# CHARLES UNIVERSITY IN PRAGUE FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES INTERNATIONAL ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL STUDIES

#### **MASTER'S THESIS**

# THE RESULT OF DIRECT AID: MASAKA, UGANDA

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Subject: IEPS

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# **Master Thesis Proposal**

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#### **Proposed Topic:**

The Efficiency of Foreign Aid in Africa Based on a Case Study in Uganda

#### **Topic Characteristics:**

Due to the large amount of foreign aid given to Africa it is interesting from a visitor perspective - and of course based on international news - that it still seems that a large part of the continent is surviving under the poverty level with less than adequate facilities. Based on a personal visit to Uganda, I would like to research the efficiency of aid given and determine where the money is being spent; who is spending it and what it is being spent on. Taking into account that aid can come in the many forms of food, clothing, or money for individual projects such as infrastructure, clean water, or microfinancing, to name a few, I would like to trace the money from beginning to end. By doing field research with local charities and other agencies involved in the distribution and consumption of aid I plan on tracing where aid is spent, lost, or wasted - and through this come up with a viable solution for the area. I will communicate directly with several charities about their income and expenditures, as well as using resources from the United Nations, International Monetary Fund and the World Bank. Using Jeffrey Sachsø-shock therapyø and Amartya Kumar Senøs : freedom theoryø I will compare general poverty reduction to what is happening in Uganda. In addition, The Bottom Billion (Collier 2007), Aid to Africa. Redeemer or Coloniser? (Abbas & Niyiragara

2009) and *Aid that works* (Manor 2006) all give differing opinions on why aid to Africa has not successfully alleviated the economic burdens of the continent itself.

#### **Hypotheses:**

- 1. Hypothesis #1: Aid is not being used efficiently due to highly bureaucratic systems and therefore a majority of people are dissuaded from receiving aid.
- 2. Hypothesis #2: Ugandan family and social customs prevent aid from being used to its utmost potential due to the fact that it cannot take first priority.
- 3. Hypothesis #3: Aid is not being used efficiently due to poor bureaucratic systems including but not limited to corruption, embezzlement and extortion.
- 4. Hypothesis #4: The aid being used it not being used to its highest potential because aid workers are focusing on an easy \*right-nowøsolution as opposed to a long term plan.

#### **Methodology:**

A casual methodology will be employed with field research mainly using focus interviews and questionnaires with aid organizations in Uganda. The questionnaires will be written to question popular theories such as those by Sachs, Sen, and Collier. There will be scale of these organizations successes from poor to excellent. For example, if the charity is an educational system, what percentage of the students leave to higher education or a stable job, as opposed to those who then depend on the state. The answers will then be categorized based on the theoretical background and the successes or failures. Clear background statistics will be used from international and national statistics bureaus. The history of the area and of foreign aid, as well as different theories surrounding the failure of African aid as a whole will be applied to the specific region being studied.

#### **Outline:**

Beginning with an overview of theories about poverty, aid, and how they work together, the second chapter would focus specifically on Uganda, a brief history and the national aid

package, and then move on to the results from the specific region. Contact with and information from local charities about their income, expenses, and projects will be compared to all information listed in the first chapter. In the end my conclusion will use all of this to prove or disprove my hypotheses.

#### **Core Bibliography:**

õList the most important papers/books you are going to use (specify at least 5 relevant references).ö

- 1. Collier, Paul.: The Bottom Billion. Why the Poorest Countries Are Failing and What Can Be Done About It. Oxford University Press, New York, 2007, 205 s. ISBN 98-0-19-531145-7
- 2. Abbas, Hakima & Niyiragira, Yves.: Aid to Africa. Redeemer or Coloniser? Pambazuka Press, Oxford, 2009, 191 s. ISBN 978-1-906387-48-8
- 3. Manor, James.: Aid That Works. Successful Development in Fragile States. The World Bank, Washington, D.C., 2007, 301 s. ISBN 0-8213-6201-1
- 4. Sachs, J.D.: The End of Poverty. How We Can Make It Happen In Our Lifetime. Penguin Books, London 2005, 396 s. ISBN 0-141-01866-6
- 5. Sen, A.: Development as a Freedom. Oxford University Press, Oxford 2001, 366 s. ISBN 0-19-289330-0

Author	Supervisor
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PhDr. Tomas Michalek

#### **DECLARATION:**

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own work, based on the sources and literature listed in the appended bibliography. The thesis as submitted is 96,948 keystrokes long (including spaces), i.e. 55 manuscript pages.

Your name Your signature Date

# **CONTENTS**

]	INTRODUCTION	9
]	METHODOLOGY	11
CF	IAPTER 1: ECONOMIC THEORISTS AND THEIR CONNECTIONS TO AFRICA	15
	William Easterly	15
	Andrew Mwenda	16
	Dambisa Moyo	17
	Jeffrey Sachs	18
	Amartya Sen	23
CF	IAPTER 2: UGANDA'S BACKGROUND_IN POLITICS AND AID	25
	A Brief Political History	25
	A Brief Overview of Past Aid	27
CF	IAPTER 3: SURVEY RESULTS	29
	Employment	29
	Education	31
	Receiving and Sending Money to Family	33
	Female Head of Households	35
	Road Access to Trade	36
	Electricity in the Home	37
	Minutes to Medicine	38
	Childbearing	40
	Personal Food Growth	42
	Disease and Accidents	43
	Reception of Aid	44
	Personal Health	46
	Personal Freedom	47
	Ease of Travel	48
	Life Satisfaction	49
	Federal Government Satisfaction	50
	Local Government Satisfaction	53

Ease of Registering a Business	54
CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH FINDINGS	56
CONCLUSION	61
ABSTRACT	63
APPENDIX 1	64
APPENDIX 2	65
APPENDIX 3	66
APPENDIX 4	67
APPENDIX 5	68
BIBLIOGRAPHY	69

#### INTRODUCTION

Due to the publicity of the large amount of foreign aid, loans, and subsidies allegedly given to Africa it is interesting based on international news, world summits, public fundraising - that it still appears a large part of the continent is surviving or dying under the poverty level with less than adequate basic facilities, such as food, water, shelter, education, and health care. At the same time there is also a small population of the continent living quite well, with fancy cars, nice clothes and more than enough food to eat. Uganda is no different. Although the country has had strong economic growth in recent years, vast amounts of its population still are living in poverty, specifically the 85% located in rural areas<sup>1</sup>. The urban area of Kampala is full of expensive restaurants, Land Rovers navigated by personal drivers of swanky citizens and modern dance clubs filled until the early morning hours.

The purpose of this paper is to look at the efficiency of developmental aid from many perspectives and determine whether Uganda is actually working towards equalizing the socioeconomic layout of its population or allowing the gap to widen. There are many ways to classify aid and its ramifications. Some consider it to be money, whether it is given to individuals for school fees and food or to governments to improve infrastructure and pay off debts. Others consider it to be material, such as mosquito nets, school buses, or the implementation of water pumps and sanitary latrines. There are those like Amartya Sen who believes that freedom is the main variable and through that will come development<sup>2</sup>. More see it as an economic crutch that is stifling the country own emergence. Through field research with local charities and residents I would like to trace the effects of aid and present a viable solution of empowerment for the area.

<sup>1</sup> 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> (United Nations, 2009) p.5

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> (Sen, 1999)

My hypotheses, and what I expect to prove from my research, are the following:

- 1. Hypothesis #1: Developmental assistance is not being used efficiently due to complicated bureaucratic systems. Therefore a majority of people are dissuaded from applying. Due to this discouragement and these complications, officials are able to use this money for their own personal gain.
- 2. Hypothesis #2: Ugandan family and social customs prevent aid and loans from being used to their utmost potential due to the fact that they cannot take first priority.

In researching these ideas I hope to also look into other potential reasons for poverty and how they could possibly be solved, or at least alleviated throughout Uganda.

#### **METHODOLOGY**

I will communicate directly with several charities about their income and expenditures, as well as using resources from the Ugandan government, International Monetary Fund, World Bank, and independent sources. I plan to use Jeffrey Sachsøideas on causes of poverty, as well as what can be done to alleviate poverty, and compare them to what charities and other organizations are actually doing in these rural communities. I will compare the ideas of general poverty reduction worldwide to what is happening in Uganda. A causal methodology will be employed with field research using focus interviews and questionnaires with aid organizations as well as citizens in the town of Masaka. The questionnaires will be written based on theories such as those by Easterly, Sachs, and Sen. There will be a scale of these organizationsøsuccesses from poor to excellent. For example, if the charity is an educational system, what percentages of the students go on to higher education or a stable job, as opposed to those who then depend on the state?

The answers will be categorized based on the theoretical background and the successes or failures. Basic background statistics will be used from international and national statistics bureaus. The history of the area and of foreign aid, as well as different theories surrounding the failure of African aid as a whole will be applied to the specific region being studied. Microeconomics evaluation will take place on an individual level of the submitted questionnaires based on several different factors. Factors on the questionnaires for citizens will include, but not be limited to the following: health, education, occupation, disease, number of offspring, number of siblings, transportation methods accessible from the home, and bureaucracy. Some of the questions are quite obvious in their intent, while others are challenging an unwritten theory. Other questions will be used to determine whether birthrates have dropped or risen in the past generation and how common it is for family members to die from malaria or AIDS. Questions to charities will address how much money they receive from the government as well as private donors, what is their development cost to produce - be it digging a well, building a school, or providing education for adults; and overhead costs. Again, bureaucracy will be examined as well as support from the government. Other factors to be considered will be how long the charity has been actively

assisting people, if there has been an increase in clients, and whether the charity is aware of problems with corruption or illegal activities in other charities.

The city of Masaka was chosen for several reasons. It is a mid-sized city, ranked number 11 in population by the Uganda Bureau of Statistics<sup>3</sup>. This size is optimal because it is large enough for industry and infrastructure to have taken hold, but surrounded by enough rural area that people who live in the rural area could still go there for their employment, goods, or services. Its proximity to Kampala allowed me to have a personal contact there with whom I could collaborate. Finally, the city suffered infrastructural damage in the Ugandan-Tanzanian War of 1979<sup>4</sup>, which means it was affected by the atrocities the country experienced during the rule of Amin and therefore would be similar to most other parts of the country.

The research was done collaboratively by myself, Elizabeth Ceryak, International Economics and Political Studies student at Charles University, and Susan Lamwaka, a resident of Masaka and a grade school teacher at a private school there who is fluent in English, Luganda, and Acholi. Susan qualifications enabled her to gather the information and return it to me in a clear and concise manner.

Languages: Ms. Lamwaka is fluent in English and therefore was able to understand completely the entire questionnaire that was given to her to distribute. Her other languages also enable her to translate the questions to people who did not speak or read English. This way I was able to receive answers from people who had no knowledge of the English language, as would be more common with people of a lower educational level, i.e. those more likely to be recipients of aid.

Location: Ms. Lamwakaøs familiarity with Masaka allowed her to meet a variety of people from all demographics. In this way the answers were not biased towards those who happened to be in a particular area, for example, in front of a shopping mall. Ms. Lamwaka

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2002)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> (Foundation for Sustainable Development, 2012)

was able to travel to different parts of the city to make sure that there was even representation from the entire area, both residents of Masaka as well as people who travelled there for work, school, relatives or errands.

The questionnaires were conducted in such a way that Ms. Lamwaka translated and transcribed for those who could not read or write in English. She distributed them to those who were able to read and respond to the questionnaire and they answered them with what seems to be a small margin of error, as far as answers and questions not collocating.

Some challenges that Ms. Lamwaka mentioned for the questionnaires that will be taken into consideration next time were as follows: 1. language ó for the reasons mentioned above, 2. time ó some people had to fill the questionnaire over a period of more than one day, therefore could have not returned for the second part. Their questionnaires were discarded, and 3. lack of reward. Ms. Lamwaka mentioned that several people were discouraged from answering the questionnaires based on the lack of immediate personal reward for themselves. She said there were people who simply asked õWhat shall I be given if I answer your questions?ö With no reward being given for answering the questionnaire there were people who refused to take part simply because there was no reciprocation. However, it does not appear that this candidate exclusion singles out any specific group of people so far as income, education, life satisfaction or any of the other main points of this survey.

