. The aim was to establish a number of factors namely: (i) whether to articulate the problems they meant to address, (ii) whether they reflect the linkage between poverty and environment and (iii) whether they articulate the trade off and reflect the baseline and target indicators among others. As an example, the National Forestry Plan focuses on contributing to poverty reduction by increasing the sustainable economic benefit and access to trees for all people, especially the poor and vulnerable. The multi-sectoral Plan for Modernisation of Agriculture (PMA) addresses 7 key areas and the environment was believed as taken care by the cluster on sustainable use and management of natural resources⁵. However, because the plans are made focusing on specific sectors or resource, they tend to look at environment from the perspectives of individual sectors, the immediate or medium and long-term trade-offs they share with other sectors.

⁵ Later guidelines were developed where the environment was mainstreamed into all the key areas of PMA.

5.3 Cross-referencing among plans

83. A recent feature of the plans is the recognition of the interdependence and complementarity among policies and/or plans. By way of example, the National Fisheries Plan outlines a range of existing national policies relevant to the fisheries sector. They are: National Environment Management Policy (1994), Wildlife Policy (1995), National Wetlands Policy (1995), the Water Policy (1995) and the Agricultural Policy. It also takes into account the PMA and Public Sector Reform (pg 40).

5.4 Statement of the problem

84. The focus on poverty reduction by improving livelihoods especially income has in many cases overridden sustainable utilisation of natural resources and the need to guard against environmental degradation. For example in the LSSP it is estimated that only one-third of Uganda's cultivable land is under productive use and that more land should be available to be utilised particularly for agricultural production.
85. However, this ignores other findings or indeed the goals enshrined in the National Environmental Management Policy, because, Nkonya and Kaizzi (2002) and Yaron and Moyini (2003) noted that the level of soil erosion is causing massive depletion of soil especially among small-scale agricultural production systems. This therefore begs the question of whether the increasing access of land for the poor is not in essence an incentive to further damage the environment through soil degradation and depletion; whether a characterisation of the problem that included the state of the soil resource would not have allowed for improved soil management as one of the options of the plan, in addition to, redistributing the two-thirds of the arable land that was noted to be under utilised in the PMA. In contrast the National Forest Plan (NFP) not only mentions the quantity of the forest that under use, but, it also mentions how the forest is being used and how much is being degraded and the amount of pressure that is being exerted on the forest resources. This definition of the state of the resource allows a multifaceted approach to potential solutions to the state of the forest problem.

5.5 Sources of pressure

86. Plans, strategies and projects make reference to a wide range of sources of pressures. They include high population, unsustainable practices like overgrazing, weak institutional and human capacities, poor funding, weak coordination and enforcement. In turn, they provide strategies to deal with all these issues.

5.6 Response interventions

87. The popular approach of responding to pressures from poverty reduction strategies that has featured in plans and programmes has been institutional and legal framework reforms in addition to policies.

This has ushered in institutions such as the Uganda Land Commission, and the Wetland Inspection Division (WID), NEMA under the Ministry of Water Lands and Environment (MWLE), NFA, Beach Management Units (BMUs) and Lake Management Organisations (LMOs) and soon there will be the Uganda Fisheries Authority (UFA) in the fisheries sub-sector. The legal framework has been reinforced to give greater power to the newly created institutions. In some cases guidelines have been introduced, for instance guidelines for mainstreaming the environment, and mainstreaming gender and occupational health issues. The approach of setting up new structures is further reflected in the National Environment Act 1995, which set up DECAs and LECs in local governments. A scenario of mainstreaming environment in the **job descriptions** of existing technical staff was not explored.

88. The new institutions have introduced new ideas that require new management approaches. This has forced the new institutions to carry out capacity building, which in part have led to increased administrative costs. The new institutions often require more information to plan and implement effectively, and in some cases at the Local Government level co-management or greater community participation has been become part of the reforms. This means that the new institutions, just as their predecessors, become centres of bureaucracy and whether this actually increases efficiency and creates greater harmony in the resource sectors has not been seriously evaluated.
89. It has already been shown in Chapter 4 that even at grass root level, there is institutional burden. This is clear evidence that Uganda has tended to establish institutions as a response measure to environmental problems without seriously evaluating alternative scenarios of service delivery using existing ones.
90. Recently, the government has been studying the possibility of merging Uganda Tourism Board, Uganda Export Promotion Board and Uganda Investment Authority because they share common functions. The merger would in addition lower operational costs. The delayed decision on this merger is a reflection of how individual interests for power and authority can override national goal for harmony and cost-effectiveness. To effect the reform, political will is necessary.
91. Another response measure has been to provide for establishment of funds to address the likely financial constraints the established institutions may face. Table 5.1 provides clear evidence of such funds, and the fact that they are not operational. This case conveys a clear message that without operationalising vital clauses within policies and laws, we cannot expect to achieve environmental sustainability. If anything, government may be spreading its scarce resources thinly into very many institutions and structures.

Table 5.1: Status of various environmental funds in Uganda

Fund name	Legal basis	Status
1. National Environment Fund	National Environment Act, 1995	Not yet operational
2. The Wildlife Fund	Uganda Wildlife Act, 1996	Not yet operational
3. The Land Fund	The Land Act, 1998	Not yet operational
4. National Tree Fund	National Forestry and Tree Planting Act, 2003	Not yet operational
5. Desertification Fund	United Nations Convention to Combat Drought and Desertification	Not yet operational
6. Fisheries Fund	Uganda Fisheries Policy	Yet to be given legal status

5.7 Relationship among socio, economic and environment pillars

92. The Health Sector Strategic Plan (HSSP) sets characterises the vulnerability of the populations in the (Internally Displaced Persons) (IDP) camps in Northern Uganda, women and children, their lower economic productivity and how their social status has reduced their ability to access services. The health strategy then emphasises the need to integrate a gender component into each strategy. One of the major constraints, in health care, for the urban and rural poor is their greater susceptibility to environmental health problems. The same situation characterises resource users in fisheries, land and forestry.
93. The Land and fisheries policy specifically target creating greater social and economic equity through re-defining access rights to resources, with the hope that the weak groups in the society will be empowered to increase productivity and fight poverty as well. Indeed for fisheries and forestry resources the poor are characterised in the sector strategic plans as co-managers of the resources and increase their access rights, it is hoped, should also increase their need to protect and sustainably use the resources. Over all, plans are increasingly becoming strong on the three pillars of sustainable development.

5.8 Causal relationship between poverty and the environment

94. The trend that seems to have emerged in the design of plans and programmes was that vulnerability and lack of access to resources are the main causes of poverty. In addition, plans and programmes can easily link the relationship between natural resources and the environment, articulated in the need for sustainable utilisation of natural resources. However, the potential or actual linkage between poverty and the environment has in many cases gone unnoticed. The PMA, for instance, promotes the sustainable management of natural resources by promoting the development of land use and management policy and adoption of environmentally friendly technologies in production. The mantle of developing the land use and management policy was picked up in the Land Sector Strategy Plan (LSSP) and LSSP also aims to increase access of the poor to land by devolving land management and empowering communities and districts to make better use of land resources.

However, as the Fisheries Policy (2004) and the Provisional Fisheries Strategic framework noted the focus on poverty reduction that automatically increases access for the poor to a resource may actually endanger the environment and sustainability of the resource (MAAIF, 2004). Some realisation of the backward linkage of poverty to the environment has been expressed in the Health Sector Strategic Plan, which advocates for intensification of preventive services especially in health promotion and environmental health. These activities target the poor and vulnerable by reducing their predisposition to exacerbate their poverty by allowing their environment to collapse and thereby become a major source for environmental health problems.

95. The PMA sought to promote irrigation in drought prone areas. The PMA notes that as much as 4 - 12% of the underperformance in GDP could be as a result of poor environmental and natural resource management. Further (MWLE, 2003) noted that 86% to 91% of this could be from poor agricultural practices that degrade and deplete soil. So, beyond showing causal relationships, plans need to improve on choices of actions that would **actually** reduce rather than intensify degradation.

5.9 Baseline and Target or performance indicators

96. All the programmes and plans reviewed appropriately defined the problems, which set a precedent in many cases that pressured the design of these programmes and plans. However, only one or two state the baseline and or target (performance) indicators. The result is that the performance of the plans and programmes cannot be universally monitored or evaluated on common ground that would enable all concerned parties to collaborate the reported performance. In some cases indicators were simply not achieved (Table 5.2). For example, the LSSP set as it target between 2001 and 2004 development and adoption by cabinet of a Land Use and Management Policy. This was not achieved. In for multi-programme plans such as the PMA setting baseline indicators and performance targets was evidently hard since new programmes had to evolve. However, since a clearer picture exists now there is no reason why indicators could not be developed for each of the key programme areas.

Table 5.2: Use of baseline and performance indicators in plans and programmes

Programme or plan	Baseline indicator		Target or performance indicator		Benchmark conditions
	Statement	Quantitative	Statement	Quantitative	
Land Sector Strategic Plan	✓	×	✓	×	✓
Health Sector Strategic Plan (I & II)	✓	×	✓	✓	✓
National Forest Plan	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Plan for Modernisation of Agriculture	×	×	×	×	✓
Medium Term Competitive Strategy	×	×	×	×	✓
Wetland Sector Strategic Plan	×	×	✓	×	✓
Uganda Sustainable Tourism Development Plan	×	×	✓	×	✓

5.10 Assessment of institutional roles

97. The apex bodies for most plans and programmes, such as the National Forestry Authority (NFA), Wetland Inspection Division (WID), the proposed Uganda Fisheries Authority (UFA) and others are concerned with developing policy, research, building capacity, mobilisation of resources, and monitoring and evaluation. The plans and programmes have been fitted within Uganda's decentralisation framework where the design matches with the three levels of Government the Central Government, District Local Government and Sub-county Local Governments. Specifically, the LSSP has created a three-tier system at national, district and local level. Implementation of HSSP is through the health care delivery system, which has been structured into the formal central Ministry of Health and then District structure for health care, which itself is broken down arranged along the local council structure at LCIV (County), LCIII (Sub-county), LCII (Parish), and LCI (Village).
98. In spite of creating national apex institutions, the National Forest plans (in community and local forest reserves) and the Wetland sector strategic plans work within the Local Government framework. However, in cases where violation has been observed, as in the management of local forest reserves, the National Forest and Tree Planting Act (2003) mandates the NFA to take overall supervision of the affected forest reserve. Such contingencies, however, do not exist for all resources.

