THE ROLE OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT DOCUMENTS IN BRIDGING THE GENDER GAP:

A CASE STUDY OF UGANDA’S NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN (2015/16 – 2019/20)

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BFP</td>
<td>Budget Framework Paper</td>
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<tr>
<td>DFID</td>
<td>UK Department for International Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>EDD</td>
<td>Economic Development Document</td>
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<tr>
<td>EDPRS</td>
<td>Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy (Rwanda’s EDD)</td>
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<td>GDI</td>
<td>Gender-related Development Index</td>
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<td>GEM</td>
<td>Gender Empowerment Measure</td>
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<td>GGGI</td>
<td>Global Gender Gap Index</td>
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<td>HDI</td>
<td>Human Development Index</td>
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<tr>
<td>HIPC</td>
<td>Highly Indebted Poor Countries</td>
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<tr>
<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>LFPR</td>
<td>Labour Force Participation Rate</td>
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<tr>
<td>MDA</td>
<td>Ministries, Agencies &amp; Departments</td>
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<td>MGLSD</td>
<td>Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development</td>
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<td>MoFPED</td>
<td>Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>MTEF</td>
<td>Medium Term Expenditure Framework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NDP</td>
<td>National Development Plan (Uganda’s EDD)</td>
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<td>NPA</td>
<td>National Planning Authority</td>
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<td>PEAP</td>
<td>Poverty Eradication Action Plan</td>
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<td>PFM</td>
<td>Public Finance Management</td>
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<td>PRSP</td>
<td>Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper</td>
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<td>SIGI</td>
<td>Social Institutions and Gender Index</td>
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<td>UBoS</td>
<td>Uganda Bureau of Statistics</td>
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<td>UWEP</td>
<td>Uganda Women Entrepreneurship Programme</td>
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<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
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<td>UNHS</td>
<td>Uganda National Household Survey</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
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<td>WEF</td>
<td>World Economic Forum</td>
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**ABSTRACT**

Gender inequality is strongly associated with human poverty. UNDP (2016) estimates that the gender gap costs Sub-Saharan Africa $95 billion a year. Bridging the gender gap is therefore an important issue, particularly for developing countries. Economic Development Documents, previously called Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers play an important role in laying out mechanisms for a country’s poverty reduction and economic development. Evidence shows that reducing gender inequality enhances productivity and economic growth. This study therefore set out to examine Uganda’s scores in the Global Gender Gap Index, and the role of Uganda’s Economic Development Document – the National Development Plan (NDP II) in bridging the country’s gender gap. Literature was reviewed to draw lessons from the Nordic Countries and Rwanda, whose scores on the Global Gender Gap Index are high. The findings highlighted that while Uganda’s NDP II sets out some strategies with potential to bridge the gender gap, lessons from successful countries could be harnessed to accelerate the reduction of the gap. Notably, the country’s national gender policy; gender-specific programmes; and quantifiable milestones of progress need to be applied. In addition, gender-equality financing, gender-mainstreaming expertise, and political leadership could be strengthened for accelerated reduction of the country’s gender gap.
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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Economists refer to the “gender gap” as “systematic differences in the outcomes that men and women achieve in the labour market. These differences are seen in the percentages of men and women in the labour force, the types of occupations they choose, and their relative incomes or hourly wages.” (Goldin, 2007, p.ix). Conversely, the World Economic Forum (WEF) (2006) expands this definition to include systematic differences in health, education, and political outcomes for women and men.

“Gender is about “the socially given attributes, roles, activities, and responsibilities connected to being a male or a female in a given society,” (March, et al 1999, p.18). Gender attributes vary widely among societies and cultures, and change over time (Sarkar, 2006). Gender relations define what society considers acceptable behaviour for men and women, and which jobs are considered appropriate for men and women. Some of these societal definitions may undermine access to development opportunities by women and men in some spheres of life. Although gender roles and values are not universal, according to Curtis (2004), one valid generalisation is that male gender identity is often associated with power and strength, placing men in a position of greater control of public resources and decision making, and this undermines gender equality.” (Among, 2015 p.1). A situation of gender equality is therefore achieved when “women and men enjoy the same rights and opportunities across all sectors, including economic participation and decision-making, and when the different behaviours, aspirations and needs of women and men are equally valued” (European Institute for Gender Equality, 2016, p.1).

“Societal definition of gender roles and division of labour leads to different poverty and development outcomes for women and men” (Among, 2015 p.1). These differentials create what is termed the “gender gap.” Although the gender gap has been defined variously by different scholars, this paper will
adopt the definition used by the WEF (2006, p.5) in its annual Global Gender Gap Index (GGGI) reports, as “the gap between men and women in four fundamental categories: economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival and political empowerment.” The gender gap leads to suboptimal utilisation of a country’s human resource and partial realisation of its economic potential (WEF, 2015).