In total, 300 questionnaires were received from a randomly selected, willing, and an equal number of men and women in Masaka. The questionnaires were numbered as they were distributed. The questionnaire can be seen as Figure 10. There are three types of questions, those with options (yes/no, man/woman), those asking for specific information (number of children, have you received anything from an aid organization), and those which require a ranking of 1-10 based on personal experience. Of those 300 that were originally received, 16 were discounted at the author¢s discretion due to the fact that more than 3 consecutively completed questionnaires were found to contain less than three different answers. In this case, the questionnaire was completely removed from the results. In another ten questionnaires, the ranking section was removed due to the fact that ten consecutively

completed questionnaires had the exact same answers. It is also to be noted that not every question was answered clearly in every questionnaire and this is why there is a small margin of error in the results. In addition, questionnaires that do not have information pertaining to specific demographics will not be used in that result. If someone did not determine their urban or rural residence they will not be considered in urban or rural results.

# CHAPTER 1: ECONOMIC THEORISTS AND THEIR CONNECTIONS TO AFRICA

# William Easterly

William Easterly is an economics professor at New York University and known for being a vocal critic not only of Jeffrey Sachs, but the World Bank (where he worked for 16 years), the IMF, the UN, and is generally opposed giving large amounts of monetary aid to Africa. Even though his general outlook is that aid to Africa needs a complete overhaul, it should be noted that he believes Uganda is a :specific@case which supports arguments for monetary aid to promote development<sup>5</sup>. However, he has many arguments against the process.

He believes that the beneficiaries are generally ignored. He struggles to understand why it is always the rich West making cases and plans for Africa without inputs from the actual people receiving the help<sup>6</sup>. He also believes that the service is barely held accountable for its actions and that there needs to be a lot more checking of grants and distributions. He feels this lack of evaluation kills the efficiency of the aid and that projects need to be more effective, and held accountable for their actions. Independent auditors need to be checking on the projects, the money, following it, and then using this knowledge to either reward efficient systems, or cut money to those which do not work<sup>7</sup>. Easterly also speaks about õuneven developmentö, that all areas will not develop at the same speed ó regardless ó but that the bottom basics such as health and education should be the main focus generally. He

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> (Can Aid Buy Foreign Growth?, 2003) p. 36

<sup>°</sup> Ibid., p. 34

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> (Easterly, 2006)

also stresses the need for individual rights irrespective of gender, tribe, religion, or sexuality. This is clearly advice that needs to be instituted in Uganda, with their strong hatred and intolerance of homosexuality. Easterly claims that in the past, roughly, five decades, the west has sent \$568 billion to Africa and yet there are still a huge number of poor people. He claims that all the talk of the availability of inexpensive medicines and relief that are used today to advocate and raise money for aid have been around for years 6 yet this \$568 billion has not been able to distribute them to the masses. Clearly lack of money is not the reason for this. He believes that high monetary values of development aid is not the way to a better future in Africa, but rather social and political reforms inside countries, as well as encouragement for entrepreneurs. He does believe that aid can help, in much smaller numbers, but it has to have adequate and monitored feedback, as well as full accountability mandated under an independent source. Conclusively, he feels that recipients should have a much larger say in what they receive money for so that it goes to something they actually need.

### **Andrew Mwenda**

According to his blog, õAndrew M. Mwenda is the founding Managing Editor of The Independent, Uganda¢s premier current affairs newsmagazine. One of Foreign Policy magazine's Top 100 Global Thinkers, TED Speaker, and Foreign Aid Critic. He is currently a post grad-fellow at Yale<sup>10</sup>.ö Mwenda is very outspoken against foreign aid, the Museveni regime, corruption, and Western people planning on how to save Africa. He believes that the West should leave Africa to fix its own problems and õstop meddlingö<sup>11</sup>. Mwenda claims that foreign aid only helps to prop up undemocratic and dictating regimes, including the one in his own country<sup>12</sup>. He explains his views by discussing the March 2011 elections in Uganda, which Museveni won handily with 68 percent of votes. There are many things that he alleges Museveni did. He invited young, semi-employed youth into his office shortly before the elections to hear them make requests for how to support their employment

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> (Easterly, 2010)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> (Easterly, 2006)

<sup>10 (</sup>Mwenda)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> (Mwenda, 2009)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> (Foreign Aid and the Weakening of Democratic Accountability in Uganda, 2006)

associations ó there were hair braiders, or boda boda (a cheap motorbike taxi, considered quite dangerous but efficient) drivers, or hawkers. After listening to their ideas, he gave them a small #travel remittanceg signed a check for several hundred million shillings for their association, and sent them on their way. He got this money from the treasury, and in this way bought his votes. Mwenda points out that this jeopardizes the ability of the government to provide oanonymous citizens with goods and services impersonally of 13. This seems to support the notion that if you want government support quick, you need to be favorable to Museveni. While campaigning, he deflected any complaints about shoddy health services, or promised farm inputs onto the local government, telling residents to raise their complaints locally<sup>14</sup>. So after buying his way into the election, which apparently was won with only 39 percent of registered voters<sup>15</sup>, due to a very small voter turnout, he then brushes off complaints. Destroying public services through lack of accepted responsibility then helps Museveni keep the people poor so that they are easier to buy off, in addition, I would imagine, it would keep a fairly constant turnover of lower level politicians so that he doesnot have to worry about young competition in the future. Mwenda claims this self-destructive cycle is what will keep Museveni in power for life. In addition to this cycle, he also cites Museveniøs increased military budget, and recently high monetary input to the police departments<sup>16</sup>. In areas is it visible that police stations have new equipment, vehicles, and gasoline while the neighborhood clinics are suffering from lack of funds <sup>17</sup>. As is clear from this, the mentality of maintaining overly strong police and military force, in a stable country, with no immediate threats, while other key area of society (such as education and health care) are suffering is that of a leader who is not likely to step down due to internal pressure.

# Dambisa Moyo

Dambisa Moyo is a Zambian economist who holds a doctorate from Oxford University and a Masters from Harvard University, where she studied under Jeffrey Sachs. Like those alphabetically listed above her, Moyo is also anti-aid. Her strongest argument

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> (Mwenda, 2011)

<sup>14</sup> Ibid.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> (Sserunjogi, 2010)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> (Foreign Aid and the Weakening of Democratic Accountability in Uganda, 2006)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> (Nganda, 2012)

against aid is the connection to corruption, which she claims is very strong. She backs this up with results from the African Union as well as Transparency International. This is connected to the fact that this constant stream of money keeps inefficient governments in power due to the fact that there is no accountability and no transparency in these regimes or their policies. This is turn affects the marketability of the country ó with no need to attract investors or exhibit a free market ó there is an inability to do business. The African countries which receive lots of aid money are not competitive because they have lots of red tape for investors (foreign or domestic), arenøt involved in bond markets, have a high risk of internal conflict (which she blames on the lack of prospects for the young), and arengt concerned with proper policies for attracting investors, because they see the aid community as their foreign investors<sup>18</sup>ø

Moyo claims that aid is useful when it is based on emergencies, and has a short, specific life cycle. Goods donations, she says, flood local markets, bankrupting small businesses while monetary aid creates a Dutch disease effect that causes inflation. She supports the Marshall Plan because it was oshort, sharp and finiteo<sup>19</sup>.

# **Jeffrey Sachs**

Jeffrey Sachs, a world renowned economist for his expertise in revitalizing damaged economies, which is referred to as  $\pm$ shock therapyø, has a bit to say about Africa. In his book, The End of Poverty: Economic Possibilities for our Time (2005), Sachs speaks about how to rid the world of extreme poverty, most of which is located in Sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia, and East Asia. When speaking of poor or impoverished areas, Sachs has several ideas about why they are lagging behind the richer countries.

One reason he claims that growth rates differ in different areas because of technology; the Industrial Revolution brought much of the wealth to the United Kingdom, and was subsequently passed down through her colonies of the United States, Australia and New Zealand. It was not however, for example, brought to India, because of the colonizers

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup> (Moyo, 2009) <sup>19</sup> Ibid.

lack of interest in educating the populace for the reason of maintaining the upper hand in control of their industry<sup>20</sup>. As for present times, areas like China, which have high technological use and lots of access to technology vastly outperform countries like, for example, Uganda, which have less access to technology.

Along with the spread of technology is urbanization, which he correlates with productive agriculture. Sachs believes that if technology can bring about more productive agriculture, be it any aspect from fertilizer to modern harvesting tools, then efficient agriculture can contribute to urbanization. As agriculture gets more efficient more people will leave farms and move into cities where they will hopefully have more access to technology, and the employment norm will shift away from the agriculture industry into the service industry<sup>21</sup>. This is a problem in Uganda, as the rate of urbanization is quite slow, and the number of people employed in agriculture is currently around 80%. According to the Population Secretariat of Uganda, in 2002 the percentage of urbanization growth was 3 percent, and was expected to be 14.8 in 2011<sup>22</sup>.

Sachsønext step for the country, following the urbanization trend, is gender roles. He believes that as women get access to education and work outside of the home, birth rates will drop, which will lead to more mutual respect as women become bread winners in the home as well. He believes this gender equality raises the appreciation of daughters which also will raise the self-worth of young girls<sup>23</sup>. In addition to increasing the wealth of families, this will also double the work force, which can double the production of the country and lead to economic growth.

He also believes there are several problems that countries can have naturally related to development. One of these problems Uganda has is geography and location<sup>24</sup>. It been known since Adam Smith wrote it that being landlocked is a big disadvantage for a country development. Uganda has Lake Victoria, which is a benefit, but not comparable to an open

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>20</sup> (Sachs, 2005) p. 174

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup> Ibid., p.36

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup> (Population Secretariat, 2008)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>23</sup> Ibid., p.36

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup> Ibid., p.192

seaport as far as easy access to trade is concerned. In addition, the rivers and roads do not provide enough infrastructure for the efficient movement of goods.

Another problem is the high prevalence of diseases, both preventable and treatable, such as malaria or tuberculosis ó or less preventable and treatable, such as HIV/AIDS. Not only are so many people affected, and lack the basic treatment, but he claims there is also a higher propensity for the disease spreading due to the climate, weather, and different types of carriers. For example, the types of mosquitos in Africa that carry malaria prefer humans to cattle, while it is the opposite in India<sup>25</sup>. Diseases not only cripple the production of the country by taking vital members of the workforce, they also take away income from families, orphaned children, and prevent children from becoming healthy adults.

As a sample of his idea, Sachsø conducts an assessment in a Kenyan village, Sauri, with a population of 5,000 people currently living in extreme poverty. He then claims five basic development steps, which in this specific village would costs approximately \$350,000 a year ó or \$70 a person - for several years, could drastically increase these peopleøs standard of living, protect them from disease and pull them out of poverty to be completely self-sufficient after a few years. He calls this list the õBig Five development interventionsö and claims that if they are diligently and completely distributed for several years they will not only improve the lives of all that receive them, but begin to pay themselves back after a short term of several years<sup>26</sup>. This is a quite brief explanation of each of the õBig Five.ö

Agricultural Inputs: There are many actions you can take to improve your crops, and improved crops mean less hunger. Consequently, less hunger means better lives and more production. Fertilizer, irrigation, improved knowledge or modernized tools are some things that could greatly benefit people who do not have access to them, as well as benefit the land and soil so that nutrients can be reintroduced to overused, empty soil. Storage facilities would improve sales as well as longevity and therefore the usage of the grain.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup> (Sachs, 2005) p. 198-199

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>26</sup> Ibid., p. 232-234

<u>Investments in Basic Health</u>: Suggested in this particular village is one clinic with one doctor and nurse to teach prevention and treat HIV/AIDS and malaria, educate citizens on the importance of health behavior, as well as treat simple incidents that could otherwise worsen into serious infection, injury, or death. They would help with childbirth as well as other natural issues. Other poor areas could also use a one doctor, one nurse clinic unless they needed something larger due to population. Healthy people are more self-sufficient and productive, and healthy children lower birthrates.

<u>Investments in Education</u>: Sachsøpoints out that providing meals at school will not only boost attendance but also studentsøhealth. He also says that teaching children not only the basic educational topics but practical topics for the village, such as farming and electrical work will be beneficial for future generations. Training courses for adults could also provide them with new knowledge.

Power, Transport and Communication Services: Obviously electricity could provide the availability of light after dark to help students study and adults work as well as providing refrigeration to make food harvests last longer. A truck could transport food into the village for consumption, out for sale, bring needed goods such as building supplies in, or take people with medical emergencies out. Navigable roads, of course, are necessary before vehicles can be used to transport the people and goods. A couple of cell phones could provide connection with the rest of the world in case of an emergency such as a disease outbreak, but also assist the spread of technology.

<u>Safe Drinking Water and Sanitation</u>: Easy and quick access to drinking water and sanitary facilities will not only increase the health of the population but also save many hours of water collecting which can be used in other, more productive ways.