5.11 Resources budgeted

99. Increasingly, plans are reflecting the budgets needed to implement the recommended actions. This is true of National Environment Plan 2002, Fisheries Strategic Plan and Wetlands Strategic Plan. The only activity that one would recommend is to assess how much of the budgets are actually availed to the sectors.

5.12 A case study of the PMA and the level of environmental integration

100. The Plan for Modernisation largely focused on land, water and forestry and the PMA secretariat cooperating with environmental regulators. With regard to land and water the PMA proposed more equitable use of these resources; through increased land access for those with poor access and irrigation and water storage and harvesting structures for areas with acute shortage. Indeed the PMA development process itself involved consultation of several stakeholders at the time. Perhaps the greatest achievement with regard to the environment and natural resources gained was the adoption of sustainable natural resource utilisation and management as one of the pillars of the plan. This has ensured that as the PMA has evolved and human resources, and financial support been extended, the importance of environmental issues has also progressed. In June 2002, the TOR for the PMA sub-committee on natural resources were developed. The focal areas are: land use and ownership, soils (fertility and erosion), water for production, forestry, environmental pollution, environmental education, environmental planning, wetlands, rangelands, energy, wildlife, fisheries, meteorology, and mining of minerals.
101. Currently, PMA guidelines developed for project/programmes require a Preliminary Environmental Impact Assessment, giving a summary and results of any assessment. With regard to environmental compliance of PMA projects/programmes, the guidelines show that a proposal is evaluated on the basis of the information provided about the prospective Monitoring and Evaluation arrangement built into the design of the project. The specific guiding questions used to assess projects on their integration of environmental and natural resource utilisation and management are:
- (i) will the project conserve natural resources such as soil, water and forests?
 - (ii) will the project negatively affect the environment?
 - (iii) will project promote sustainable use and management of natural resources?
102. The PMA secretariat has representation on the Environment and Natural Resources – Sector Working Group of Uganda (ENR – SWG). This ENR – SWG is tasked with planning, budgeting and monitoring and evaluation for the ENR in Uganda. However, within the PMA Secretariat itself, the PMA sub-committee on natural resources is charged with the responsibility, where appropriate, to develop terms of reference and make recommendations for studies enhancing performance of PMA

implementation in natural resource use and management; identify issues or threats to the PMA and make PMA steering committee aware of them as well as making recommendations on how these can be addressed to ensure that the threat is minimised; develop guideline to help natural resource sectors develop PMA compliant plans; verify environment and natural resource plans for their PMA compliancy; and make recommendations to PMA steering committee on additional supported need by particular sectors. Finally the PMA subcommittee writes annual reports on progress in the PMA's ENR activities.

103. In the wider scheme of Uganda's poverty reduction strategy (PEAP), the PMA funds or clears projects for funding based on criteria that help tackle poverty. And these have been included in the guidelines used for assessing project compliance. The criteria that have relevance to poverty are:

- (i) is the project targeting the needs and constraints of the vulnerable groups such as subsistence farmers, women, widows, female-headed households, people with disabilities, youth, orphans, elderly and the sick (HIV/AIDS)?
- (ii) will the project build capacity of the poor/community to benefit directly from and take up new opportunities offered by the Project to improve well-being?
- (iii) is the project Gender sensitive and responsive to the constraints and needs of the community (offering equal opportunity for men and women)?
- (iv) are the project resources/funds allocated to poverty eradication activities/interventions?

Key message: Beyond making plans, there is value in allocating responsibilities to individuals to oversee the implementation of specific sections in the plan including those that relate to environment.

6. Assessment of integrating environment in PEAP

6.1 Treatment of ENR in PEAP

104. PEAP is very strong in its assessment of poverty in Uganda. In fact, chapter 2 of PEAP is entitled: *Poverty in Uganda: Trends and patterns*. Environment is not analysed separately, but appears throughout the report and the analysis of PEAP pillars (See Table 6.1). The PEAP observes that it is too early to say whether the slowdown in poverty reduction in 2002 (from 35% to 38%) is a temporary fluctuation or reflects a more structural set of problems. Fundamentally however, it asserts that there is no doubt that soil fertility is widely reported to be decreasing and technology does not seem to be responding fast enough (pg 16). Northern Uganda is the region where the majority of people below poverty line are found. The major reason is insecurity, which has been in the area for 19 years.

Table 6.1: Integration of environment into 5 PEAP pillars

Pillar	Priority actions	Reference
1. Economic management	<i>General:</i> Actions to enhance environmental sustainability	Pg 34
2. Enhance production, Competitiveness and incomes	<i>Agriculture:</i> Integrate environmental concerns, especially soil fertility in farmer advice, e.g. NAADS. <i>Livestock:</i> Implement the water for production strategy. <i>Energy:</i> The rural electrification strategy will be implemented. <i>Mining:</i> Put in place mining regulations <i>Tourism:</i> Diversify tourism products <i>Environment:</i> Develop a strategy for the ENR Sector <i>Land:</i> Improve security <i>Forestry:</i> Establish Tree Fund in support of the planting. <i>Fisheries:</i> Establish new Fisheries Agency <i>Wetlands:</i> Support community initiatives <i>Climate:</i> Establish appropriate institution for CDM <i>Wildlife:</i> Minimise encroachment	Pg 55 Pg 63 Pg 65 Pg 67 Pg 68 Pg 73 Pg 75 Pg 78 Pg 80 Pg 82 Pg 83 Pg 84
3. Security, conflict resolution and disaster management	<i>Natural Disaster:</i> Establish an Emergency Contingency Fund in accordance with the Public Finance and Accountability Act	Pg 108
4. Good governance	<i>International Conventions:</i> Government will fulfil all its reporting requirements under International Conventions	Pg 121
5. Human development	<i>Health:</i> Procure malaria commodities (preventive and curative). <i>Water and Sanitation:</i> Expand rural water supply	Pg 167 Pg 170

105. According to PEAP, it is also apparent that the benefits from ENR may not be fully realized unless the government addresses the following urgent concerns:
- (i) Define boundaries of the ENR sector and work towards closer collaboration, a single investment plan, and single budget.
 - (ii) Development of a strategy for the ENR sector (PEAP pg 73)
- These are now being addressed by MWLE. Suffice it to mention that the boundary includes fisheries, forestry, climate, wildlife and environment.
106. The structure of PEAP along the five pillars does not allow it to reflect environment and natural resources as mainstream. Once completed, the ENR plan will depict the mainstream of the sector. Further, some aspects of ENR will remain as mainstream because they have their own plans (water, energy, minerals).
107. Compared to the previous PEAP, the current PEAP is very strong in mainstreaming, environment and natural resources in all its five pillars. The reasons for this are two, namely that at the time PEAP was being revised, the MWLE had made ‘Guidelines for mainstreaming Environment and National Resources Issues in other Sector Programmes’ which the ENR PEAP Revision sub committee used. Secondly, the support from the Netherlands Embassy also facilitated this group to consistently pay attention to issues of environment and natural resources. The tone this group followed was very clear, namely that of ensuring a **win-win** situation for environment and development.

6.2 Values attached to the environment

108. Another key aspect of improvement in the present PEAP is the tendency towards **quantifying** the impacts, and in some cases, **attaching values** to them. Values have the benefit of informing policy makers about the values of the resources or the costs being incurred to the economy or segments of society due to degradation (See Box 6.1) Besides, they can be used as some of the indicators to measure progress over time.

Box 6.1: Illustration of the values PEAP attached to the environment

- *The cost of NR degradation is 17% of GNI per year.*
- *Forests provide economic value \$360m of which only \$112m is captured in the official state.*
- *Average distance travelled to collect firewood has risen markedly from 0.06km in 1992 to 0.73km in 2002.*
- *The annual direct production value of wetlands range between \$300-600 per hectare.*
- *Purification and carbon sequestration in values go up to \$ 10,000 per hectare.*
- *The median time to collect water is 30 minutes.*
- *The presence of electricity in a village increases households’ consumption by 10%.*

Source: PEAP (2004/05)

6.3 Linkages among socio, economic and environmental pillars of sustainable development

109. To a great extent, the PEAP recognises the interdependence among socio, economic and environmental pillars of sustainable development. It strongly asserts that in order to restore sustainable growth and the incomes of the poor, “this growth must take a form that maintains and protects the environment and natural resource assets on which the poor depend” (page 2). Equally, it recognises that it is important to ‘safeguard the environmental sustainability’ in order to achieve the objective of agricultural commercialisation and export production. Reliance on national comparative advantage of fertile soils and a good climate are no longer enough, PEAP asserts.
110. The PEAP observes that inequality increased markedly since 1997. To reduce that inequality, it proposes a three pronged approach of promoting agricultural commercialisation, environmental sustainability and reduction in family size’ (Pg 34). PEAP has strategies that address the three pillars of sustainable development.
111. All in all, PEAP is expressly strong on its emphasis on the three pillars of sustainable development, that is, environmental, social and economic.

6.4 Trade-offs among the pillars of sustainable development

112. In search of sustainable development, it becomes inevitable to make trade-offs among environmental, economic and social objectives. **PEAP does not expressly and visibly bring out cases in which the government has made trade-offs among the three pillars of sustainable development.** However, it has several examples it forestalls the need to make trade-offs. For example, it recognises the need for trade-offs by stating that ‘water resources need to be well managed and protected from degradation for obvious reasons including water for direct animal and human use, as well as being a habitat for capture fisheries and aquaculture’ (pg 73). With regard to wetlands, it raises the concern that ‘there is a shortage of work comparing the economic values of different uses (provisioning and regulatory) of wetlands,’ implying that trade-offs may not be easily made (pg 80).
113. In the wildlife conservation areas, it states that ‘pastoralists’ needs for grazing lands will be taken into account in decisions to create and manage protected areas’ (pg 83). Equally, under the on-going agricultural zonal initiative, trade-offs are alluded to between crop production and conservation (pg 56).
114. Because government is weak in making trade-offs, cases have risen, and continue to arise where the political aim of government is left with chances to go to the extreme. The recent degazettement of forests reserves in Kalangala to give way to oil palm production and the directive by the President restraining NEMA from evicting encroachers in wetlands are few of the many examples.