Uganda ranked 58th out of 145 countries in the 2015 Global Gender Gap Index with a score of 0.708. The highest possible score is 1 (equality) and the lowest is 0 (inequality). The index benchmarks national gender gaps on economic, political, education and health criteria, and provides country rankings that allow for effective comparisons across regions and income groups. Uganda ranked lowest in the East African region compared to Rwanda which ranked 6th with a score of 0.794; Burundi 23rd with a score of 0.748; Kenya 48th with a score of 0.719 and Tanzania 49th with a score of 0.718. (WEF, 2015). This paper therefore examines how Uganda’s Economic Development Document (EDD) proposes to reduce gender inequality and bridge the gender gap.

According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF, 2015, p.1), “A Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) contains an assessment of poverty and describes the macroeconomic, structural, and social policies and programs that a country will pursue over several years to promote growth and reduce poverty, as well as associated sources of financing. They are prepared by governments in low-income countries through a participatory process involving domestic stakeholders and external development partners.” “The PRS approach was introduced by the IMF and the World Bank in 1999 in the context of the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative, with countries preparing PRSPs and Annual Progress Reports as a basis for debt-reduction. With the HIPC Initiative almost completed, the IMF in 2015 adopted a more flexible PRS policy for its engagement with low-income countries” (IMF, 2016, p.1). The IMF and World Bank now recommend that Poverty Reduction Strategies will be documented through EDDs, which can take the form of either existing national development plans documenting countries’
poverty reduction strategies; or a new EDD focused on macro-elements of the poverty reduction strategy (IMF, 2016).

Uganda’s current five-year EDD is the National Development Plan (2015/16 – 2019/2020, (NDP II)), under the theme, “A transformed Ugandan society from a peasant to a modern and prosperous country within 30 years.” (Republic of Uganda, 2015, p.i). The NDP II provides a framework for strengthening the country’s competitiveness for sustainable wealth creation, employment and inclusive growth. Its key objectives are: “i) increasing sustainable production, productivity and value addition in key growth opportunities; ii) increasing the stock and quality of strategic infrastructure to accelerate the country’s competitiveness; iii) enhancing human capital development; and (iv) strengthening mechanisms for quality, effective and efficient service delivery.” (Republic of Uganda, 2015, p.xi). Arguably, the government’s strategies for tackling poverty and gender inequality over the five-year-period are first cast in the NDP II, and then translated into annual budgets and plans.

Arising from the above, the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development (MGLSD), which is the national gender machinery has developed a Social Development Sector Plan (2015/16 – 2019/20), under the theme, “Empowering vulnerable and marginalized groups for wealth creation and inclusive development” (Republic of Uganda, 2016 p.iv). The plan’s key objective for gender is “to promote rights, gender equality and women’s empowerment in the development process” (Republic of Uganda, 2016 p.xvii). Other sectors have similarly developed sectoral plans to align with the NDP. This study will however mostly examine NDP II.

1.2 Rationale of the study – Why Uganda’s NDP II and the Global Gender Gap Index?

Why Uganda?
As evidenced by its comparative scores on the GGGI, Uganda ranks lowest in the East African region. This is despite having the same score as Rwanda (0.483) on the Human Development Index (HDI), and having a better score than Burundi (0.400) (UNDP, 2015). This raises questions on whether the
broader poverty reduction frameworks have anything to do with the gender gap, which makes Uganda an interesting country for analysis.

Why the National Development Plan (NDP II)?
As indicated in section 1.1, the NDP II (2015/16 – 2019/20) is the current embodiment of Uganda’s economic development/poverty reduction strategy, from which all sectoral plans draw their priorities/strategies. Focusing this paper on the topic “The role of Economic Development Documents in bridging the gender gap: A case study of Uganda’s National Development Plan (2015/16 – 2019/20)” is therefore aimed at a gender analysis of the opportunities and gaps within the NDP’s key priorities, to determine their potential to bridge Uganda’s gender gap. The NDP II has particularly been chosen for focus by this paper because analysis of earlier PRSPs/NDP would have been retrospective, with limited potential to influence policy adjustments in the short term. Findings of this study on the other hand have the potential to be used to influence government interventions in support of the aspirations of Uganda’s current EDD to reduce the national gender gap.

Why the Global Gender Gap index (GGGI)?
Gender equality indices are a multidimensional phenomenon (Senem, 2016), including analysis of various indicators across a range of sectors. There are a range of possible choices, including, among others, the Gender Equality Index (GEI); the Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI); the Women’s Economic Opportunity Index (Stotsky, 2016), and a range of other regional indices such as the African Gender and Development Index. The choice of index can therefore be daunting - because each of these indices has some inherent benefits and limitations as demonstrated by analysing three possible ones below.