Sachsøalso speaks about a ladder that is used to climb out of poverty. Completely destitute people are not even on the ladder, and for some, the ladder may even be out of reach. He calls these õextreme poorö and they are the ones that need large investments to get them up onto the ladder so that they can get out of the poverty cycle and start to support

themselves. The a few steps up the ladder is ofthe pooro, likely low wage, difficult work, scrimping and saving, but work nonetheless. Something that gets people into a work environment and gives them a chance to move beyond surviving harvest to meal, from what are usually meager harvests, is the first step. Of course, once the first rung is reached, growth must continue or the personal will simply fall back into extreme poverty. After ofthe pooro comes of the middle incomeo, who, he says, would not be middle income by rich world standards. Even though they have plenty of food and education, they may have indoor plumbing and could possibly purchase a car. But the next step up from of the middle incomeo is of the richo. These are the people enjoying all the spoils of life, and the ones he believes should help pull the extreme poor up onto the ladder<sup>27</sup>. In his book, Sachs talks about the percentages of the world that are in these positions, but fortunately, I think we have advanced so much since he wrote it in 2005 that the numbers are no longer relevant for the purposes of this paper.

Similar to his õBig Fiveö he also has a list of the õsix major kinds of capitalö that the extremely poor lack, yet need to get to the bottom rung of the ladder out of poverty. These capitals are human, business, natural, public institutional, knowledge capital, and infrastructure<sup>28</sup>. First, a person needs to have the physical ability to be productive; they also need the machines, or business base to get there. A man cannot produce honey without bees! In addition, they need to have access to the land that allows them to support themselves and perhaps are able to produce more for profit. Government protection is also needed so that is it worthwhile for them to invest time into production. They need the knowledge to put it all together, as well as the electricity and transport systems so that they can work hard as well as deliver their wares to customers. Much of this can be done on the government end, with the help of donors. In addition to providing laws and services, they can also build transport ways and provide power. They can set up the schools and the health centers that enable these people to achieve what they are capable of. This is where the developmental aid should be heading.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>27</sup> (Sachs, 2005) p. 18-20

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>28</sup> Ibid., 244-245

# Amartya Sen

Amartya Sen, winner of the 1998 Nobel Peace Prize for Economics, wrote a book titled *Development as Freedom* in which he discusses ways to reach freedom without the sole means being money and the sole ends being economic freedom. Sen touches on many different aspects of what freedom means, what it is to people and bears the questions of who is really completely free, if anyone. He defines freedoms based on the lack of unfreedoms, which can be anything from the inability to procure food to the inability to trust in a market enough to invest<sup>29</sup>. Some of his theory which will be judged from the study in Uganda will include the ability of people to procure food. Is it possible to grow food for oneself, and if not, is there access to and money available to locate and purchase, or trade for the food without growing it oneself. Sen argues that the reason one pursues wealth is not for the wealth, but because the wealth itself enables us to live the life that we want to live. Another point he brings up is that of income inequality versus economic inequality. The idea that the same income grants people the same ability to reach their desires is simply not true, as older, younger, or disabled people may simply need more income to be the same economically as a healthier or prime aged person<sup>30</sup>.

The concept of state institutions will also be researched, Sen claims that healthcare and education must come before wealth, and that after achieving the first two, the latter will emerge on its own<sup>31</sup>. The ease of achieving these two things is also put forth in the survey. The democratic system of Ugandaøs government will also be investigated, Sen says that the democratic system is essentialø<sup>32</sup>. While Uganda has had many years of relatively peaceful elections since Museveni came to power, he has also been the President since 1986. Whether or not this is because of his ability to be a great leader or simply his ability to stay in power will be confirmed by the people. Even though there has been a stable government for the last 26 years, Transparency International still gave Uganda a corruption ranking of 2.4 in 2011<sup>33</sup>,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>29</sup> (Sen, 1999) p. 3-4

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>30</sup> Ibid., p. 88

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>31</sup> Ibid., p. 144

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>32</sup> Ibid., p. 156

<sup>33 (</sup>Transparency International, 2012)

which puts it at 143 in the world, out of 183. It would not be absurd however, to link these two facts together.

# CHAPTER 2: UGANDA'S BACKGROUND IN POLITICS AND AID

# A Brief Political History

Uganda was granted independence from the United Kingdom of Great Britain in October 1962, however chose to retain its commonwealth membership. What followed independence was not necessarily beneficial for the country, and the entire process was not as smooth as it was hoped. Phares Mutibwa, the former head of the department of history at Makerere University and member of the Ugandan Constitutional Commission, mentions some specific reasoning for this inability of the newly independent country to be peaceful. In his book *Uganda Since Independence: A Story of Unfulfilled Hope, 1992* he states that the diversity of Uganda was the first and main problem in its successful bid at independence. Comprised of Catholics and Protestants, as well as three major language families supporting many more tribal and ethnic languages, he also points out the differences between those who lived in monarchs and those that lived in non-monarch areas, which were granted different political rights by the British<sup>34</sup>.

Political problems began almost immediately in the country with a false friend political alliance based on religious preferences between the newly elected Prime Minister Milton Obote, and President Muganda King Mutesa, whose Bugandan kingdom was granted autonomy. In 1966 Obote temporarily threw out the constitution and elected himself President, thereby ending the autonomy of the Bugandan kingdom as well as greatly boosting the presidential powers. Obote, as well as his successor Idi Amin, have both been accused of and blamed for massive human rights atrocities including but not limited to mass murder,

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>34</sup> (Mutibwa, 1992) p. 1-5

genocide, and recruitment of child soldiers ó basically lawlessness to support their rule<sup>35</sup>. In 1971, Amin with his military following removed Obote from power while he was out of the country. He remained safely in Tanzania. Unfortunately for the rest of the country, Amin continued the path of destruction through the country wreaking personal, economic, and industrial havoc. He expelled around 60,000 Indians from the country who were the backbone of the economy. This continued until he was ousted in 1979 after declaring war on neighboring Tanzania. Several interim presidents slipped through until Obote regained power in 1980 with the help of his guerrilla army which had been supporting him in Tanzania. In the next five years Obote and his army set to quiet the citizensøunrest with atrocious acts against the opposing population. It was not until 1986 when Yoweri Museveni and his Lordø Resistance Army took over the presidential office that relative peace took over the country. During this time, not only were millions of citizens terrorized by the reigns of Obote, Idi Amin, and Museveni, but the country economy was crushed and much of its infrastructure was destroyed. Due to this tumultuous history of civil unrest and economic upheaval, and that my question is concerned with the current situation of a stabilized, recovering Uganda, we will only focus on data which is no more than twenty years old.

Although the country has been relatively peaceful and progressive since Museveni took power, there are still many downsides to a 26 year rule. As Sen, Sachs, and 6 mention, the necessity of a multi-party system is undeniable 6 and this fact is not lost on the citizens who ranked their dissatisfaction with the Ugandan government. Regardless of sex, education, or position, the Ugandans polled were extremely unhappy with the federal government. A new constitution was written in 1995 which stated that while political parties were legal to form, political activity was still prohibited. In 2001, voters allegedly voted against the multiparty system, but then in 2005 a referendum was finally passed to allow multiparty elections. Unfortunately, also at this time, Museveniøs future was secured when Presidential term limits were removed by the Ugandan parliament <sup>36</sup>. Though Museveni was elected through, for all practical purposes, free elections in 2001, 2006, and 2011 there is much speculation both in Uganda and abroad that the elections were corrupt and inaccurate.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>35</sup> (2011)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>36</sup> (2012)

There are several reports of voter intimidation as well as drastic actions taken against political opponents<sup>37</sup>.

Opposition in government is important for many reasons; the most obvious that it holds the government accountable for their actions and forces them to react when there are situations that afflict the population such as drought or disease outbreak. As is clear in Uganda, these things are not being dealt with. According to washingtontimes.com, as recently as March 6<sup>th</sup>, the government was in an internal squabble over whose responsibility it was to make efforts to control nodding disease, which in recent past had a huge outbreak in northern Uganda. At the time, Ugandas Ministry of Health had released a press report that over 3,000 children were affected with the disease. The Washington Times reported that rather than work together to solve the problem, the government was blaming the Ministry of Health for not donating money to the cause, while the Ministry of Health was accusing the government of denying their request for more funds<sup>38</sup>. Another instance is responsibility for infrastructure and social services. In Masaka specifically, there are problems with the health service, as well as with the roads. A high number of responders cited problems with the public health services, that there were not enough hospitals and the hospitals that were accessible were too expensive for employed, educated people. The number of health facilities and doctors is also very low in Masaka and therefore, most likely, much lower in more rural areas<sup>39</sup>. Paradoxically enough, while governments are also responsible for a country safety, both from invasion and to hold peace in the country, Uganda has been the base of many riots which mostly were politically motivated in the last 11 years.

# A Brief Overview of Past Aid

As can be seen in the chart from the OECD Joint Assistance Report of Uganda from 2005-2009 (Figure 1), a high number of people are living in poverty. Granted, the northern areas have a much higher percentage of poverty due to the civil war, but still the national level would have been 38-39 percent in 2003. The good news is that the numbers

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>37</sup> (Nganda 2012) <sup>38</sup> (2012)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>39</sup> (2011)

have been dropping steadily 6 and as seen by this World Bank poverty indicator (Figure 2), are still dropping in recent years, down to 24.5 percent in 2009. The bad news is that rural areas still experience much more poverty than their urban counterparts, and the majority of the population is based in these rural areas. According to the United Nations Development Assistance Framework for Uganda, 2010-2014, 85% of the population was living in disadvantaged rural areas in 2008<sup>40</sup>.

Due to the fact that it has a stable government, even technically opened up for multiparty elections, and a growing GDP, Uganda has been seen as a model low income country in many countries around the world. Therefore it receives a lot of development assistance from many different countries and organizations which can be seen in Figure 3. In addition, according to the World Bank, in 2006 there was debt forgiveness of \$3.69 billion<sup>41</sup>. As can be seen in Figure 4, Uganda received \$1.72 billion in assistance in 2010 according to the OECD, which was even less than in 2009, when it received \$1.78 billion. As can be seen in Figure 3, the majority of that went into health and population services in 2009. Uganda has been very successful in their fight of HIV/AIDS and the numbers in the country of the population aged 15-49 have dropped from 7.6 to 6.5 percent from 1999 to 2009 according to The World Bank. They also show that although the number had risen from 1990, the number of children to age 14 living with HIV was steady at 150,000 for the last 9 years 42. Figure 5 gives a more detailed account of how the amount of ODA relates to the economy of Uganda as a whole. Of all their imported goods and services in 2010, just over 25 percent of it was developmental aid, which was at just over \$51 per capita<sup>43</sup>. In addition, according to projected population estimates by the Uganda Bureau of Statistics, rural population in 2010 was roughly 27 million<sup>44</sup>, which would allot \$63.5 per capita to rural citizens.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>40</sup> (United Nations, 2009) p. 5

<sup>41 (</sup>World Bank, 2012)

<sup>42 (</sup>World Bank, 2012)

<sup>43 (</sup>World Bank, 2012)

<sup>44 (</sup>Kerstin Danert, 2010)

# **CHAPTER 3: SURVEY RESULTS**

From all the questionnaires that were received, the most relative information for this paper is the difference between rural and urban people, and men and women. As was stated earlier, 85% of the country lives in rural areas and they experience a higher rate of poverty than people in urban areas. In addition, women have a lower social standing than men in some respects, and therefore the effects for them are magnified. Masaka is a city approximately 140 kilometers south east from the capital city of Kampala. According to the Uganda Bureau of Statistics, the cityøs estimated mid-year population in 2011 was 74,100 which is up 1 percent from the 2010 numbers of 73,300 and 8.5 percent from the 2002 numbers of 67,800<sup>45</sup>. This shows that urban growth is increasing which is positive if it is migration from rural areas. The city was heavily damaged during the Uganda-Tanzania War in 1979, and there are still infrastructure damages, but they are improving. The basic responses from the surveys that we will use for our calculations are from 272 people who have responded to urban or rural dwellings: 221 (81.25 percent) urban and 51 (18.75 percent) rural. Therefore there will be a slight margin of error and the urban calculations will be more accurate than rural ones. For gender related questions, the results will be based on the answers of 130 men (45.7 percent) and 154 women (54.2 percent). The results will be divided between those based on gender and those based on living areas, and the following parameters will be measured: employment, education, sharing money with family, number of female head of households, infrastructure, electricity, health care, aid reception, birth rates, child deaths, personal food growing, unnatural deaths, personal health, personal freedom, life satisfaction, satisfaction with federal and local governments, and level of bureaucracy.