Key message: To the extent possible, MWLE should clearly spell out trade-off choices as it completes the Environmental and National Resources Sector Plan.

6.5 Priority poverty-environment causal linkages

115. PEAP gives some examples to illustrate the poverty-environment causal linkages. It states that ‘Uganda’s economic growth and its sustainability will depend on how well the environment and natural resources are managed and used’. It also gives a case study from Masindi (pg 77) to the effect that ‘poorer households are much more dependent on the forests than richer households’, highlighting how forests offer opportunities for the poor for livelihoods. Out of UPPAP 2, PEAP states that the average age of the tree stock and the distance travelled to fetch water is rising, suggesting that the existing use of forests is unsustainable and that the negative consequences are being felt by poor people, especially women (pg 73).
116. Equally, it states for example that ‘if women had full ownership of the land they farmed, they would be in a better position to retain control of the incomes’ (pg 52), thus emphasising the importance of **property rights** in fostering investment. Shortage of water also affects the quality of health care and education (pg 168). Based on UPPAP 2, PEAP puts it that there are links between lack of access to safe water and sanitation and poverty (pg 147). PEAP recognises that energy supply is critical to enhancing production, competitiveness and incomes (pg 64). It also states that, forest perform a number of ecological services: biodiversity, climate regulation, soil and water conservation and nutrient recycling, all important for agricultural performance and people’s livelihoods. (pg 77). **Although scattered throughout the entire PEAP, the causal linkages between poverty and environment are many.**
(See Box 6.2)

Box 6.2: Some poverty- environmental casual linkages in PEAP

“ Poor households are much more dependent in the forests than richer households” (pg 77).

“Illegal and harmful fishing and trading practices threaten the sustainability of fisheries. Past management was centrally driven and did not adequately include local people in decision-making” (pg 79).

“Wetlands provide a range of benefits (provisioning) and services (e.g. water storage, purification, and flood control)” (pg 80).

“ An increase of 2⁰C could have a significant impact on coffee-growing areas and therefore on the whole economy” (pg 82).

“ Examples such as Buhoma campsite, Magombe swamp and L. Mbuoro sport hunting show the potential for wildlife to contribute towards poverty eradication” (pg 83).

“Studies have found a very powerful impact of malaria on per capita income” (pg 147).

“UPPAP II demonstrated the links between lack of access to safe water and sanitation and poverty” (pg 147)

“ Improved access to water supply has two potential benefits: improved health and savings in time collecting water”.

“The time burden of water collection falls mainly on women and girls in rural areas, and can be very significant” pg 168.

6.6 Relationship between PEAP and other plans and strategies

117. Another important observation in PEAP, is its reference to other plans and strategies, notably the PMA, NAADS, Land sector Strategic Plan, National Forest Plan, the Wetlands Sector Strategic Plan, and the Health Sector Strategic Plan. It equally makes reference to participatory poverty assessments. In short, PEAP is greatly influenced by, and takes into account the aspiration of other plans and processes.

6.7 Adequacy of proposed actions

118. The PEAP provides specific actions grouped under 5 strategic objectives in the “Results and Policy Matrix”. The actions proposed are **consistent** with the issues analysed throughout the PEAP. Some of the actions are listed below against their respective problem. (See Table 6.2).

Table 6.2: Marching actions with problems identified

Problem identified	Action proposed
There is soil degradation in most districts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Implement soil management strategies and programs
Degradation of forest land due to unsustainable harvesting of forest products	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promote private sector investment in private owned forests • Promote the establishment of community woodlots through DFS extension and advisory services to private and community members. • Develop National Tree seed Centre and establish National Tree Fund.
Limited energy supplies to rural areas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Implement the rural electrification strategy • Promote technologies to reduce the use of fuel wood
Limited water supply to supplement rainfall	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Finalise water for production strategy

Source: PEAP 2004/05

6.8 Baseline and target indicators to monitor PEAP's performance

119. One important good practice depicted by the PEAP is that it has to the extent possible, reflected the baseline indicators against which monitoring will be made. The baseline year is 2002/03. Table 6.3 illustrates this. In addition PEAP has set the target indicators expected to be achieved at the end of its period (2007/08), and for 2015, when the MDGs targets too should have been achieved. There is no doubt that ENR sector plan will even sharpen them further.

Table 6.3: Illustration of PEAP's use of 'baseline' and target indicators

Strategic objective	Outcome	Baseline 2002/03	Target 2007/08	Target 2013/14
2.4 Increased and sustainable forestry production	• % of land under forest cover.	24%	27%	30%
	• Distance travelled to collect firewood	0.73km	0.5km	<0.5km
2.2 Increased and more efficient agricultural production	• % of households with land titles for agricultural production.	<1%	1.5%	3%
	• % of titled land	12%	17%	25%

6.9 Alignment of PEAP with MDG indicators

120. Table 6.4 shows PEAP's effort in linking its indicators to MDGs. In some situations, this has been possible but in others not possible. For example, there are no indicators for MDG Plus targets.

Table 6.4: Relationship between MDG And PEAP Indicators

Target	MDG	PEAP		
	Indicator	Baseline 2002/03	Target 2007/08	Target 2013/14
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programs and reverse the loss of environmental resources Halve by 2015 the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking. Achieve by 2020 a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Proportion of land area covered by forests 	24%	27%	30%
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Land area protected to maintain biological biodiversity 	-	-	-
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Per capita CO2 emissions and consumption of ozone depleting substances 	-	-	-
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Proportion of population using solid fuels 	R 55%	90%	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Proportion of population with sustainable access to improved water source and adequate sanitation (disaggregated by rural and urban) 	U 65%	100%	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Proportion of households with access to secure tenure. (Access to land) 	< 1%	1.5%	3%
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Disaggregated by households with land titles for agriculture production and titled land respectively 	12%	17%	25%
MDG Plus targets				
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Maintain or restore depleted fish stocks to levels that can produce the maximum sustainable yield by 2015 	-	-	-	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reverse the loss of biodiversity by 2010 	-	-	-	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increase the share of renewable energy in total energy supply, and provide 35% of African households with modern energy within 20 years 	-	-	-	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Phase out, by 2020, Production and use of chemicals that harm health and environment 	-	-	-	

6.10 Time horizon of PEAP and implications for environment

121. Uganda's PEAPs have run for a span of 3 years only. Other countries' PEAP is long term- Djibouti 2005-2015; Kenya 1999-2015; Mauritania 2001-2015. To note is that the three countries superimposed their PEAPs on the MDG time frame, that is, up to 2015. Otherwise other countries' PRSP span on average of 3 years. It is generally still too early to draw lessons from countries, which have adopted long term perspective if any, from these countries, but is worth a follow-up.

Key message: Over formulated guidelines, appointment of working teams, and facilitating them to work can go a long way in ensuring that environmental issues are integrated in poverty reduction plans.

7. Assessment of the processes for planning

7.1 Participatory poverty assessment

122. To deepen public consultation and the impact of the PEAP, the Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process was initiated under the Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development (MFPED). The UPPAP is a participatory assessment, first conducted in 1998/99 in nine districts and the second in 2001/02 in a different set of, 12 districts. One of the observations that emerged from the second UPPAP was that the most core poor still felt left out of the planning meetings because they did not understand why they were supposed to attend the planning meetings; their voice was not heard instead it is the view of more prominent individuals that were heard; and there were no tangible benefits from the process. Nonetheless, the process has managed to bring out environmental concerns, which in turn have been picked up by the PEAP (See Chapter 6). The only major limitation observed is that UPPAP 2 selected quite different districts from UPPAP 1. In that way, it lost inter-temporal comparison to see whether the poor had addressed the environmental issues raised in UPPAP 1.
123. The second limitation is that under UPPAP 1, communities made action Plans but which were not supported financially. One cannot judge therefore, whether the communities' own generated investments would have been successful in addressing the environmental issues. It was also wrong to build their expectations.
124. The third limitation is that the teams leading UPPAPs did not help the communities make a clear distinction between the 'causes' of poverty and the 'indicators' of poverty. Equally, the teams were weak in enlisting the respondents' solutions to the problems they identified.

Key message: Future UPPAP should target locations where previous UPPAPs have been carried out with a view of establishing whether there has been improvement with environmental quality.

7.2 NGO/CSO participation

125. The LSSP used considerable participation of stakeholders including communities and, Civil Society Organisations (CSOs). The CSOs took the lead in the development and implementation, with help from media specialists, of the public awareness campaign on the LSSP development process (Bosworth, 2003).

126. In December 1999, a CSO taskforce comprising 10 national and international NGOs, research institutions and other civil society organizations was formed to coordinate the overall process, involvement in sector working groups and to act as interface with government. Uganda Debt Network was selected to be the lead agency that would undertake coordination and liaison work on behalf of the taskforce.
127. Task Force members attend the regular meetings of the Steering and drafting Committees based in the Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (MFPED). CSOs Taskforce members participated and facilitated a consultation meeting organized by the MFPED on the discussion draft. On the 22nd of February, the CSOs taskforce organized its own consultative workshop to update its members, share the PEAP working draft and obtain further input. Input from the workshop was submitted to the PEAP drafting team. Regional civil society consultations have been held in 8 zones around the country and the views received are analyzed and fed into PEAP revision and back to the participants. Reviews by highly technical CSO members have also submitted their comments on the Plan for Modernization of Agriculture (PMA), Education and Adult Literacy, Disaster mitigation, Environment Protection, Peace Building and conflict resolution.

7.3 Private sector participation

128. To enhance the effectiveness of Medium Term Competitive Strategy (MTCS), an MTCS secretariat was created in the MFPED. The secretariat is directed by the MTCS steering committee, which is a public private partnership to coordinate the activities of MTCS implementation, identify and resolve constraints, build public-private partnerships, sectoral linkages and benchmark overall progress against desired programmes outputs (MFPED, 2003). Key among the private sector institutions government consults in the formulation of policies and plans are Uganda Manufacturers Association (UMA) and Private Sector Foundation.

7.4 Parliamentary participation

129. There is a strong level of parliamentary participation in development, monitoring and evaluation of poverty related plans and programmes, and indeed the environment and natural resource, and the Agriculture committees of parliament have not only been strongly involved in the development of the Fisheries and Forestry they have in many cases been invited to observe the state of the resources. The funding and disbursement of funds under PMA is monitored by a committee, which includes development partners, parliaments, NGOs, the media and Government itself. Government's budgetary framework for different sectors is usually discussed by the parliament finance committee and later debated before the house. While policies and sector strategic plans need only Cabinet approval, in many cases parliament has also been approved as basis for building stakeholder support and a sound foundation for success. Where new institutions are created and

a new or revision of an existing legal framework is needed parliamentary approval must be sought as well.