# **Employment**

"As it happens, the rejection of the freedom to participate in the labor market is one of the ways to keeping people in bondage and captivity, and the battle against the unfreedom

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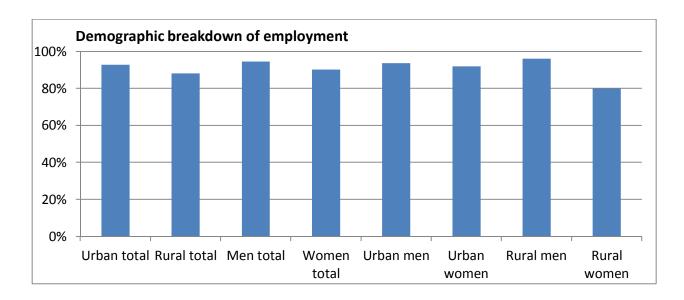
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>45</sup> (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2002)

of bound labor is important in many third world countries today for some of the same reasons the American Civil War was momentous." – Amartya Sen<sup>46</sup>

The employment of people and their ability to have self-satisfying, productive jobs is a strong point in eliminating poverty and sustaining economic growth. High employment numbers show that a country is able to support its population. A person with a job is much less likely to be destitute ó all other factors even ó than one without a job. Not only is it beneficial for the individual in terms of self-worth, social interaction, and monetary income, but it is also beneficial for the government in the sense of less spending for welfare, and more received in taxes. In addition, it increases the likelihood of having a self-sufficient, more satisfied population. The Masaka results were quite promising as far as employment, with 93 percent of the urban population and 88 percent of the rural population matched with 95 percent of men and 90 percent of women. The lowest responder, as to be expected, was rural women with 80 percent employment who were 12 percent behind their urban counterparts who responded positively with 92 percent. Men were much more equal, and surprisingly rural men were the most employed at 96 percent, over the 94 percent response from urban men. Therefore, it can be deduced that women are out of the home in large numbers, and making decisions for themselves. As Sachsøpoints out, this can lead to higher literacy rate<sup>47</sup>, which, as Sen points out, reduces child mortality<sup>48</sup>. In the end this is a catalyst for the health of future generations due to more investment in fewer children. Many people claimed themselves as self-employed, which could mean that they are contract workers, but could also mean that they are unregistered workers, working only to support themselves but not putting any of their income back in the system while still possibly benefiting from it. Even though there is 20 percent unemployment in rural areas, this will correlate with other factors to be explained later. The fact that women have a comparable, if not almost equal rate of employment to men ó and both sexes have very high levels of employment - shows that this area is successfully moving toward self-sufficiency.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>46</sup> (Sen, 1999) p. 7 <sup>47</sup> (Sachs, 2005) p. 36

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>48</sup> (Sen, 1999) p. 144



### **Education**

"Female literacy, in contrast, [to male literacy] is found to have an unambiguous and statistically significant reducing impact on under-five mortality, even after controlling for male literacy."—Amartya Sen<sup>49</sup>

Education has been proven to be major factor in the reduction of poverty. The literacy rates in third world, and even developing countries, are far beyond those of first world countries. As Sen points out, the effects of education reach far beyond the betterment of an individual <sup>50</sup>. As previously mentioned, Sachsølists investments in education as one of the õBig Five development interventions <sup>51</sup>ö. Clearly there has been a fair amount of investment in this area if the education numbers are so high. It is beneficial to not only that individual but others surrounding that individual. This is for several reasons. First, education is not a right. It is not simply given from birth that every child grows up to spend 12 or more happy years in school learning to their heartos content. For people to become educated many things have to happen. There needs to be the infrastructure to build a school, as well as the funds to hire a teacher and get materials. The students need to have the free time to attend school as well as being able to get there. That means that it has to be in close enough proximity to walk, if there is no transport, and school has to be the top priority for

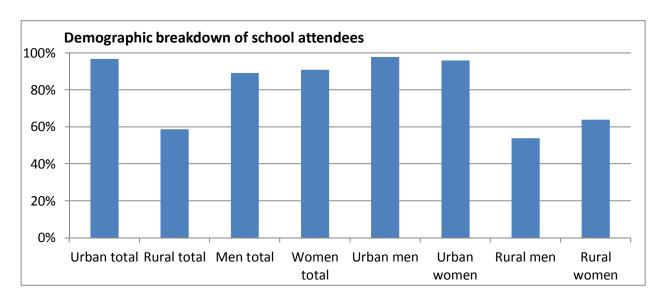
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>49</sup> (Sen, 1999) p. 144

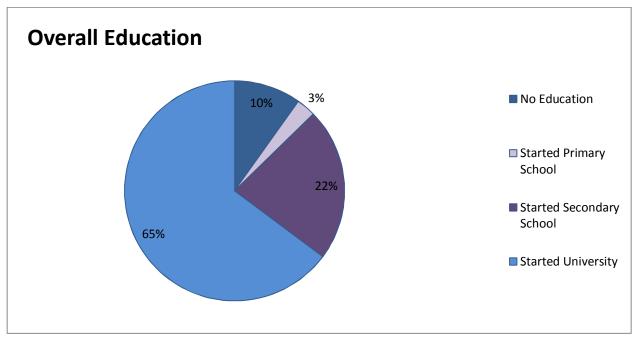
<sup>50</sup> Ibid.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>51</sup> (Sachs, 2005) p. 232-234

them. Students cannot be taking care of their sick parents, working to generate income, or even watching their younger siblings while their parents generate income. It is a similar situation with women. In order for a woman to get educated she first has to be deemed worthy of receiving an education, and then she must be let out of the house to get it. It is not as simple as merely building a school and stocking it with supplies and a teacher. This is why the Masaka education rates were the most shocking statistic of the entire study. Specifically, that women actually responded overall at a higher rate of schooling, with 91 percent to menøs 89 ó and that rural women outplaced rural men 64 to 54 percent. Of the urban population, 97 percent of the people had been to school, as well as 59 percent of the rural group. This is not so surprising for the urban population, because there are two universities, two tertiary schools, 74 secondary schools, and hundreds of primary and secondary schools in the Masaka District, where Masaka is the largest city. What is surprising is the levels of education that were attained.

Of all the respondents, only 6.3 percent of people had no schooling. Even less, 2.8 percent stopped sometime before high school. From there, 22.5 percent of respondents attended high school and an amazing 64.7 percent of these students attended university. Even with 230 primary schools in the city, there are only 74 secondary schools, which would lead an outside observer to believe that most children do not attend school after their primary years. This is clearly not true as the number of people who attended high school and university is higher than the number of people who did not continue onto high school. The numbers of people who did not proceed into high school are very low \( \tilde{0} \) 1 percent of urban men, 2 percent of urban women, and 8 percent of rural men and women. Yet, 15 percent of urban women and rural men attended high school, 28 percent of rural women, and 32 percent of urban men. As far as university, a very impressive 28 percent or rural women, 31 percent of rural men, 65 percent of urban men, and an amazing 78 percent of urban women have attended. The overall number of people with university educations, especially the number of women, is very impressive. This shows that gender inequality for education is not an issue in Masaka ó if there are available schools, women are more likely to attend them than men. In addition to that, it shows that if people start school, they are more likely to continue to a higher level rather than drop out after primary school, as is usual in poor areas. The challenge now will be to find a way to get rural men and women more access to schools ó not only by providing the schools but making sure that it is one of their priorities and they are able to spare the necessary time and effort to undertake this achievement.

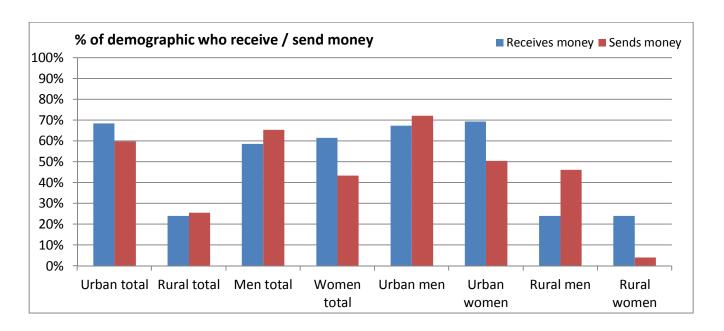




# **Receiving and Sending Money to Family**

When writing my hypotheses and thinking about the reasons of such extreme poverty and the perceived inefficiency of aid, it occurred to me that Africans have large families and I was curious as to how that affected their lifestyle. I wanted to know whether the families sent money to other family members, which seemed quite likely. I thought it could be an

alternative to government aid and a factor not considered in macroeconomic studies. The results showed that it is a large part of Ugandan culture. In the urban community, 68 percent received money from family in other areas, while 60 percent sent money to family in other areas. In the rural areas, where obviously incomes are much lower, only 24 percent received money from family in other areas while 25 percent sent money out to family in other areas. Another interesting fact, perhaps supporting the -breadwinner@role for men, is that while receiving money only differed by 2 percent between the sexes in urban communities (69 percent for women and 67 for men), and not at all in rural communities (24 percent for both) sending money showed huge differences between the gender roles. Men overwhelmingly sent out more money than women 72 to 50 percent in urban areas and 46 to 4 percent in rural areas. Overall 65 percent of men, to 43 percent of women sent money to family members in other areas. The fact that rural areas send and receive so much ó almost 3 times ó less money than urban areas is interesting because it debunks the myth that the one child kept in school who eventually gets a good job will send money back to the farm. I also think this supports the fact of low rural to urban migration in the country, as there seems to be plenty of money going from urban to urban area while smaller amounts are going around the rural areas, where of course there is less to start with. Another interesting fact is that of urban and rural women, respectively, 19 and 20 percent more of them receive money than send it, while 22 percent more rural men send money than receive it. The same difference for urban men is only 5 percent. A few things are made certain from these results, namely that many urban men send money to family in other areas and many urban women receive money from family. So whether this is the caretaker mentality or simply good family, there are a lot of people supporting and receiving support from their families in Masaka.

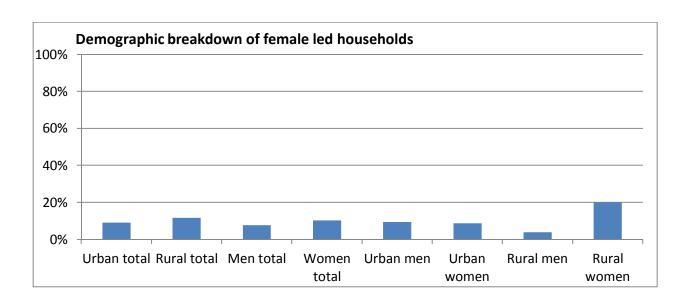


### Female Head of Households

Worldwide, having a female head of the household would generally mean that the female head is either single, divorced, or a widow. While there are certainly women who choose to live alone and do it very successfully, it is often an indicator of more negative factors. The rates of female heads of household were quite low, 9 percent in urban households and 12 percent in rural ó which is the same as the 2008 figures from the United States, according to the Health Resources and Services Administration<sup>52</sup>. The shocking result of our questionnaires was that rural women were twice as likely as anyone else, or 5 times as likely as rural men, to live in a female headed household. Of the respondents who live in a female headed household, 83 percent of them are employed (it is unclear whether or not they are the head of the household themselves); as well, 50 percent of these households grow their own food, which is on par with the other rural households from the survey. However, if a woman is head of the household, taking care of children, and maybe parents, not to mention gathering water, fuel, cooking, cleaning, animals, and any other jobs that need to be done, she may be able to find work. If she had children or other family members that were old enough and healthy enough to do these jobs, then she would be able to leave the house.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>52</sup> (2009)

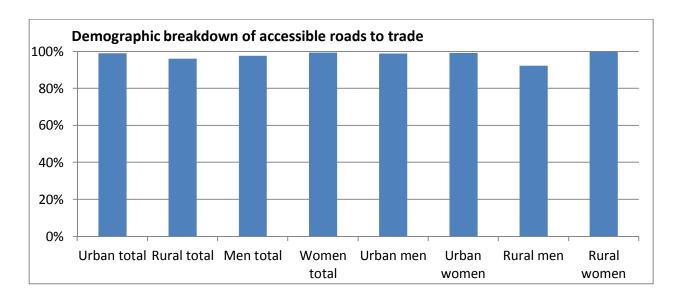


### **Road Access to Trade**

Sachsøstrongly emphasizes the importance of usable roads for the purpose of employment and trade. Transport services are included in his õBig Five development interventionsö<sup>53</sup>. They are also important for many other reasons, such as general connections with the outside world, emergencies ó basically anything that is not located close to oneøs home. Questions related to roads focused on the use of them for trade, and the answers were overwhelmingly positive, with 99 percent of urban and 96 percent of rural answers claiming that they did have accessible roads to lead them to trade, and therefore enhance their economic situation. The only notable statistic was 8 percent of rural men claimed they did not have accessible roads, so there are still areas that need the infrastructure. However, due to the fact that the questionnaires were admitted in the city means that rural people without accessible roads would be much less likely to be in the city, and therefore have a chance at answering the questionnaire, so there may be a higher than likely margin of error for this topic.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>53</sup> (Sachs, 2005) p. 232-234



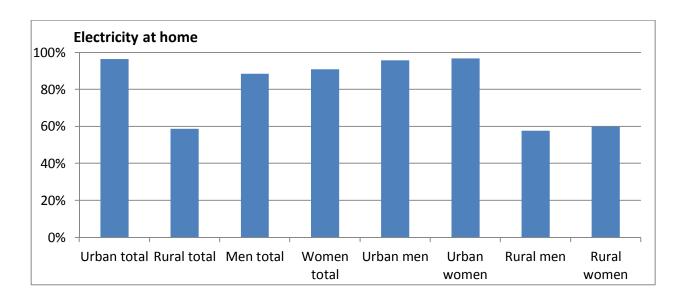
## **Electricity in the Home**

Sen spends a lot of time talking about the importance of electricity  $\delta$  both in the home and in the city. In the home for work, study, or entertainment such as reading, and in the city so that people will have the freedom to interact after the sun sets<sup>54</sup>. Sachsøhas also added it to the list of the Big Five, and talks about practical ways to achieve it, either through a power line, if there is a close enough source, or an off-grid diesel generator. Access to electricity puts the person in charge of their choices so their activities are not dictated by their circumstances. The numbers for electricity in the home were quite high in the urban areas with 96 percent, but in rural areas the number was only 59 percent. Whether they didnøt have it because they couldnøt afford it or because it is not available is not clear, but working to make it available for more of the rural population is a necessary step. Sachsøalso points out the logical electrical benefits for municipality equipment such as pumps or mills<sup>55</sup>. Perhaps it has something to do with all the money they receive but women were more likely to have electricity in their homes than men, 3 percent more overall, and the higher numbers accounted for both urban and rural women.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>54</sup> (Sen, 1999) p. 38-39

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>55</sup> (Sachs, 2005) p. 232-234



#### **Minutes to Medicine**

Most often questions of closeness to a doctor are put in terms of kilometers or miles. As in, how close is the doctor down the road or as the crow flies. However it is very important to take into consideration how the person is travelling. Ten miles by car is not so difficult, but ten miles carrying a sick relative, or to someone with no legs, could be an entirely different situation. Therefore the question was put in terms of minutes ó how many minutes away is a doctor or medicine, so that individuals could account for their method of travel. As Sen points out, not all people are created equal. These inequalities should be taken into account when assistance per person is measured. He states, oln fact, given interpersonal diversity, related to such factors as age, gender, inborn talents, disabilities and illnesses, the commodity holdings can actually tell us rather little about the nature of the lives that the respective people can lead<sup>56</sup>.ö I believe measuring time gives a more accurate reading of the true challenges that people face in order to access health services. The results were quite shocking, with rural people spending twice the time of their urban counterparts accessing health care. Urban areas experienced 22 minutes to the closest doctor or medicine and rural dwellers 41.5 minutes. Even with these results, there were several responders who did not put down a time in minutes ó thus their answers were not included. Just less than half of these non-numerical answers said they had oa loto of access, and a couple responded that it was easy because they used herbal medicine. Just over half of them input complaints about

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>56</sup> (Sen, 1999) p. 80

the high cost of medicine and health care, stating that even if they could access it there was no point because they couldnot afford the services. There were complaints about the difficulties to access the doctor or medicine, sometimes but not always related to money, complaints that even government doctors wanted money, or there were not enough government hospitals (õonly one, itos not fairö). Several people simply wrote õNoö.

Sachsølists investments in basic health as another one of his Big Five<sup>57</sup>. It is clear from the respondents and articles on the state of health care centers that more investment should be put into this lucrative area. There are two private hospitals and one government hospital listed in Masaka. In addition to that there was also a dentist. Listed in Amasakaø without clarification of whether it meant the town or the district, were an additional public health doctor, three surgeons, and 48 general practitioners who may or may not be employed by the hospitals<sup>58</sup>. Overall, it is a very small number even for the population of Masaka itself ó 74,100 ó not even considering that the other areas in the district may be included in these numbers. In addition to the low numbers of facilities, there is also the quality to consider, for example in the following article about Masaka Hospital. On April 7, 2012, it was reported by Uganda Radio Network that 4 or 5 premature babies every week die due to lack of equipment and staff; this was reported to visiting politicians by the head of the Premature Unit. Apparently the hospital is waiting on funds, having only  $3/5^{\text{th}}$  of the needed assistance<sup>59</sup>. Another article stated that the Kyanamukaaka Health Center IV was also in extreme disrepair. According to an intern, the power was disconnected 8 months ago, leaving everything in darkness. 120 patients are served daily at this health center and are asked to bring lamps or candles. Even the generator has ceased to work, and there is a problem with staff attendance. A local official has apparently been petitioning the Ministry of Health, but to no avail<sup>60</sup>.

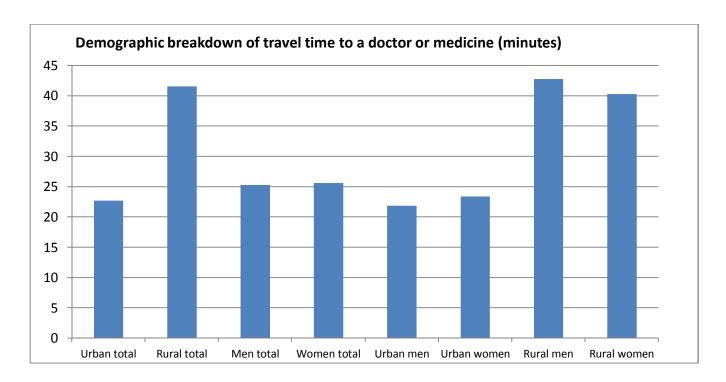
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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>57</sup> (Sachs, 2005) p. 232-234

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>58</sup> (2011)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>59</sup> (Bindhe, 2012)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>60</sup> (Ssekweyama, 2012)



## Childbearing

"High fertility rates can be seen, with much justice, as adverse to the quality of life, especially of young women, since recurrent bearing and rearing of children can be very detrimental to the well-bring and freedom of the young mother." – Amartya Sen<sup>61</sup>

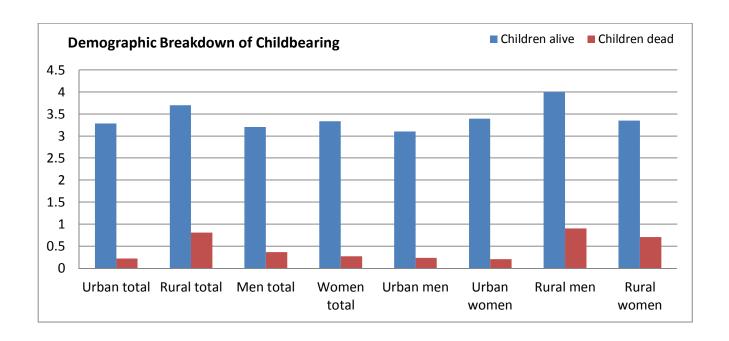
Birth rates and child mortality are two of the biggest factors in determining development. In order to become part of the rich world women need to have less children and children need to live to be adults. These factors show that women are out of the house, working at self-sufficient jobs, and having a say in their life plan. As Sachsømentions, having a job out of the home is a womanøs first step to becoming a productive part of society and responsible for her own decisions. He also points out that lower birth rates can lead to a rise in incomes, and relates that to higher expenditure for each individual childøs health and education<sup>62</sup>. He doesnøt even need to point out that this will greatly benefit future generations immediately. The ability of children to live past the age of five is a necessary step in the battle for lower birth rates. Masaka is not doing so well in this retrospect, despite all previous factors pointing toward development. Of the questionnaires answered, 212 of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>61</sup> (Sen, 1999) p. 144

<sup>62 (</sup>Sachs, 2005) p. 36

the respondents have children. Among those 212 people, there were 713 living children, for a number of 3.4 live children per person with children. If you include the 72 respondents who do not have children the total number of live children are 2.5 per person. This is actually quite a low birth rate for a country that is so impoverished. Rural men have claimed the most children, 4 each, while urban men are only registering 3.1. Between both demographics of women there are 3.3 children.

The downside to this equation is that of the 212 respondents who have children, there are 67 children who are no longer alive. Again, the highest number per person is .9 for rural men; rural women are close with .71, and only .23 and .21 for urban men and women respectively. Rural children are 4 times more likely to die than urban children .81 against .22 per live birth. This is to be expected due to worse nutrition, prenatal care, and travel to health services among other reasons. There is no specification of the age at which the children died, merely that of all the children born to these 212 mothers, 9.4 percent of them are now deceased. This is a very high number for the death of children, regardless if the age of death is not under 5 and therefore the child may not be labeled as a statistic under ÷child mortalityø, especially with the high incidences of diseases that target children such as malaria and nodding disease. The good news, however, is that birth rates are dropping. Of reported children versus living siblings ó so the gap will be much larger than it appears, the birthrate has dropped from 2.84 in the last generation to 2.74 in this generation. Though this does not account for children of the last generation who died after their fifth birthday, it still shows a drop in birth rates, and if it did account for those children it would be a much wider gap. The benefits of lower birth rates that were mentioned earlier are applicable here as well, and the fact that lower birth rates promote growth.

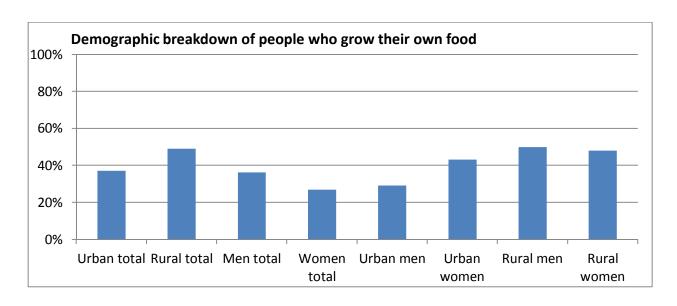


### **Personal Food Growth**

Sachsøemphasizes the necessary steps to come out of destitute poverty. Of these steps to escape poverty in rural areas, there are some related to food production. Individuals who are forced to grow the majority (or all) of their own food, and consume all of it, are worse off than those who grow the majority of their own food but still have some leftover to sell<sup>63</sup>. Of our respondents, 16 (5.6 percent) grow 100 percent of their food. Of those 16, 6 of them sell their food. Therefore 10 of them are more impoverished than the other 6 who still have food leftover to sell. What is interesting is that 37 percent of urban dwellers grow at least one percent of their food, as opposed to 49 percent of rural people, so the divide is not so large. This would lead me to believe that 51 percent of rural people are either too destitute or otherwise incapable of growing any food, or are well off enough to buy all the food they need so that they do not have to bother with any sort of personal farming or gardening, and can dedicate their time to other matters. Surprisingly, 43 percent of urban women grow at least one percent of their own food, not too far from 48 percent of rural women. Half of rural men do, but the rural numbers are not surprising due to the high number of farmers in the area.

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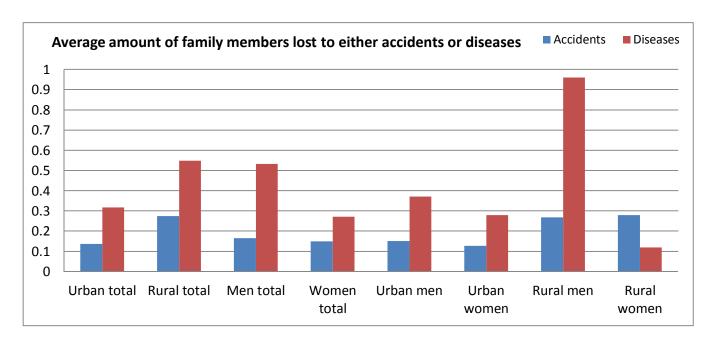
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>63</sup> (Sachs, 2005) p. 6



#### **Disease and Accidents**

Diseases are often mentioned in talks of Uganda: HIV/AIDS, malaria, African river blindness, nodding disease, yellow fever and typhoid fever to name a few. Fortunately the numbers for most of these have dropped in recent years, but it is still an interesting fact to see if the numbers have really dropped or if they just arengt being reported because of poor medical records or people inability to receive medical attention. Our results were a bit dismal ó 63 people had lost an immediate family member to disease ó 22 percent, but those 63 people lost 106 immediate family members, so it is clear that those who lost someone were more likely to lose additional family members. This is related somewhat to where a person is located. In urban areas, travel time to a doctor or medicine is about 20 minutes. But in rural areas, it is different. Of the respondents who had lost an immediate family member to an accident, they were on average, 20 minutes from health care ó lower than the average time for rural people. But for those who lost immediate family members to disease, health care was an average of 48 minutes away ó above average for the rural sector. Generally people with disease die slowly, but the later it is treated, or less regularly, the less likeliness of recovery. If one has to travel almost an hour to health care, it is likely that it will be delayed until it is absolutely necessary ó which may be too late. A bit similarly but not as drastic, of the 36 people, 12 percent, who had lost immediate family members to accidents, 43 people in total were lost. The number of people lost to disease is almost 2.5 times the number of people lost to accidents, which is an expected statistic with the much

worse health care than the developed world as well as, even with worse safety standards, less automobiles and heavy machinery.