7.5 Donor participation

130. Oxfam, DFID, and the UNDP supported the Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Project (UPPAP) in 36 rural and urban communities, which brought perspectives of the poor into the revisions of the Poverty Eradication Action Plan. The policy and institutional context has undoubtedly been favourable in seeing the institutionalisation of UPPAP in Government. Since the inception of UPPAP poverty has remained at the heart of the Government's agenda. For example, the Poverty Monitoring Analysis Unit (PMAU) has been established in MFPED to oversee the Government's poverty monitoring function. The opening up of the budget process saw the creation of Sector Working Groups (SWGs) comprised of civil society, government and donor representatives to develop Budget Framework Papers for the MTEF.

7.6 Commissioned studies

131. In the implementation of the PMA, HSSP two annual joint stakeholder review meetings are held (the stakeholders include Government, MFPED, the mother ministry, development partners NGOs/CSOs, education institutions and private sector). In addition, all plans in addition to regular monitoring of the day to day progress, and the quarterly reporting, are required to carry out baseline studies from, which indicators are developed for the mid-term and final evaluation studies.
132. The World Bank has commissioned studies to review progress of the public financial management at local government level; staff from the International Development Association (IDA) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), as part of their assessment of the compliance of Uganda's poverty reduction strategy, produced a joint staff advisory note on the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP).
133. Uganda continually carried out Participatory Poverty Assessment and Planning the results of which are treated as feed back from the population, especially the poor, and included into the subsequent PEAP revision. During the last revision of PEAP government commissioned studies on poverty environment linkages in 2 rural districts (Moroto and Bushenyi) and 1 urban district (KCC). This was a great breakthrough because it influenced the design of UPPAP2, with more focus on environment than UPPAP 1.

7.7 Annual assessment of local governments

134. The World Bank (2004) found in a study of 5 districts that all 5 local governments studied used a thorough planning and budgeting process that involved a wide range of stakeholders. The guidelines for local governments in the past centred on the preparation of individual planning documents, not giving enough emphasis to the

relationship between different planning documents and the way in which these documents should be used to facilitate decision-making in the planning and budgeting cycle.

135. The 2002 budget preparation guidelines prepared under the Fiscal Decentralisation Strategy (FDS) attempted to address this issue, setting out the budgetary. The practice among local governments has tended to be to prepare work plans by funding source, however, with the aim either of meeting the requirements of the central government or for departmental administrative purposes for the chief administrative officer. The work plans typically are not discussed by council. This issue is addressed in the new budget guidelines, which provide for the preparation and presentation of a comprehensive annual work plan alongside the budget. Further, the annual assessment of Local Governments does not assess the impacts on livelihoods or environment but rather whether compliance with regard to mainstreaming environment was done.

7.8 Monitoring and Evaluation of strategic plan

136. In 2003, the Cabinet of the Government of Uganda approved a coordination framework to make sure that all Government programmes work in a rational and synchronized manner. Under this coordination umbrella, a National Integrated Monitoring and Evaluation Strategy (NIMES) was developed. NIMES is a coordination framework that is intended to improve the monitoring and evaluation of all Government policies and programmes.
137. A major part of the progress derives from the Poverty Monitoring and Evaluation Strategy (PMES), developed in 2001, which represents an overarching plan for M&E within the context of the PEAP. The PMES identified a set of 33 priority indicators for implementation of the PEAP, for which a systematic effort was made to establish a baseline and target. The PMES classifies indicators along five links of the results chain: input, output, process, outcome, and impact (sometimes also called 'final outcome'). Information is available on these indicators, albeit to a variable degree of regularity and accuracy. The PMES also identifies institutional responsibilities for poverty monitoring. The PMES uses three main types and sources of data: those collected by Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) on the basis of surveys; those collected by sector ministries through their management information systems; and those collected by Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process. UBOS has developed a robust demographic and household poverty dataset, which allows monitoring of national progress against many of the priority indicators outlined in the PMES, including the MDGs.
138. Since 2003, UBOS has been responsible for the National Service Delivery Survey on client satisfaction with services. It also maintains a district resource endowment profiles database. Sector ministries have developed/are developing management information systems in line with the establishment of sector programmes under the Sector Wide Approach (SWAP). The Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment

Review of the existing poverty reduction policies, plans, programmes and projects for their adequacy in addressing environmental concerns

Process (UPPAP) provides qualitative perspectives on the nature of poverty by bringing the voices of the poor into planning processes.

8. Emerging best practices for scale -up

139. A key emerging good practice is that there is a systematic pattern to move from the development of a policy, followed by a supportive law, followed by institutional framework and strategic action plan (See Table 8.1). This lays a strong foundation, assuming other things equal to pursue sustainable development agenda.

Table 8.1: Key environment laws, policies and strategies formulated after Rio Summit, 1992

Environment Aspect	Policy	Law	Strategy
Environment	National Environment Management Policy 1994	National Environment Act. 1995	National Environment Action Plan- 1994
Water	National Water Policy, 1995	National Water Act- 1995	National Water Action Plan 1995
Wetlands	The National Policy for the Conservation and Management of Wetland Resources, 1995	National Environment Act 1995	The Strategic Wetlands Conservation Plan-2001-2010
Wildlife	Uganda Wildlife Policy-1999 Uganda Tourism Policy-2003	Uganda Wildlife Act- 1996	Uganda Tourism Marketing Strategy
Forests	Uganda Forest Policy, 2001	National Forestry and Tree Planting Act, 2003	National Forestry Plan
Land	National Soils Policy – 2002 Land Policy (Draft)	The Land Act, 1998	The Land Sector Strategic Plan-2001-2010
Fisheries	Fisheries Policy 2003	Draft Fisheries Act- 2004	Fisheries Strategic Plan
Biodiversity	Cross-cutting among other policies	Cross-cutting among other laws	National Biodiversity Strategic Action Plan-2002
Energy	Energy Policy for Uganda, 2002	The Electricity Act, 1999	The rural electrification strategy and plan, 2001-2010
Minerals	Uganda Mineral policy- 2000	Minerals Development Act, 1999	-

140. Secondly, compared to old previous policies and laws which emphasised the use of “command and control” instruments to instil compliance, the recent policies and laws reflex a broad mix of instruments and principles like economic instruments (incentives and disincentives), decentralisation in planning and decision making, public participation access to information, community empowerment and public-private partnerships. They also emphasize the use of tools like EIAs, environmental audits and inspections and environmental planning.

141. Thirdly, another good practice is the participatory process leading to the formulation of policies and strategies, a factor that enables policies, plans and programmes to be informed of other on going programmes. In that way, some harmony is realised. It is for this reason that we found cross-referencing among plans.

Related to the above is the undertaking of the participatory poverty assessments which pick up the ‘Voices of the Poor’, and which in turn influence the sharpening of poverty reducing policies and strategies.

142. One of the innovations that benefits both poverty and environment management that has emerged in the new line of plans such as the LSSP, HSSP and WSSP and the provisional FSSP is **generation of revenue** from the sustainable management of natural resources. In the management of land under LSSP, for example, improvements in the administration and management of land could at the same time be used to generate revenue for the local governments. The wetlands and the fisheries intend to use user fees for resource users. The user fees can then revert back into the management of the resource; at the same time remove the incentive that previous resource users had of removing large quantities of the resource without caring for sustainability. Similarly, the Ministry of Health (MoH) has been forced, due to under funding, to come up with health insurance innovations and private wings in public hospitals to support other mainstream HSSP activities. In fisheries sector and with the support from Lake Victoria Environment Management project, the government has introduced a 2% levy on fish exports to be used in fisheries management and research.
143. Ultimately, it is investment on the ground that matters rather than only policies or plans. There are emerging good practices to show that the private sector can address environmental concerns using their own resources provided there is catalytic investment to motivate them to do so. A case in point is pollution reduction and prevention through the Cleaner Production Mechanism (CPM). Several companies have reduced their pollution to the environment while at the same time enhancing their profits. This is a true case of a win-win situation. The same applies to communities.

Key message: Beyond integration of environment in plans and policies, government must invest in private level and community level initiatives to address environmental degradation.

Table 8.2 Eco-benefits to factories

Company	Benefits
Mukwano Industries Ltd	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Water consumption reduced by 10% ▪ Material reduction worth US\$564 ▪ Electricity consumption reduced by 20% ▪ Reduction of breakdowns by 30%
Ngege Ltd	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Energy consumption reduced by 62.5% ▪ Water consumption reduced by 30.5% ▪ Overall yield increased from 38% to 41% ▪ BOD reduction from 341 to 90mg/l ▪ COD reduction from 874 to 140mg/l ▪ Oil and grease reduction in waste from 1400 to 58mg/l
Uganda Fish Packers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Water consumption reduction from 14 to 12.05³ per metric tonne of raw material

9. Emerging critical gaps to be addressed

144. A key gap that emerges in nearly all policies, plans and programs reviewed in the absence of a format to assess impact of activities that were supposed to have been implemented. In essence all plans create procedure for execution and are very thin on following on impacts of what was implemented.
145. The more recent policies like the National Fisheries Policy and National Forestry Policy recognise the critical gap of enforcement. The plans, policies and programmes too do not provide for a review of the enforcement. That is a critical gap.
146. Related to the issue of enforcement, it has become apparently clear that, at the time they were adapted, most plans and programmes and policies were actually weak on monitoring and evaluation. The Consultants believe that moving forward without monitorable indicators denies the implementers, beneficiaries, government and development partners to, on their own, compare what their objectives were at the outset with what was realised.
147. In all the plans, programmes and policies a critical gap of funding has rightly been mentioned; and some cases innovative solutions have emerged such as the fisheries levy (National Fisheries Policy) or the health insurance (Health Sector Strategic Plan). However, these are exceptions because the long-term sector specific funding gaps were only discussed with HSSP. Therefore, in planning for implementation and statutory funding additional funding needed to successfully implement plans and programmes should be articulated and critically evaluated.
148. In the revised PEAP (2004/05) a fifth pillar on Human Development was added to the four pillars that existed in the earlier versions of PEAP. While the environmental guidelines for PEAP covered the four pillars (in PEAP I (1997/98) and PEAP II (2000/01)) the fifth pillar come later. This basically means that the fifth pillar of PEAP is being implemented without environmental guidelines and yet this pillar is fundamental for isolating the human development need from the national and other development focus areas. This is a critical omission that ought to be rectified quickly.
149. Further emphasising the critical gaps of monitoring and evaluation¹ is the issue of accountability. The World Bank (2004) highlighted that communities are unaware of often budget lines and therefore often plan for activities that are not financially feasible, and yet when it comes to the Local Council III and Districts plans are made so as to fit in the budget lines provided. The consequence was that the projects selected were more tailored to the budget lines than the priority issues that emerged.