### **Reception of Aid**

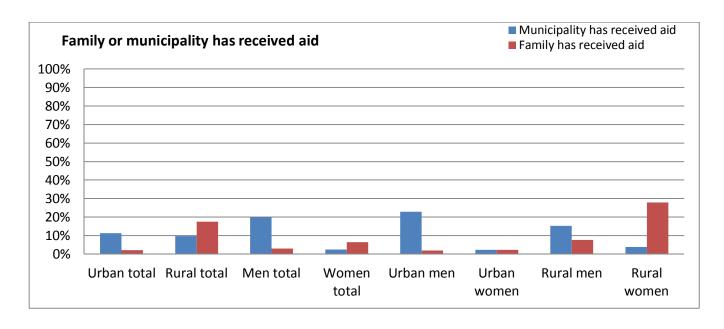
The results of the survey concerning aid were disappointing for many reasons. Only 16 respondents claimed to have received personal assistance, or for their municipality to have received it. That means just over 5.5 percent of people that were surveyed had received some sort of assistance. It is disappointing because it is such a small number of the sample, meaning that not many people received it, and it is disappointing because with such a small number the statistics will not be so accurate. What we did discover about aid is that personal aid was much more prevalent in rural areas, while municipality aid was pretty even. Urban men were more likely to receive municipality aid while rural women were more likely to receive personal aid. Of the different types of assistance that people received, named in no particular order were mosquito nets, schools, boreholes, clothes, water pumps, iron sheets, a well, food, electricity, a cow, bikes, tuition fees, and a cloned pig. The most common items received were mosquito nets, schools and clothes. One thing that Sachsøtouches on is the fact that with so much of the population living in rural areas, one of the main needs, or benefits for raising food production, is agricultural help of perhaps fertilizers or irrigation methods of basically new technology to help bolster the natural resources that are already

available for these rural people<sup>64</sup>. Therefore it is interesting to me that there is no aid dedicated toward improved agricultural output. Of course, cows and pigs can help crops, but one cow or one pig will provide minimal fertilizer and it will still have to be fed and cared for. In the end, not much can be determined from these results except that not much aid is reaching these people. Certainly, more should go to rural areas to boost education, and increase access to electricity, and to reduce deaths by disease, from other perspectives the urban areas seem to be doing quite well.

Unfortunately, not many charities responded to my repeated inquiries so it will not be possible to determine the effectiveness of the government in the realm of establishing an assistance company. The one that I heard back from however, Love in Action, which is based in Masaka, is very efficient. Started in 2003 by a couple from England, the religious based companyés mission is to odemonstrate God's love in practical ways, by providing support, education and care for orphans and needy families in Uganda, especially those families affected by HIV/AIDS". So far they have a quite impressive record, building 3 schools, one of which they run, within 20 kilometers of Masaka. In addition, they have a farm and an internet café to provide income for their ventures, as well as owning and maintaining a house for girls to live while they attend school in Masaka. They also support a clinic in their village. They have 50 local employees, and receive 90% of their money from private donations, but none from any government, Ugandan or otherwise. Small start-ups like this are fantastic and just the type of help that small, rural communities need. The business responded with a ranking of 5 for how easy it was to start their company. As Moyo states; there are easier places to start businesses. Luckily for the community, however, they chose to complete the process. When asked what would be the most useful thing to help with their charity, the response was a bit of an echo of what aid critics have been saying, oStop counting numbers and organizing workshops and support people who do real work for help people.ö<sup>65</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>64</sup> (Sachs, 2005) p. 244-245

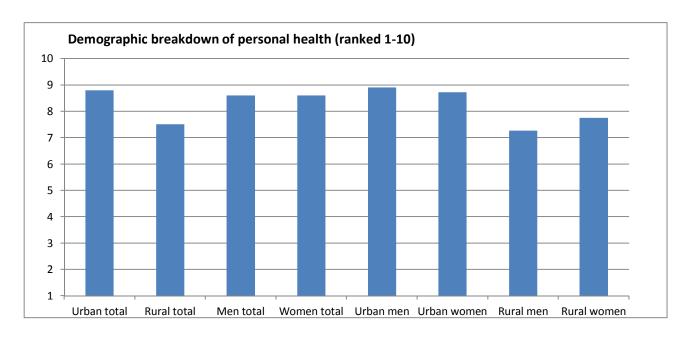
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>65</sup> (Went, 2012)



### **Personal Health**

Participants were asked to rank their health on a scale of 1-10 with 1 being the lowest. Not surprisingly, rural people didnot perceive themselves to be as healthy as their urban counterparts. Surprisingly, with no other factors involved, men and women both ranked their health to be 8.6 across the board. Urban men felt the healthiest, at an average of 8.9, their female counterparts close with 8.7. Consequently, it was rural women who felt healthier at an average of 7.8 over their male counterparts of 7.3. It is understandable that rural people would feel less healthy than urban the same as they are less educated, less likely to have electricity, travel farther for health services, and likely work in physically laborious jobs. Of the 274 answers taken, only 5 people ranked themselves a 4 or lower, and no one ranked themself a 1. It is highly likely if someone were to rank themselves a 1 they would not be out carousing in the city, but nonetheless the rankings were quite high overall. According to Sen, a personos health, and inadvertently, a part of their capabilities, is one of the most important things they can possess. A personos health is their first step of freedom, if they do not have freedom from illness or injury ó or cannot receive medical treatment to correct or assist in this ailment ó they are already quite far behind their neighbors and burdened with a

crushing unfreedom. Without their health a person may not even be able to access possible choices for themselves<sup>66</sup>.

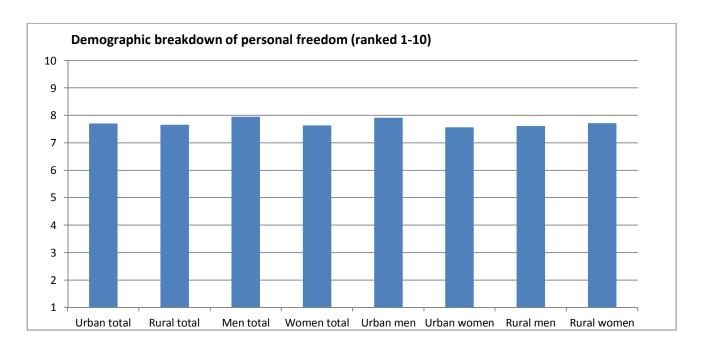


### **Personal Freedom**

Participants were asked to rank their freedom on a scale of 1-10 with 1 being the lowest. The participants have relatively similar feelings of freedom across the bar, only varying by 0.2 in the biggest gap, urban men at 7.9 and urban women and rural men sharing a score of 7.6. Rural women are in the middle with 7.7; perhaps even with their lack of resources, the act of running the household gives them more freedom. What is important about these numbers is that is shows the people, as a whole, do not feel oppressed. Unfortunately, unlike the higher numbers of health, 8.7 percent of respondents ranked their freedom below 4, and a shocking 4.3 percent marked a 1, meaning that they do feel completely shackled, with zero freedom. While it appears to be a quite low number, it is a serious predicament due to what lack of freedom can do to a person. More than 4 percent ranked their freedom at 10, however, so it is clearly not an epidemic and what actions to take to correct it are not clear.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>66</sup> (Sen, 1999) p. 80



#### Ease of Travel

Participants were asked to rank the ease of their travel to other towns and cities on a scale of 1-10 with 1 being the lowest. This is important for many reasons. As Sachsø reiterates, communication with others is vital for the spread of technology<sup>67</sup>. This doesnot necessarily require roads, technology can be spread by cell phone or the internet as well, but roads are necessary for moving goods, taking people to the hospital, bringing goods back to the village ó Sachsøstresses the importance of fertilizer<sup>68</sup>. In addition to that roads are necessary for the movement of goods and services, including schools, health care and employment, and it shows a solid infrastructure. Free travel boosts productivity, supports economic growth and allows people many more opportunities. Unfortunately, the rural numbers were not good in this case ó a very low 4.5 for the women and 5.7 for the men ó bring the rural average to a 4.8. The urban answers were not, surprisingly, much better 7.6 for the men and 6.9 for the women. The high differences between men and women who live in the same areas (particularly the urban women) show that women are more particular about the ease of their travel, most likely due to their desire for comfort. This is completely understandable, for example, if the transport is a public taxi van, it is more likely to be more uncomfortable for women, similarly if it is a boda boda (motorbike taxi). Therefore women

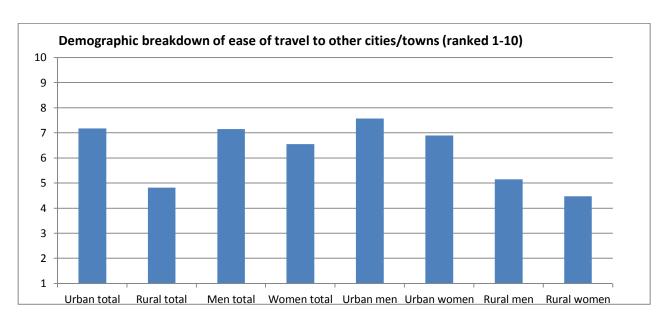
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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>67</sup> (Sachs, 2005) p. 32-33

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>68</sup> Ibid., p. 233

would factor in their comfort much more than a man would, who would have less qualms about jumping on the nearest boda boda, be that the transport choice, and if need be arguing for a lower fare or being less intimidated by the driver. In addition to that, while the urban numbers are not good, the rural numbers are dismal.

Roads seem to be a constant sore spot for Uganda, with politicians constantly arguing over them and the people just living in frustration. For example, Uganda Radio Network reported on February 13, 2012, that Ministers of Parliament (MPs) were calling for the arrest of the Masaka town clerk for alleged corruption because they claim he hired contractors that do shoddy work so that he could cooperate with the companies to steal money from the funds<sup>69</sup>. In addition, on May 19, 2011, the same network reported that Masaka residents, angered over stalled roadwork, forcefully reopened the roads. The road construction had been closed due to heavy rains, even though the residents complained there had been no rain for two weeks. According to the article, it was mostly traders and boda boda drivers who were upset and reacted to this delay because it was costing them money in business<sup>70</sup>. Clearly from these numbers and the plethora of articles on the subject, road care is a big issue and should be prioritized.



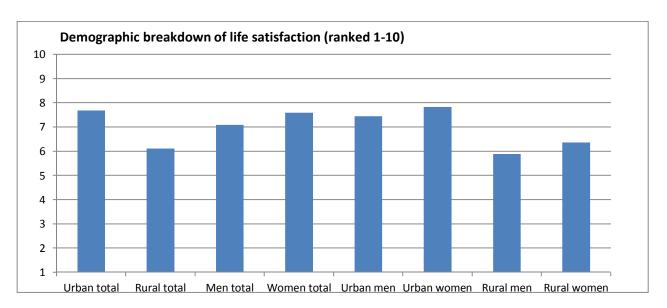
### Life Satisfaction

<sup>70</sup> (Bindhu, 2011)

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>69</sup> (Namuwonge, 2012)

Participants were asked to rank their life satisfaction on a scale of 1-10 with 1 being the lowest. Life satisfaction is important it should be an end product of development. Of course, there are exceptions; there are educated millionaires who are dissatisfied with their lives. When speaking of previously impoverished people and subsequent ability to eat, work and be healthy, life satisfaction is very important. Again, there are people who will never be satisfied, but that is a small minority. Life satisfaction is a compilation of health and freedom, the ability to work, debate, and be a functional member of society 6 perhaps to relax and watch the sunset without the fear of eviction or invasion. The urban numbers were much higher than rural 6 over a point and a half 6 7.7 and 6.1 are the averages for urban and rural, respectively. The latter is split more drastically between its genders with women claiming 6.4 while men claim a low 5.9. Their urban counterparts are much higher, and closer in range, 7.8 for urban women and 7.5 for urban men. So generally, women rank their life satisfaction half a point higher than the men do, despite ranking their health, freedom, and ease of transport lower. Regardless of the contradictory nature of the results, it@s a positive note that women are ranking their life satisfaction so high.