¹ With NIMES and PMA M&E structure, a lot is being done to improve the M&E process

150. This review provided evidence that many plans and strategies highlight or attend to trade-offs, which have to be made. They do not actually state that having made a critical analysis, trade-off choices have been made. This leaves the situation for implementation very fluid and often open to political manipulation.
151. Whereas at sectoral level the recommended policies are approved and subsequently given legal backing, there is no framework to evaluate them for the feasibility implementation from society's point of view in general. It is therefore not by surprise that as a response measure, government continues to establish new institutions and structures at macro, meso and micro levels. In so doing, it overstretching thin on the ground the financial, physical and human capacities. In fact, some of these structures remain either redundant or ineffective. This leads to both policy and institutional failures, factors that continue to explain the continued degradation of the environment. A few examples where rationalisation of institutions is proposed also demonstrate that **political will** is needed to effect the institutional reform.
152. Uganda annually reviews the performance of local governments using a set of indicators. Those that meet them are rewarded with additional funds. Ministry of Health too assesses the performance of local governments using a set of indicators against which it ranks them for their service delivery. A missing gap in the environment and natural resources sector is that in the absence of a national framework for environmental monitoring and reporting based on set of indicators, it is difficult to review progress and compliance over time. It also leaves reporting unsystematic, uncoordinated and without a raking focal point to bring ministries, local governments, NGOs, private sector and donors into one strong and viable partnership. It is thus recommended that NEMA urgently develops this framework and institutionalises an annual review of environmental performance. Such a review would also help NEMA feed into its obligation for the production of the State of the environment Report.

10. Conclusions and Recommendations

10.1 Conclusion

153. The policies reviewed described the sectoral problems adequately, but they rarely quantified and valued the problems for instance when the National Environment Management Policy states that overgrazing, poor stocking methods and inadequate disease control; and social and cultural practices have greatly contributed to the general decline in livestock. The policy neither quantified nor valued the general decline in livestock.
154. The Consultant assessed the legal backing giving effect to the implementation of policy by taking a case study of the National Environment Management policy. Several provisions were found to lack legal provisions to deal with violation. Among those highlighted were balancing population growth, settlement and distribution of health services in such a way as to match people and resources in economically productive and socially acceptable and environmentally sound manner.
155. The consultant also noted that while economy-wide policies aimed at stimulating economic growth and stabilising the economy are well intentioned they might in turn affect the environment and need to be periodically reviewed. There is some evidence that some livelihoods particularly employment were negatively affected by privatisation, the poor are also weary of pollution, malnutrition because of unregulated fish liberalisation.
156. Sometimes the pursuit of poverty reduction focused on the improvement of livelihoods has overshadowed another stated objective with regard to natural resource management, that of, sustainable development. If we take the case of the LSSP encouraging utilisation of more arable land may have omitted to note that over 80% of the environmental degradation in the country is due to poor use of land resources leading to land degradation, depletion of soil nutrients.
157. The primary source of pressure leading to the development of plans has come either from public outcry for the vulnerable as in the case of the LSSP, and in part the HSSP and NFP; and the need to comply with international agreements such as the MEAs.
158. In turn the most popular responses to environmental and policy issues, featuring in plans and programmes, are institutional and legislative reform. This has led to the emergence of the Uganda Land Commission, District Land Boards under LSSP, the proposed UFA, LMOs, BMUs and several other institutions in the fisheries sub-sector and other institutions in Forestry and Wetlands.

159. Social, economic and environment interactions have been used in plans and programmes to identify root causes of problems such as environmental health problems in the IDP camps in Northern Uganda (HSSP II). In some cases the social, economic and environmental relationships have featured in the description of property (resource access) rights for natural resource users as under LSSP and the provisional FSSP.
160. As was observed with policies plans and programmes were also weak on the definition of baseline target and/or performance indicators. Where indicators were mentioned qualitative descriptions were used to characterise the baseline and targets, however, quantitative performance figures were avoided. There are exceptions such as the HSSP II, NFP and PEAP where quantitative descriptions were used.
161. With budgeting, institutions that get direct funding from Government or direct Donor support have often been able develop clear budgets with a time frame of expenditure stated. However, only in exceptional cases are self funding institutions or resource generating institutions able to provide adequate information on the actual or absolute values of resources they are looking for.
162. The PEAP (2004/05 – 2007/08) makes a strong case for integrating poverty and the environment in all its 5 pillars. This PEAP III points out the reversal in poverty reduction from 35% in 2000 to 38% in 2003 and it adds that this may be a result of temporary fluctuations or a structural set of problems. PEAP III also acknowledges the contribution of soil fertility decline and the slow response of technology as contributors to the current poverty state.
163. The PEAP gives illustration of the poverty-environment causal linkages, by observing that Uganda's economic growth and sustainability depends on how well the environment and natural resources are well managed and used.
164. The PEAP demonstrated good practice, the baseline indicators were reflected against which monitoring was done. In addition, the target indicators to be achieved at the end of PEAP III in 2007/08 were stated. In fact indicators for 2015 as well the target for the UN MDGs were also stated.
165. The UPPAP process contributed to bringing out environmental concerns, which in turn were picked by the PEAP. However, by picking different districts in UPPAP 2 (2002/03) from those surveyed under UPPAP 1 (1998/99) the intertemporal comparison was lost. In addition it is clear that communities were still unable to separate the causes from the indicators of poverty.
166. The Consultant also notes that, generally, annual assessments of LGs, similar to the evaluation of the Fiscal Decentralisation Strategy (FDS) assess compliance to the work plans agreed rather than the impact of the activities in the work plans.

10.2 Recommendations

- (i) NEMA should make a database of the planning cycles in the country as it was found that the revision of the plans offers opportunity to integrate environmental and other issues.
- (ii) National Planning Authority and Ministry of Local Government should come up with clarification of their mandates in relationship to integrated planning and to jointly communicate it to Local Governments.
- (iii) Ten years into the implementation of NEAP, NEMA should critically evaluate and reflect back on what has worked and what has failed and why, and use the lessons to revise it.
- (iv) Government should re-assess all its instruments and approaches to sustainable development with a view of addressing the critical barriers to sustainable development beyond mere integration of environmental concerns in poverty reduction policies, strategies, plans and projects.
- (v) NEMA should conduct awareness workshops on MDGs for line ministries and NGOs particularly on the linkage between MDG 7 and other MDGs with a view of helping them reflect the synergies among MDGs in their work plans.
- (vi) National Planning Authority should produce clear guidelines for integrated planning including defining roles and giving guidance on which projects or activities can be implemented at each level, and what issues of environment are best handled at each level.
- (vii) Uganda needs to rationalise its planning processes at national sectoral and local government levels with NPA providing guidance.
- (viii) Building on its mandate for coordinating monitoring of environment, among others, NEMA should make a plan on how to relate to different other institutions that also have responsibilities for monitoring as its input into NIMES.
- (ix) NEMA should design a framework for national environmental monitoring based on clear indicators, and institutionalise annual reviews using that framework.
- (x) NEMA should exercise its mandate and bring all MEAs under its coordination.

Review of the existing poverty reduction policies, plans, programmes and projects for their adequacy in addressing environmental concerns

- (xi) Government needs to adopt basic guidelines for effective policy formulation, which should include, among others, statement of baseline and target indicators, and evaluation of alternative institutional and funding scenarios.
- (xii) Working in consultation with NEMA, NPA should institutionalise a system to periodically review the impact of economy wide policies on the environment with a view of mitigating negative efforts in a timely manner.
- (xiii) Beyond integrating environmental issues in policies and plans for poverty reduction, governments must equally develop the capacities to monitor how policies impact on the poor via 6 transmission channels using appropriate tools
- (xiv) Government needs to consider establishing a clearinghouse for laws, regulations, ordinances and economy wide policies to ensure that they too, mainstream environmental concerns.
- (xv) To the extent possible, MWLE should clearly spell out trade-off choices as it completes the Environmental and National Resources Sector Plan.
- (xvi) Future UPPAP should target locations where previous UPPAPs have been carried out with a view of establishing whether there has been improvement with environmental quality.
- (xvii) Beyond integration of environment in plans and polices, government must invest in private level and community level initiatives to address environmental degradation.

Annex 1: Terms of Reference

TERMS OF REFERENCE (TORs) FOR THE REVIEW OF THE EXISTING POVERTY REDUCTION POLICIES, PLANS, PROGRAMMES AND PROJECTS IN UGANDA FOR THEIR ADEQUACY IN ADDRESSING ENVIRONMENTAL CONCERNS

1.0 Background

Uganda is committed to pursuing the goals of poverty reduction and sustainable development, indeed as reflected in many policy statements and public documents. To achieve these goals, enabling institutional, policy and legal frameworks have been created and the country is also a signatory to many international treaties and conventions aimed at sustainable development. The Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) was developed as a comprehensive policy-planning framework for the overall development of the country. To take into account emerging issues and challenges, it is revised after every three years. The new revised PEAP, 2004 has just been launched. The PEAP is Uganda's PRSP and provides an overarching framework for guiding public actions to eradicate poverty and is the country's medium term planning tool.

To achieve the objectives of the PEAP and other development goals, many plans, programmes and policy frameworks including; the Medium Term Competitive Strategy (MTCS), the Local Government Development Programme (LGDP), the Strategic Export Programme and the Plan for the Modernisation of Agriculture (PMA) among others have been put in place. Therefore, these interventions are part of the Government of Uganda broader strategies for poverty eradication.

Whereas the new revised PEAP recognised the linkages between sound environment management and poverty reduction, and indeed throw up several challenges for strengthening environmental policy work, no explicit interventions were planned to take forward the initiatives started during the PEAP process. Further more, many of the poverty reduction initiatives put in place to advance PEAP goals and objectives do not adequately address poverty-environment linkages.

The Government of Uganda through the National Environment Management Authority (NEMA), has received assistance from UNEP to carry out a capacity building project on strengthening environmental policy and management capacity at the national and local levels as a contribution to poverty alleviation and sustainable development.

To start off this process, the Project Technical Committee through NEMA wishes to contract a short-term consultancy to review the existing poverty reduction programmes, projects, policies and plans for their relevance to the environment.

2.0 Objectives of the study

The overall objectives of the review is to improve policies, plans, programmes and projects geared to poverty reduction in order to adequately reflect poverty-environment linkages. However, the specific objectives of the review are to;

Review of the existing poverty reduction policies, plans, programmes and projects for their adequacy in addressing environmental concerns

- (i) bridge the critical gaps in the current poverty reduction policies, plans and programmes with regard to the adequacy of addressing environmental concerns;
- (ii) maximise benefits and exploit linkages, synergies and key lessons and experiences from the existing poverty reduction initiatives in regard to environment;

3.0 Specific Terms of Reference

To fulfil the above objectives, the consultancy will undertake the following activities;

- (i) review or take stock of existing studies related to the addressing of environmental issues in the existing poverty reduction initiatives (policies, plans, programmes and projects) i.e. make a critical evaluation of past and present studies;
- (ii) review the project documents including the conceptual framework in order to understand the poverty-environment linkages;
- (iii) critically analyse the current poverty reduction initiatives: the policy development, their implementation, monitoring and evaluation processes and identify the critical gaps, opportunities, experiences and key lessons as regards addressing of environmental concerns;
- (iv) propose mechanisms for benefiting from experiences and key lessons learnt in the prioritised current poverty reduction strategies;
- (v) propose modifications of the prioritised current poverty reduction policies, plans and programmes in order to enhance their contribution to the address of environmental concerns and sustainable poverty reduction;
- (vi) prepare an inception report showing the prioritised existing poverty reduction initiatives, plans, policies, and programmes, with explanations of criteria and reasons for such prioritisation; including identification of critical gaps, opportunities, experiences and key lessons from the prioritised current poverty reduction policies, plans, programmes and projects as regards addressing of environmental issues; and present the inception report to the technical committee.
- (vii) Present a draft report to the national project technical committee and a revised report at the stakeholders' workshop and facilitate discussions at the workshop; and incorporate the comments and suggestions of the stakeholders in the final report.

4.0 Outputs

The main outputs of the study will be;

- (i) An inception report clearly indicating the prioritised policies, plans and programmes and methodologies. It should also have a table of content indicating the areas to be covered by the study;
- (ii) Draft and final reports reflecting;
 - wide stakeholder consultations;
 - a clear understanding of the linkages between poverty, environment and sustainable development;
 - proposals for maximising benefits and key lessons from the prioritised current poverty reduction policies, plans and programmes;
 - proposals for the improvement of the prioritised current poverty reduction policies, plans and programmes to address environmental concerns; and,
- (iii) Effective presentation and facilitation of stakeholder's discussions and workshops and their comments incorporated in the final report.

5.0 Reporting

The consultant will be reporting to the Executive Director, NEMA but will be technically supervised by the Technical Committee and by the Project Focal Point in his/her day-to-day activities.

6.0 Qualifications

The consultant should hold an advanced degree in environment and natural resource management, development economics or any other relevant field.

He/she should have professional experience in development planning, poverty reduction, as well as institutional/management change processes. Knowledge of poverty-environment issues and planning for sustainable development is essential.

7.0 Duration

The study is expected to be completed in 20 man-days after which it will be presented to the national technical committee meeting at which the consultant is expected to facilitate the discussions.

8.0 Remuneration

The consultancy is expected to take 20 man days and the Consultant will be paid at a rate of US \$ 200 per day amounting to a total of US \$ 4000 for the entire duration of the consultancy. A part payment of 50% (US\$ 2000) will be made on the signing of the contract and the remaining amount (US\$ 2000) will be made on the acceptance of the report by the Technical Committee.

9.0 Submission of bids

Expression of interest to undertake the Consultancy including not more than three page concept note on planned approach. The bid should be sent to the **Secretary of the National Steering committee at Jinja Road, NEMA House P.O Box 22255 Kampala Tel: No 256-41-236817/251065/8 or e-mail rkaggwa@nemaug.org** not later than **1st August, 2005**.

The technical proposal should detail the following;

- (i) Bidders Specific experience and qualifications; and,
- (i) Methodology and work plan

Annex 2: Documents, Plans, Projects reviewed

1. Action Plan of the Environment Initiative of the New Partnerships for Africa's Development (NEPAD).
2. Bojo, J & Reddy, R.C. (2001): Poverty Reduction Strategies and Environment. A Review of 40 Interim and Full PRSPs World Bank, Environment Department Washington DC, USA.
3. Bojo, J & Reddy, R.C. (2001): Poverty Reduction Strategies and Millennium Development Goal on Environmental Sustainability: Opportunities for Alignment World Bank, Washington DC.
4. Bosworth, J (2003) Integrating Land issues into the broader development agenda: Uganda, United Kingdom Department for International Development, DFID, An earlier version presented to a World Bank Conference on Land Reform in Kampala, April-May 2002.
5. Dalal-Clayton, B. & Sadler, B. (2003): The Status and Potential of Strategic Environmental Assessment. An Overview of SEA with a special focus on developing countries and countries in transition and its potential role as key for strategies for sustainable development and poverty reduction. IIED, London, UK.
6. Danida (1999): Environmental Assessment for Sustainable Development. Danida, Copenhagen.
7. DFID (2002): Poverty and Environment: Measuring the link- A study of Poverty Environment Indicators with case studies from Nepal, Nicaragua and Uganda. Environment Policy Department, Issue Paper 2. Department for International Development, London, UK.
8. DFID (2003): Environment Guide- A Guide to Environment Screening. Department of International Development, London, UK.
9. IFPRI (2004): Land utilization in Uganda, International Food Policy Research Institute
10. IIED, UNDP & DFID UK, (2002): National Strategies for Sustainable Development: New thinking and Time for Action. International Institute for Environment and Development. London, UK.
11. IMF (2005) A country review of statistical indicators for Uganda
12. MAAIF (1997) Plan Modernisation Agriculture
13. MAAIF (1998) National Agricultural Advisory Services
14. MAAIF (2004) National Agricultural Research System
15. MAAIF (2004) National fisheries Policy
16. MAAIF/Forestry Authority (NFA) National Forestry Policy
17. Mary Ann Brocklesby and Emily Hinshelwood () Poverty and the Environment: What the poor Say. An assessment of poverty-environment linkages in participatory poverty assessments.
18. MFPED (2003) Strategic Exports Programme
19. MFPED (2003) Strategies to promote Economic Growth: Progress report; Presented to the Consultative Group meeting on the Economy, May 2003.
20. MFPED (2004) Poverty Eradication Action Plan
21. MFPED (2005) Medium Term Competitive Strategy
22. MTTI/UWA () Uganda Wildlife Policy
23. MWLE/NEMA (1994) National Environmental Statute
24. MWLE/NEMA (1995) National Environmental Action Plan/ National Environmental Policy
25. MWLE/NEMA (2000) National Environment Act
26. Norton, A with Bird, B. Kakande M and Turck, C [2002]. A Rough Guide to PPAs- Participatory Poverty Assessments: An introduction to theory
27. Poverty and Ecosystems: synthesis of a conceptual framework, UNEP/GC.22/INF/3D.

28. Shyamsundar, P. (2002): Poverty- Environment Indicators. World Bank Environment Economics series. World Bank, Washington.
29. Ssempebwa, R. (2002) Sector-Wide Approaches: The Experience of Non-Governmental Organisations/Civil Society, Papers presented at ‘Sector Wide Approaches: Opportunities and challenges for gender equity in health’ Women’s World Conference, Kampala, Uganda, 23rd and 24th July 2002 (Ssempebwa Robinah for Action Aid Uganda)
30. UNDP Poverty and environment Initiative (2003): A Global Capacity Development Network on Poverty and Environment. Linking Participatory Research, Dialogue and Action. Environmentally Sustainable Development Group, Bureau for Development Policy, UNDP, New York, USA.
31. UNEP [2002] A Conceptual Framework and Planning Guideline for Poverty Reduction Strength Ecosystem Management.
32. UNEP&GEF [2002] Framework of an Action Plan for the Environment Initiative of the NEPAD.
33. UNEPs Project Document on Policy Development and Law (DPDL), 2004.
34. UN-Millennium Project (2005) Practical plan to achieving the millennium development goals
35. Warren Nyamugasira (2005). Uganda Debt Network, Head of Technical Team for the Revision of PEAP, November 2005.