**Federal Government Satisfaction** 

"[The] docility of opposition has permitted successive governments to get away with unconscionable neglect of these vital matters of public policy." – Amartva Sen<sup>71</sup>

Participants were asked to rank the federal government on a scale of 1-10 with 1 being the lowest. Fortunately for Uganda, their government opposition parties are in no way docile. In fact, since multiparty elections were allowed in 2005, every political election has been marred by riots and protests citing unfair voting, rigging elections, and scandal. The main opposition leader, Dr. Kizza Besigye, had run against Museveni in all three elections since 2001. In all of them he has been second place to the President, he has filed a petition claiming election rigging and unfair practices, the court has agreed that the elections were unfair and unfree, and has voted to uphold the results by 1 vote<sup>72</sup>. However, due to the fact that Museveni has officially been able to drop term restrictions, something that he opposed when he was first elected to office, I believe he is now President for life, after 26 years in office.

Museveni had been a stable, safe leader for the most part and had been heaped with praise by Western nations for his principled rule (benefiting the development aid packages the country receives), but things have started to change in the last six or seven years. In 2005, he did two things. First, he legalized multi-party elections for the first time in his rule. This is very important to development because it not only holds the government liable for its actions or inactions, but it also gives the people a choice to speak out against the government, and therefore the country continues to change and progress according to the will of the people. The second thing he did was abolish term limits, much to the dissatisfaction of Ugandan citizens and the international community. This is likely to lead to the abuse of power in the way of election rigging, voter intimidation, and opposition abuse. Already in the past, Besigye has been exiled, arrested, attacked, and tortured due to his part in being the opposition leader<sup>73</sup>. Many in Uganda, even from the church, are calling for the end to Museveniøs rule, as seen in an article from the Washington Times on May 16, 2012, öChurch leaders in Uganda praying for strongman to goö. Some church leaders are asking Museveni

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>71</sup> (Sen, 1999) p. 156 <sup>72</sup> (Buwembo, 2010)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>73</sup> (2011)

to step down after this term, saying that he has been in office long enough<sup>74</sup>. According to several different sources, opposition MPs are also asking the President to step down, saying that he has 60 days before they will move to impeach him<sup>75</sup>. Another MP columnist for The Observer wrote an article defining why Museveni must go by alleging the lack of money being spent on health services in his area while much was being spent on police and military budgets<sup>76</sup>. This observation, even if it is untrue, can cause civil unrest. It can lead to mistrust in the government, which can lead to mistrust in the systems (financial, legislative) at which point economic growth will stagnate.

The people of Masaka agree with the above mentioned sources, with very high levels of dissatisfaction in the federal government all across the board. Urban people rated the federal government 2.8, with rural close behind, rating it a 3. There was very little distinction between the individual results as well, rural women gave the federal government the most support, with a confidence vote overall of 3.3, urban men gave the least with a vote of 2.9, while urban women and rural men settled on a 2.8 vote. To have rural and urban people, who usually have different political views, agree so closely on dissatisfaction with the government is quite significant.

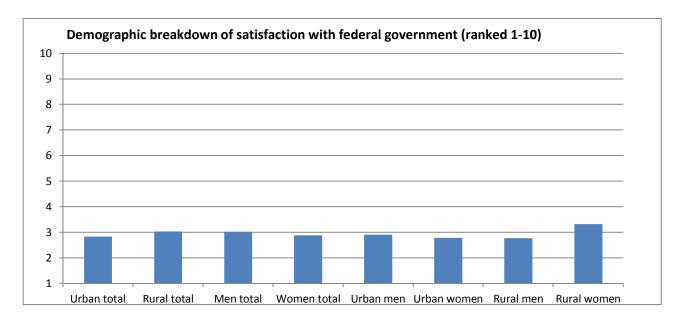
An alternative argument could be based on the fact that Museveni is from the south of the country, where the Ankole kingdom is based, and is a Munyankole; while the majority of people from Masaka are Baganda, identifying with the kingdom of Buganda. However, this may not be significant, for one reason at least being that Museveni campaigned speaking Luganda. It has been documented, however, that there was an incident in 2009 between Museveni and Bugandaøs King Mutebi, when Mutebi was prohibited from visiting parts of his kingdom, because Museveni thought he was stirring opposition. This caused a spark of riots where several people were killed. In addition, a year later, a royal mausoleum of the kingdom was burned (the members alleged arson) to the ground and two people were shot dead by police in a barricade to try to prevent the President from visiting the scene of the fire. This mausoleum held the remains of the past kings from the kingdom<sup>77</sup>. Regardless of the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>74</sup> (2012) <sup>75</sup> (Ruti, 2012)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>76</sup> (Nganda, 2012)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>77</sup> (2012)

reason the people are dissatisfied with the federal government, they are, and therefore there needs to be a change. As Sen says of political freedom offree speech and elections promote economic security<sup>78</sup>. The fact that the last three elections have been unanimously deemed unfair by the Electoral Committee is enough to show that there needs to be a serious reconsideration of the current government.

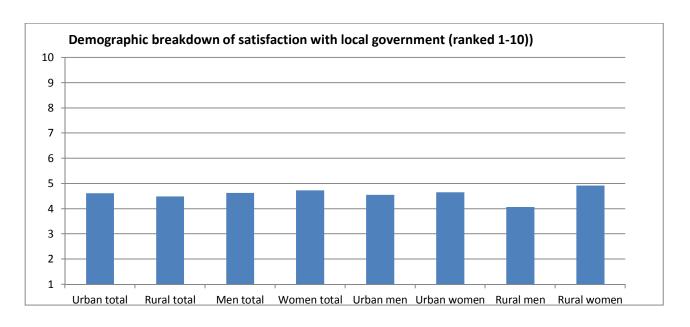


### **Local Government Satisfaction**

Participants were asked to rank their local government on a scale of 1-10 with 1 being the lowest. Local government is a little more satisfactory than federal government, but still has quite low numbers. Again, there were consistent results among the various groups, rural men were the most dissatisfied and ranked it 4.1, urban men followed with 4.6 and then urban women with 4.7 and rural women with the high of 4.9. Everything that can be said for federal government is true of local government, just on a smaller scale. These are still the people that citizens elect for representation and therefore expect them to be held accountable for their actions. They are still in control of some aspects of the budgets that are used to dictate repairs to buildings or roads, or perhaps to decide on certain projects that money may or may not be allotted to. If so many are dissatisfied then clearly the politicians arenøt doing their job well. Fortunately, it would be much easier to remove a local politician from office than it would be to remove a president who has been in power for 26 years.

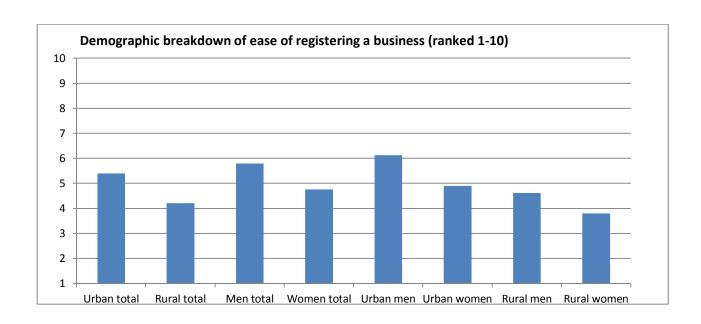
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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>78</sup> (Sen, 1999) p. 11



## **Ease of Registering a Business**

Participants were asked to rank the ease of registering a business on a scale of 1-10 with 1 being the lowest. Bureaucracy is in every country. It generally only a problem if it is excessive or corrupt. This can mean long lines, lots of paperwork, stamps, approvals, and many other hoops to jump through. Registering a business should be facilitated by the government. It encourages economic growth, encourages people to be innovative, and gives support to entrepreneurs. Governments should want their citizens to start businesses, not make it a difficult task for them to achieve. Unfortunately, it doesnot seem to be such an easy task in Masaka. Even more unfortunately, it seems to be more difficult for women than it is for men. Urban men perceived registering a business the easiest, but with a rather low score of 6.1. Their female counterparts perceived it to be quite a bit more difficult, with a ranking of 4.9, just slightly easier than rural males who gave it just shy of 5, with 4.9. Rural women were likely the most discouraged to try to register their own business, because they saw the process as quite difficult, ranking it with a 3.8. Regardless of whether it is really this hard to register a business or people just perceive it to be, it is still a problem. If I thought it was going to be very difficult and a hard time for me to register a business, the thought would never cross my mind to consider the option. Such processes should be easy to encourage people to be creative, because businesses are a positive part of the economy.



# **CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH FINDINGS**

Masaka seems to be doing quite well. There are high levels of employment, education, high ratings of health, personal freedom and life satisfaction. For all practical purposes Masaka seems to be high and moving up on the developmental chain. There are still some areas that need to be improved, for example child mortality, rural education and home electricity. People need more access to doctors and medicine. If it is not possible to build more state hospitals then there needs to be more staff provided at existing institutions. Government clinics should be in areas that dongt have easy access to the hospitals, and should provide free, or affordable, adequate care. There should also be private doctors, so that demand is met and people can pay for private service if they choose, but state run clinics and hospitals should be available for those without the access or funds for private doctors. Roads, I imagine are not as good as they appear from the surveys. As I mentioned, if someone was unable to travel easily because of the roads in their area, they would not have been in Masaka. In addition, roads are a constant political struggle in Uganda, with lots of controversy and corruption surrounding their repair. Roads should connect urban and rural areas easily and efficiently. Providing affordable bus service from rural villages to and from Masaka would allow villagers access to the city, whether to work, do business, visit a doctor, sell their wares, or to be exposed to what is happening in the city. Even if this could only happen once a day or a few times a week it would be of great benefit to the people.

Each economist has a different main goal, in my opinion, of what is best for Africa. Easterly main focus is the voice of the recipients. He believes that Africans should be directly involved in how much they get and what it is for, not country governments. Mwenda ideal is that Africans themselves will rise up and pull their countries from the current chaos of he wants it done independently. Moyo concern is with the rampant corruption that the aid is funding, she wants it stopped so that democratic and efficient governments can take over and rebuild the continent. Sachs wants the money. He believes that if given enough money, the poor will be able to climb up the ladder and then eventually become independent. Sen is looking for freedom for every individual; he sees aid as simply a means to an end, and that when every citizen has full freedom, then the development will come.

While all these ideas are thoroughly researched, as well as very important and relative to many countries and cities in Africa, not all of them are right for Masaka. The truth about Uganda is that is has been growing quickly in the last few years. Even with a stagnant regime, oppressive paperwork, occasional political violence and disease, investors are still moving in and the country has experienced quite a bit of growth, at least until the most recent election. Opposition to aid even uses Uganda as a rare caseø. So letøs examine what changes could be made to benefit the people in Masaka and its surrounding areas.

Museveni must go. The formerly picture perfect president has entered his 27<sup>th</sup> year, amidst whirlwinds of his trademark line from 1986, that the problem with Africa is leaders who stay too long. In addition to the fact that the people are dissatisfied with his rule, there are other problems to consider. His police and military presence is growing much stronger. Tens, possibly hundreds of people have died or been injured in elections since 2001, when protests against fraud turned violent. In every election since 2001, the closest opponent has been Kizza Besigye, who has appealed the results, every time. After the first two decisions, the Elections Committee has agreed, unanimously, that the elections had been persuaded and unfair ó yet then declined ó by one vote every time, to nullify the results<sup>79</sup>. Clearly Museveni, who appoints the Elections Committee, has control of the political players. An article in the Independent from June 15th states that for 2012 the police have been allocated 242 billion shillings, with 148 billion of it already released. Almost half of this has been used for special equipment for riots, for example armor and tear gas<sup>80</sup>. Mwenda speaks about Museveni buying votes in the most current election, in a very outright manner, but he follows it with an interesting point that seems to resonate through many voices. Bribes are better than persecution<sup>81</sup>. Moyo discusses the effect on investment related to the difficulties registering businesses. In 2007, it could take at least 37 days, with 17 - 19 procedures to establish a business<sup>82</sup>. Compared with other African states shees mentioned<sup>83</sup>, this is not unreasonable but whether ites a reality is unlikely according to the rankings given by respondents.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>79</sup> (Buwembo, 2010)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>80</sup> (2012)

<sup>81 (</sup>Mwenda, 2011)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>82</sup> (2007)

<sup>83 (</sup>Moyo, 2009)

In addition to all the above mentioned problems there are two more significant problems with Museveni leaving office. The first is how to encourage him to leave. Clearly, he is not interested in giving up his position. Building the police force, buying votes, even his appointed Electoral Commission believes the elections were not free and fair ó either he will have to one day have a complete change of mind - or there will have to be a military intervention. It is doubtful that his own military would rise against him, especially with the money he is putting into the industry, and it would be extremely damaging for an outside military to remove him due to his relatively peaceful, stable, and comparatively, successful rule. Although the Parliament has spoken many times about impeaching him, this has also brought no results so it just an idle threat, or more of a jest. Therefore, there is not a good solution to this problem, as force is unacceptable (military or judicial) and a change of mind is highly unlikely. The second problem with Museveni leaving office is the successor. Who will take his place if the office does manage to become free? To say there could be truly free elections, and not that one of his cabinet or his son would use his methods to retain the office, would be naïve at best. So even if he does pass in the near future, there still would not be a clear solution.

Development assistance reform. Easterly and Mwenda argue that Africa has received over \$560 billion of aid in the last five decades<sup>8485</sup>. A very rough calculation of their exact numbers means from about \$200 - \$250 million has been received per country per year in 2003 dollars. They are arguing that there has been an overabundance of aid, but now supporters are asking for over a billion dollars a year to meet their needs, so this argument is less relevant. It points more to support Sachsøidea that there is money coming, but not enough for a long term solution<sup>86</sup>. This is along the same line as the argument aforementioned by Moyo, that emergency aid is useful, but not for chronic problems<sup>87</sup>.

Other arguments on the accountability and transparency of aid from Easterly, Mwenda and Moyo, are critical. Uganda receives a lot of money for aid, and Uganda has a lot less poor people than it used to have. But a lot of money, for riot gear or to buy elections,

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>84</sup> (Foreign Aid and the Weakening of Democratic Accountability in Uganda, 2006)

<sup>85 (</sup>Easterly, 2006)

<sup>86 (</sup>Sachs, 2005) p. 1

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>87</sup> (Moyo, 2009)

for example, is not necessary. Large institutions like the World Bank, United Nations, and International Money Fund, should no longer work exclusively with heads of governments. They should either work with individual charities, like Love In Action, branches of governments, or run and supervise their own projects (which could also be subcontracted to local companies). Rather than giving billions to a government that is not being held accountable for the spending or distribution, they could distribute regularly to small charities that are actually working (as our aid worker mentioned). Branches of the government could apply for aid as individual \*companies@ for example the Ministry of Transport could write up and submit a plan based on the projects they were undertaking at the time. Will there be corruption? Sure. Will money go to the wrong cause? Sure. But having follow up, or on-theground task force teams that can monitor these projects to make sure they are progressing and accurately noting progress or delays will deter it. It would be a lot of work, but that would mean more jobs and better allocation of funds, which would save money over time. Giant corporations like the World Bank should be tracking what theyere doing as well as accountable for it. Certainly there are enough willing applicants for jobs that would take them around the world to study development. An unnamed source from the World Bank admits that employees become õdisenchantedö after awhile due to the long time period from the beginning of a project to the end results, but claims the World Bank is not as bad as other institutions. He also says that development programs are a bit dysfunctional because development must happen õindigenouslyö. To this the reply is to let it ó put the means in the hands of the locals and let them execute the programs. Check in a few times a year to make sure there are no problems, and to evaluate progress thus far. The evaluations could be operated by students under a few employees, or training programs for future employees. According to the source, Sachsødownfall is that he believes everything can be solved by experts on the ground, but development will not just occur because an expert is cajoling it.

Empower rural people. Using the aforementioned projects put more power in the hands of rural people. Many of them are employed, but with low education, lack of electricity, and high child mortality they clearly arenøt prospering as well as they could be. Set up small clinics throughout the country side. Rural people, even with their lack of infrastructure, could have farming plots or livestock, and as Sachs spoke of in Kenya, a communal truck for export. With a power grid they could have electricity, which could

power schools and farm equipment, both of which need operators. Or even better, set up a company that doesnot have to export its products daily or every other day. Perhaps there could be a factory, or a water purification plant or even a small data entry company. Those rural areas that are near forests or lakes could develop tourism. Once there is electricity many opportunities can arise, and in the beginning labor will be cheaper than in Masaka. It would not be difficult to provide them with human, knowledge, and business capital investment. Government sources, such as the census, could be used to allocate several practical places, and after local populations have approved it, the projects could begin. Another option is that rural people submit their own ideas for what their town could use, based on a particular distributed form. The villagers could submit a project that they would like in their village, and all projects could be rated, with the best ones approved. Then with outside money and local labor, the transition could take place. This would settle Easterlyos qualm that local people have no voice in the projects that come to their areas, as well as Sachsøqualm that big institutions receive a project, then manipulate the costs in a way to make it unachievable.

#### CONCLUSION

Uganda has achieved much economic growth in the past few years. It has been a secure and stable country since 1986, when the current president, Yoweri Museveni, took power. The government itself has been a poster child for aid and the country has responded to this input. Masaka itself has many educated people who are employed and have electricity and low birth rates. The rural areas represented are not quite as advanced as the urban ones, but even they are not in desperate situations. Overall, the future of the area looks very promising.

However, now there seems to be an overabundance of aid which is being used to the personal benefit of the government. I believe that my first hypothesis, that developmental assistance is not being used efficiently due to complicated bureaucratic systems. Therefore a majority of people are dissuaded from applying. Due to this discouragement and these complications, officials are able to use this money for their own personal gain, was correct. It is difficult to receive aid in Masaka. There is also a lot of distrust between residents and the local and federal governments. The federal government is misusing funds, for example, buying the last election in 2011. The government admits the elections are not free and democratic. It is perceived to be difficult to start a business. People are taking to the streets. To quote Sachs, õHistory has shown that democracy is not a prerequisite for economic development. On the other hand, a regime that is despotic, arbitrary and lawless will easily destroy an economy<sup>88</sup>.ö Hopefully Uganda will not reach this point. I believe to assist in this situation, development assistance should be cut. In addition to being cut, there needs to be much more transparency and accountability for how it is used. A better solution would be to have many small projects in a country, rather than large amounts of money transferred to the government. More people need to be involved in actually getting the money to the people that need it, rather than researching and philosophizing about where it would be best received. I agree with Mwenda and Moyo that a reduction in aid would force to government to come up with alternate solutions for growth.

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<sup>88 (</sup>Sachs, 2005) p. 87

My second hypothesis, that Ugandan family and social customs prevent aid and loans from being used to their utmost potential due to the fact that they cannot take first priority, was wrong. There appears to be no cultural barrier to assistance, and quite the opposite is true. The citizens of Uganda seem to support their families quite heavily by sending money to those who need assistance. This is quite easy with Ugandaøs Mobile Money service, which allows money to be transferred to another person by mobile phone. The family culture seems to be empowering the people around Masaka as they help each other out.

What has come to my attention is the need for free and easy medical care in rural areas. With high numbers of child deaths, deaths from disease, and timely travels to doctors, the people are not getting the adequate healthcare they require. As well as increased health care, I believe that some developmental money should go to official charities which have proven successful, employ local people, and request it. I think the same type of assistance should also be a benefit for small start-up companies, which will empower local citizens and help growth ó after all, that is the goal of development aid.

### **ABSTRACT**

This paper is concerned with the efficiency of aid in Masaka, Uganda which is about 140 km from the capital city Kampala. It uses the results of 300 surveys and several interviews to gather data, and a causal methodology to define results. Much of the methodology is based on theories from William Easterly, Andrew Mwenda, Dambisa Moyo, Jeffrey Sachs, and Amartya Sen. It has been concluded that there are several problems in the Masaka area. One is Ugandaøs federal government, which is inefficient and unaccountable. There is also lack of easily accessible health care for rural citizens, and a lack of local development due to poor governance. Conversely, the residents of Masaka are quite developed in terms of employment and education, and have rated themselves as quite free and satisfied with life. There is also a quite adequate level of gender equality, especially in terms of education.

Figure 1 ó Poverty and inequality trends, 1992/93-2002/03

	1992/93	1996/97	1999/2000	2002/03				
Proportion of the population living below the national poverty line*								
National	56	44	34	38				
Rural	60	49	37	42				
Urban	28	17	10	12				
Central	46	28	20	22				
Eastern	59	54	35	46				
Northern	72	60	64	63				
Western	53	43	26	31				
Inequality as measured by the Gini coefficient								
National	0.364	0.347	0.395	0.428				
Rural	0.326	0.311	0.332	0.363				
Urban	0.395	0.347	0.426	0.477				

Excluding Kitgum, Gulu, Bundibugyo, Kasese and Pader. If these (except Pader) are included, poverty in 2002 will be 66 percent instead of 63 percent in northern Uganda and 39 percent at the national level rather than 38 percent.
Source: PEAP 2004/05–2007/08

Figure 2 ó Poverty rates in Uganda

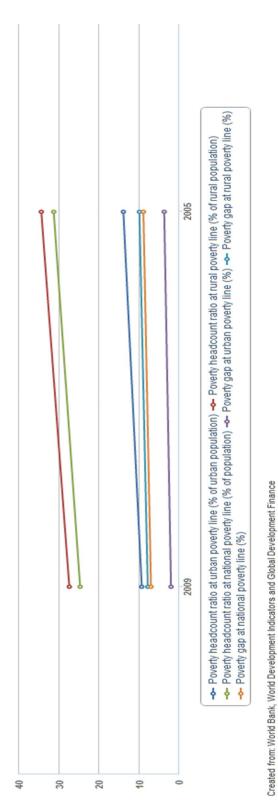


Figure 3 ó Official Developmental Assistance in Uganda

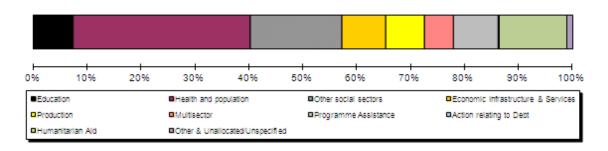
### Uganda

Receipts	2007	2008	2009
Net ODA (USD million)	1 737	1 641	1 786
Bilateral share (gross ODA)	58%	62%	57%
Net ODA / GNI	14.9%	11.6%	11.6%
Net Private flows (USD million)	84	112	64

For reference	2007	2008	2009
Population (million)	30.6	31.7	32.7
GNI per capita (Atlas USD)	370	420	460

	Top Ten Donors of gross ODA (2008-09 average) (USD m)				
_	DA (2000-03 average)				
1	United States	360			
2	IDA	289			
3	EU Institutions	193			
4	AfDF	110			
5	United Kingdom	92			
6	Denmark	88			
7	Ireland	73			
8	Norway	71			
9	Netherlands	64			
10	Sweden	58			

#### Bilateral ODA by Sector (2008-09)



Sources: OECD, World Bank.

Figure 4 ó Net Official Development Assistance Disbursements

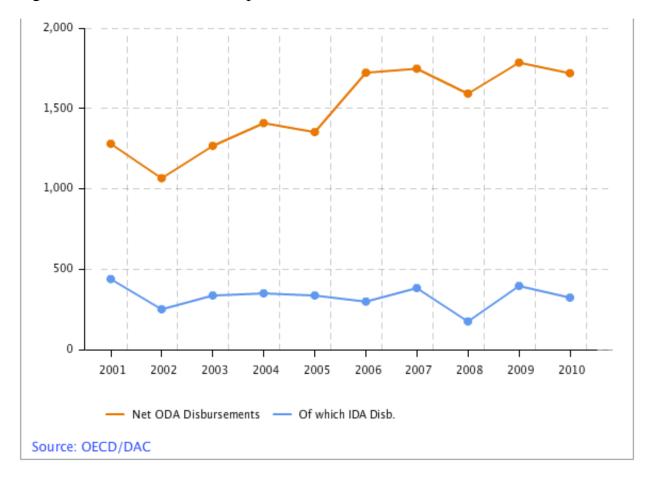
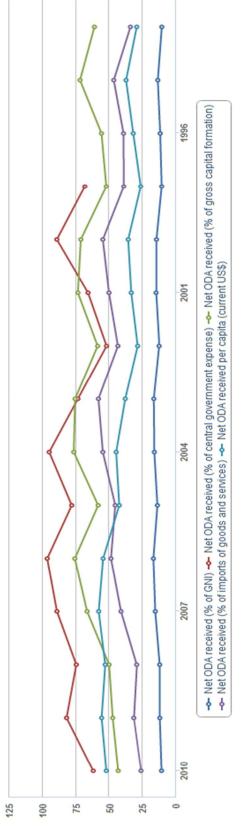


Figure 5 ó Net Official Development Assistance Statistics in Uganda



Created from: World Bank, World Development Indicators and Global Development Finance

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