Annex 3: People consulted

1. Dr. Agaba Friday Ministry of Health
2. Dr. Aryamanya Mugisha Executive Director, National Environment Management Authority
3. Eng. Charles Drazu Programme Officer Royal Netherlands Embassy
4. Mr. Boaz Keizire Senior Economist, Department of Fisheries Resources, Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industry and Fisheries
5. Mr. Charles Acol National Environment Management Authority
6. Mr. John Mugisa
7. Mr. Justin Ecat National Environment Management Authority
8. Mr. Muhweezi Alex International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN - Kampala)
9. Mr. Ronald Kaggwa Environmental Economist, National Environmental management Authority
10. Mr. Saul Kaye Executive Director National Planning Authority
11. Mr. Ssekandi H Commissioner Physical Planning, Ministry of Water Lands and Environment
12. Mrs Edith Kasajja Ministry of Water Lands and Environment
13. Ms. Harriet Lwabi Director, directorate of Legal Drafting, Ministry of Justice and Constitutional Affairs

Review of the existing poverty reduction policies, plans, programmes and projects for their adequacy in addressing environmental concerns

Annex 4: Illustrative examples of overlaps among the four conventions

Overlap/Convention	UNCCD	CBD	UNFCCC	Ramsar
Information collection, analysis and exchange	Article 16	Article 17	Article 7.2 (b)	Article 4(3)
Reports to conference of parties	Article 26	Article 26	Article 12	Article 6(3)
Capacity building/training	Article 19			
Research	Article 17	Article 12 (a)	Article 5	Article 4(3)
Public education and awareness	Article 19	Article 13	Article 6	
Public participation	Article 19(4)	Article 9	Article 6(a) (iii)	
Transfer of technologies	Article 18	Article 16		
Incentives/disincentives (economic instruments)	Article 18 (e)	Article 11		
Monitoring and evaluation	Article 16	Article 7		
Environmental Impact Assessment/study		Article 14	Article 4	
National action programmes/strategies	Article 10	Article 6(a)	Article 4	
Sub-regional and regional action programmes	Article 11		Article 4	Article 2
Technical information centre	Article 18	Article 18	Article 4	
Sustainable management or wise use	Article 11	Preamble	Article 4	Article 6 (3)
Nature reserves/protected areas		Article 8		Article 4(1)
Conference of parties	Article 22	Article 23	Article 7	Article 6(1)

Review of the existing poverty reduction policies, plans, programmes and projects for their adequacy in addressing environmental concerns

Annex 5: Plan for Modernisation of Agriculture

Plan Issues analysed	Plan for Modernisation of Agriculture (PMA)
1. Focus areas of plans	The over-arching aim is poverty eradication. This is meant to be achieved through multi-sectoral interventions, including interventions in natural resource management (p.1). PMA addresses seven key priority areas, namely, Agricultural Research and Technology Development; Delivery of Agricultural Advisory Services (NAADS); Agricultural Education; Rural Financial Services; Marketing and Agro-Processing; Sustainable Natural Resources Use and Management; and, Physical Infrastructure.
2. Relationship among socio, economic and environment	The PMA is an operational strategic framework for transforming livelihoods of subsistence farmers in Uganda (p. 1). The PMA notes that natural resources should be managed to ensure sustainability (p. xiii). One of the key objectives of the PMA is the promotion of sustainable use and management of natural resources by developing a land use and management policy and promotion of environmentally friendly technology.
3. Analysis of trade-offs	The trade-off is described for land as improving the allocation of land to its optimal and sustainable use (p.88). The trade-off for water is articulated in the vision for water of availability of water all year round for increased and sustainable commercial production without degrading the environment (p.90). At the time of the PMA the forestry sector had not yet harmonised its strategic position (p.91). The key trade-off for the environment was increased production and productivity for food security and poverty eradication versus degradation of the environment (p.11).
4. Causal relationships between poverty and the environment	Common features of a poor household include few assets for production; insufficient food; vulnerability and various forms of exclusion; inadequate income to meet healthcare and education costs and to obtain household necessities; many dependants; poor health; or lack of social support. Subsistence farmers have identified limited access to land, poor soil fertility and unavailability of water for production and pest problems. The PMA also observes estimates of 4% to 12% of the slack growth due to environmental degradation (p. 92). Effective linkages between Agricultural Advisory Services and Production and Environment Committees at various local government are called for but not discussed explicitly (p.93).
5. State of the problem	The state of the poverty environment, socio – economic – and – environment relation was defined on a indicators. These included: only one-third of the 17 million hectares of arable land in Uganda was used for agricultural production; Previous efforts to mitigate drought led to the establishment of several irrigation schemes and construction of 1,250 valley dams or tanks and about 6,200 fish ponds (p. 87 – 93). Forestry in Uganda covers 1.5 million hectares or about 7% of the country’s surface area, and contributed 3% to GDP in addition to providing over 95% of all the timber used in the country. About 400,000 ha of forest land was declared available for industrial use; By 2000, fisheries accounted for 4% of Uganda’s GDP
6. Sources of pressures	Agriculture had been growing at a rate of 4% per year in real terms by 2000 but fears existed that this growth was being realised through the depletion of natural capital especially soil mining. The estimates made then were that the cost to the national economy due to environmental degradation lay between 4% and 12%. This loss occurred in form of biodiversity loss, deforestation, soil erosion, water hyacinth and water contamination. It was also envisaged that the agricultural sector was probably responsible for 86% to 91% of this degradation. The sources of pressures for both the land and water resource dealt with access, provision, construction, establishment, initiation and implementation problems. There was little emphasis on correcting root causes although, these root cause are constantly hinted at (p. 87 – 91).

Review of the existing poverty reduction policies, plans, programmes and projects for their adequacy in addressing environmental concerns

Annex 5: Plan for Modernisation of Agriculture (Contd)

Plan Issues analysed	Plan for Modernisation of Agriculture (PMA)
7. Response interventions	<p>The response for the land resource is largely through implementation of the provisions of the Land Act (1998) (p. 88-89). For the forestry resource the policies and legislation were still being compiled (p.91).</p> <p>Other interventions sought within the PMA include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Including farm agro-forestry in agricultural advisory services; Harmonize environmental institutional instruments with PMA; Capacity building for environmental management at district level; Promote private sector and NGO involvement in environmental management; Promote environmental education in the formal education sector; Improve upon institutional linkages; Develop baseline parameters and manage the environmental aspects of the PMA; Water policy; Technologies for water harvesting and irrigation; Early warning strengthening; and (weather and food security) (53 – 55) <p>Just as well other the water sector interventions were increasing access through construction, rehabilitation, capacity building, establishment of fish farming research centres, and provision of information (p.91).</p>
8. Baseline indicators	<p>Some of the baseline indicators which were implied in the PMA document include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Policy documents for the land and land use in Uganda; Policy documents for the agricultural sector and for forestry as well; Percentage of arable land that is used for productive activities; Number of irrigation systems and accessibility of the communities in drought prone areas to these irrigation systems; <p>There was little emphasis of indicators of land except for the one-third of Uganda’s who had access to arable land (p. 87). The baseline indicators for water provision were also absent (p.89-91)</p>
9. Target indicators of performance	<p>There were no quantitative indicators mentioned on targets. But some of these targets include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A comprehensive land use policy developed as a matter of priority from the Land Act of 1998; There were objectives mentioned but these were not accompanied by information on who to reach and how quickly (p. 87-92).
10. Assessment of institutional roles	<p>The institutional roles were well articulated (p. 94-103).</p>
11. Resources budgeted for	<p>The resources for implementation of the provisions of the Land Act (1998) and the funding for irrigation were both allocated.</p>
12. Monitoring plan	<p>Monitoring mentioned generally that is efforts were geared towards activities having PMA consistency, the general performance of the agricultural sector, implementation indicators included: farmer interest, and technology adoption rates, appropriateness and transfer (p.103). This avoided many critical questions on poverty reduction, compatibility of PMA with the implementation structure and other gaps.</p>

Review of the existing poverty reduction policies, plans, programmes and projects for their adequacy in addressing environmental concerns

Annex 6: Health Sector Strategic plan (HSSP)

Plan	Health Sector Strategic plan (HSSP) (2004/05-2009/10)
Issues analysed	
1. Focus areas of plans	The main focus of HSSP is attainment of a good standard of health by all people in Uganda in order to promote a healthy and productive life
2. Relationship among socio, economic and environment	The programme development objective is “reduced morbidity and mortality from all the major causes of ill-health and reduced disparities therein” (p. 8). One of the key programme objectives is intensifying preventive services especially Health promotion and environmental health (p.8). The national HSSP was designed to contribute the attainment of the national poverty eradication aspirations of the PEAP, the goals and objectives of the National Health Policy (1999) and the Local Government Act (1997), and through the document reference is made to the Local Government partners and the National Health Policy (p. 4).
3. Analysis of trade-offs	The third National Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP 2004) recognised the relative speed at which the pursuit to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) is a complex of trade-offs, between the poverty reduction and provision of increased health services (P.4).
4. Causal relationships between poverty and the environment	Ill-health has been recognised by the poor in successive Participatory Poverty Assessment reports as the leading cause of poverty in Uganda (p.4). The Backward linkage between the environment or environmental health and poverty was not sufficiently dealt with.
5. State of the problem	The state of national environmental health indicators include: Latrine coverage at 56%; Districts in Northern Uganda, which were not mentioned with specificity but the statements imply the war ravaged districts with IDPs, have 50% safe water coverage; environmental health policies and legislation, and other interventions are highlighted. It is estimated that over 1.6 million people have been displaced due to the war in Northern Uganda (p. 22). The national Cholera Case Fatality Rate (CFR) was 6% in 2000 and it fell to 2.5% in 2003 (P.23). Equity of resource allocation at US \$ 7.5, with equity and access at 70%.
6. Sources of pressures	The main causes of the Cholera Case Fatality Rate (CFR) reported was the poor sanitation, safe water coverage, poor domestic and personal hygiene practices and constant mass movements of Refugees and Internally Displaced People (IDPs), with over 1,600,000 persons displaced in Northern Uganda alone.
7. Response interventions	Capacity building programme for the Environmental Health Division (EHD) to strengthen national coordination, information, replication of best practices and policy and legislative review (p.21); A guide for local government officials on implementing the Kampala Declaration on Sanitation (p. 21); and water quality surveillance. Other interventions include development of district and community capacity; water quality surveillance; promotion of research in Environmental Health, including a study on the contribution of the EH to the national disease burden.
8. Baseline indicators	The latrine coverage; Number of districts implementing the minimum EH service packages; Drinking water quality; Gender and people with disabilities (PWD) responsive materials; and Number of EH policies, legislation and guidelines in place. Others include (p. 22) : Equity of health resource allocation; Equity and access; and Quality of service delivery.
9. Target indicators of performance	The CFR national target is 1% at the end of HSSP II (P.23) Target for latrine Coverage (72%) by 2010. National safe water coverage should reach 100% by 2010. All relevant Environmental Health policies and legislations, including the review of the Public Health Act, and guidelines should be in place and being implemented by 2010. All Districts must be implementing Environmental Health packages by 2010. Equity of resource allocation of US \$ 18 in 2009/10; Equity and access at 100% by 2009/10; Quality of service delivery at 80% by 2009/10; and Other

Review of the existing poverty reduction policies, plans, programmes and projects for their adequacy in addressing environmental concerns

Annex 6: Health Sector Strategic plan (HSSP) (Contd)

10. Assessment of institutional roles	The roles are broken down for the districts and community health service and at national level for the EHD. The Health Care delivery system consists of the MoH; then the District Health System which breaks down into the office of the District Director of Health services; District General Hospital (District level Population of 500,000), Health sub-District (County level), Health Centre IV (County level – 100,000 people), Health Centre III (sub-county level – 20,000), Health Centre II (Parish level – 5,000 people), Health Centre I (Village Health Teams – 1,000 people); then Regional Referral Hospitals (2,000,000) and National Referral Hospitals (25,000,000). Other include: Private Not For Profit Organisations – PNFP, and Private Health Providers – PHP) (p. 15). Other arrangements include community empowerment, public-private partnerships for health and intersectoral collaboration, where efforts from the multi-sectoral AIDS strategy can help guide the HSSP process.
11. Resources budgeted for	The National Health Policy and the HSSPs are implemented through a series of partnerships described under the broad framework of the Health Sector Wide Approach (SWAp). The Government of Uganda has the lead role through the Ministry of Health (MoH) (pp. 10 and 11). The estimated per capita requirement is US \$30-40, and yet only US\$ 9 is covered by public financing. A health sector finance has been set up to which will draw funds from social health insurance, community based health insurance schemes, user fees, project funding to compliment government funding.
12. Monitoring plan	The HSSP II has set indicators in line with the PEAP that will be monitored for performance nationally and among disparate groups for equity purposes e.g. IDPs, children and the elderly (p. 72). The HSSP II will be monitored to comply with the context in which it was developed that is the Millennium Development Goals and the PEAP (p. 75). The major tool used is the Health Monitoring and Information System (HMIS). Key poverty - environment aspects measured include: equity of health resource allocation, absorption capacity of districts, utilisation of HMIS data, equity and access functionality, utilisation and quality of service delivery and others (p.77)

Review of the existing poverty reduction policies, plans, programmes and projects for their adequacy in addressing environmental concerns

Annex 7: Land Sector Strategic Plan

Plan	Land sector strategic plan (LSSP)
Issues analysed	
1. Focus areas of plans	Land management options are guided by efficiency and equity concerns, protecting vulnerable groups. The LSSP was designed to maximise impact on poverty reduction and to be gender responsive. Just as well, management must guarantee environmental sustainability, introduce relevant, cost effective, efficient and sustainable land institution, and democratic and participatory, transparent and accountable planning and implementation of decision making and monitoring.
2. Relationship among socio, economic and environment	LSSP will primarily lead to the achievement of PEAP (2000) goals number 1 and 3, that is, rapid economic growth and increasing the ability of the poor to raise income; LSSP will contribute to increasing the incomes of the rural poor through facilitating the productive and sustainable use of land resources; and Land services will be decentralised through devolution of management of land and empowerment of communities and districts to make better use of their land resources. LSSP will also examine the opportunities for privatisation of some land services, and supporting the development of private sector in relation to land sector activities (p.4). Further more, LSSP will endeavour to strengthen the legal and policy frame work for sustainable use of wetlands; District land boards will lend support to the sustainable management of forest resources held in trust and new initiatives for local ownership (p.5).
3. Analysis of trade-offs	The major trade-off discussed was management of land resources to comply with broader social and economic objectives; and management of land resources to guarantee environmental sustainability (p. 18).
4. Causal relationships between poverty and the environment	Three major mechanisms through which the land sector impacts on poverty in Uganda are: unequal distribution of land access and ownership; land tenure insecurity, and inequitable systems and processes within the sector (p. 12). The environment and land linkages mentioned include: ownership and management of reserved land, where some communities claim customary tenure rights over gazetted areas; management of common property resources the ownership: in this case management of these resources is frequently uncertain and the risk of resource degradation is considerable; and individual land use: soil erosion and degradation are concerns generally but are more critical in specific areas (p. 11).
5. State of the problem	It is estimated that just one-third of Uganda's cultivable land is under productive use. Urban development is less than 1% of the country but accounts for an increasing percentage of the population. The rate of urban population increase was not clearly stated to define a baseline level. There are four recognised land tenure systems (customary, mailo, leasehold and freehold). There is one legal sub-tenure system (occupancy), and two other sub-tenure non-legal systems recognised (renting and borrowing). Customary is most widely spread but there are no definite quantitative figures provided for how spread this tenure system is. However, is implied because registered land (freehold, leasehold and mailo) accounts for 15% of the land area (p. 11).
6. Sources of pressures	Some pressures such populations in some areas, claim to customary land, soil erosion and degradation have been mentioned (p.11 and 12). Land access rights for women and other vulnerable groups are main-streamed; however, the lack of equal rights within a marriage is pending the approval of the Domestic Relations Bill (p. 35).

Review of the existing poverty reduction policies, plans, programmes and projects for their adequacy in addressing environmental concerns

Annex 7: Land Sector Strategic Plan (Contd)

Plan	Land sector strategic plan (LSSP)
Issues analysed	
7. Response interventions	<p>1. To create an inclusive and pro-poor policy and legal framework for the land sector”. <i>Phase One</i> - develop national land and land use policies, review land sector legislation and draft revised legislation. <i>Phase Two</i> - develop district land and land use policies and by-laws relating to district policy; monitor the implementation of land policies</p> <p>2. To put land resources to sustainable productive use. <i>Phase One:</i> collection of data on existing land use; identification of Government land and compilation of an inventory of such land; piloting the <i>land readjustment</i> approach. <i>Phase Two:</i> development of land use plans; development of criteria for assessment of suitability of use of Government land; assessments and possibly some de-gazetting of land; expansion of land readjustment if successful</p> <p>3. To improve livelihoods of poor people through a more equitable distribution of land access and ownership, and greater tenure security for vulnerable groups. <i>Phase One:</i> piloting of a systematic approach to demarcation; national and local public awareness campaigns on basic land rights, training of local officers to provide information on land rights; establishment and training of dispute resolution institutions at district level; strengthening of lower level dispute resolution institutions; piloting of the Land Fund to improve security of tenure for vulnerable groups; mainstreaming gender concerns into land sector activities; and research on practical methods of improving the land rights of vulnerable groups. <i>Phase Two:</i> provision of land rights information and advice; strengthening of lower level dispute resolution institutions; consideration will be given to the provision of legal aid to the poor for land cases, and support for innovative measures to protect and strengthen the land rights of vulnerable groups will designed and implemented.</p> <p>4. To increase availability, accessibility, affordability, and use of land information for planning and implementing development programmes. <i>Phase One:</i> develop and pilot of systematic demarcation, design and preparation for the Land Information System; rehabilitation and decentralisation of existing records, installation of technical equipment and procedures. <i>Phase Two:</i> expansion of systematic demarcation <i>on request</i> based on lessons learnt from the pilot studies; implementation of the Land Information System and dissemination of land information to users.</p> <p>5. To establish and maintain transparent, accountable and easily accessible institutions and systems for decentralised delivery of land services. <i>Phase One:</i> Support to District Land Offices; support for the operations of District Land Boards; strengthening of the capacity of national land sector institutions for coordination and monitoring; conducting a study of the viability and methodology for divestiture of technical services; strengthening and regulating the private sector <i>Phase Two:</i> Implementation of decisions on divestiture; capacity building throughout the land sector; strengthening capacity of districts for planning land sector activities</p> <p>6. To mobilise and utilise public and private resources efficiently and effectively for the development of the land sector. <i>Phase One:</i> Development of a sector wide approach with Government and development partners; conducting a study of revenue generation potential and options; conducting a study of methods for transferring funds to local governments for addressing local land sector priorities; piloting transfer of funds to districts. <i>Phase Two:</i> Strengthening decentralised land sector planning, budgeting and financing; implementation of opportunities for revenue generation (pp 19 – 23).</p>

Review of the existing poverty reduction policies, plans, programmes and projects for their adequacy in addressing environmental concerns

Annex 7: Land Sector Strategic Plan (Contd)

Plan	Land sector strategic plan (LSSP)
Issues analysed	
8. Baseline indicators	The population is expected to double between 2001 and 2025; Only one-third of the arable land was utilised for agricultural production; High land tenure insecurity but the level of occurrence was not mentioned; Incomplete policy frameworks to fill gaps left by the Land Act (1998); Inadequate capacity for service delivery - both human and financial capacity to deliver land services provided for in the Land Act (1998) (p.10).
9. Target indicators of performance	The targets were set as well for the first phase of the plan which run from 2001 – 2004 and the second phase which runs from 2004 – 2011 (26- 45).
10. Assessment of institutional roles	The institutional framework for implementation of LSSP is based on a three tier structure, a) national; b) district; and c) sub-county and below. These three tiers are derived from the decentralisation system as provided under the Local Government Act. The main functions of these tiers in relation to the land sector are: a) policy/ planning and allocation; b) technical services and land management; and c) dispute resolution (p. 46 -51)
11. Resources budgeted for	A financing scheme was developed by developing a cost structure, and investment plan and deciding upon probable sources of finance (p. 52-54). Five sources of funding were identified. These include the Central Government, Local Governments, Development Partners (through grants and loans, own revenue of the land boards, and private sector. The targets of expenditure are then shown in a table (p. 55 – 57).
12. Monitoring plan	The Poverty Monitoring and Analysis Unit in MoFPED, and the PMA Secretariat, will be important partners in the overall monitoring strategy for the LSSP. Significant resources will be devoted to monitoring and evaluation under the LSSP. Financial resources will increase during Phase One to 5% of the overall budget, as under other PAF funded programmes. A list of indicators was provided (pp. XIV - XIX) <i>Uganda's land resources used productively and sustainably for security of livelihoods and poverty eradication</i> Proportion (%) of agricultural land utilized % land suitable / unsuitable for agricultural production utilised Soil erosion/ degradation in systematic demarcation areas: Soil erosion / degradation in demarcation areas % registered or recorded land owned by women (either independently or jointly) <i>To create an enabling environment for the participation of all stakeholders in effective use and management of Uganda's land resources</i> Security of land access and ownership: % land holdings with a land Title, Certificate of Customary Ownership or Certificate of Occupancy Land distribution: Total number of land holdings Incidence of landlessness with no alternative livelihood options: % of poor households with no access to land <i>To create an inclusive and pro-poor policy and legal framework for the land sector</i> Whether policy and laws reflect needs of women and vulnerable groups: Absence of gender or other discrimination in policy and laws (maintain as qualitative indicator?) <i>To put land resources to sustainable productive use:</i> Prevalence of soil conservation / land husbandry: % households using soil conservation technologies; Coverage of various types of land use: % land forest/wetland/ cultivated/urban settlements/national park; Compliance with environmental laws: (not mentioned to be worked out with NEMA) and Knowledge of sustainable land use practices: % households aware of good and harmful environmental practices