The UN has developed three indices for analysing gender equality, aimed at completing the Human Development Index – they include: First, the Gender-related Development Index (GDI), which reflects achievements between women and men in reproductive health, empowerment and the labour market (UNDP, 2015). The GDI has however been criticised for not measuring
gender equality in itself but human development adjusted for gender inequality (Klasen, 2006). GDI, therefore is “not a measure of women’s development, nor of gender inequality, but rather a measure of human development that includes health, education, and income, plus the degree to which the well-being of a society as a whole suffers as a result of any gender disparity in access to these three proxies for human capabilities.” (Stanton, 2007, p.2.).

Second is the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM), which measures “whether women and men are able to actively participate in economic and political life and take part in decision making” (UNDP, 1995, p. 73). This index has also been criticised for not directly measuring gender inequality (Charmes et al, 2003). The GEM is built on three indicators - two indicators measure the female share in political power (seats in parliament); managerial positions in the administrative and professional sectors; and the third indicator measures income.” (UNDP, 1995, p.72). The problem is that measuring political power by share of parliamentary seats is flawed because parliaments are not the centre of power in every country (Charmes, et al 2003). The crucial question is, “on what understanding of power is the GEM built?” (Charmes, et al 2003 p.433)

Third is the Gender Inequality Index (GII), which was introduced in the 2010 Human Development Report to overcome the limitations of the GDI and GEM. It measures gender inequalities in reproductive health (maternal mortality ratio and adolescent birth rates); empowerment (parliamentary seats occupied by females, and proportion of adult females and males aged 25 years and older with at least some secondary education); and economic status (labour force participation rate of female and male populations aged 15 years and older (UNDP, 2015). The Gender Inequality Index is the current and most commonly cited measure of gender inequality. However, it has been criticised for “combining indicators that compare achievements of women vis-à-vis men with indicators that are only defined for women (specifically, in reproductive health), which obscures its interpretation.” (Permanyer, 2013, p.1).
Notwithstanding the inherent weaknesses of gender indices, an index has to be used for any meaningful comparison of countries. The pertinent question therefore is “why will this paper use the GGGI rather than the commonly used GII?”

“The GGGI was first introduced by the World Economic Forum (WEF) in 2006 as a framework for capturing the magnitude of gender-based disparities and tracking their progress” (WEF, 2015, p.v). Three basic concepts underline the GGGI, and form the basis for selection of its indicators. “First, the index focuses on measuring gaps rather than levels – it is constructed to rank countries on their gender gaps, not on their development level. Second, it captures gaps in outcome variables rather than gaps in input variables – it provides a snapshot of where men and women stand with regard to fundamental outcome indicators related to basic rights such as health and survival, education attainment, economic participation and opportunity, and political empowerment. Third, it ranks countries according to gender equality rather than women’s empowerment – it focuses on whether the gap between women and men in the chosen indicators has declined” (WEF, 2015, p.3).

These concepts are explained further in table 2.1 in the literature review.

The GGGI has therefore been selected for this paper for three main reasons, which would not have been possible through a different index:

1) It enables an analysis of Uganda’s gender gap in comparison to other countries that are closer to bridging the gap, regardless of their level of development.

2) It enables an in-depth analysis of gender equality outcomes in key human rights such as health, education, political participation and economic participation. It goes beyond the common analysis of inputs such as impressive gender equality policies, to analyse whether those policies, and indeed the NDP II have the potential to contribute to changes in the above outcomes.

3) Third, it enables analysis of countries, which are ranked according to gender equality rather than women’s empowerment. The GGGI focuses on whether the gap between women and men in the chosen
indicators has declined, rather than whether women are “winning the battle of the sexes” (WEF, 2015, p.3). This enables a balanced analysis of the NDP II from a “gender and development,” rather than a “women in development” perspective.

1.3 Research questions

The primary question to be answered by this paper is, “What is the role of Uganda’s National Development Plan in bridging the country’s gender gap?” The subsidiary questions are:

1) What is the nature of Uganda’s gender gap?
2) How does the National Development Plan propose to reduce gender inequality and close the gender gap in Uganda?
3) What opportunities (if any) for reducing the national gender gap, has the National Development Plan missed?
4) How can the National Development Plan be strengthened to effectively reduce gender inequality in Uganda?

1.4 Overview of methodology

The paper used a desk-based research methodology drawing on secondary literature. Published and non-published primary empirical studies – particularly those involving the evaluation of the contribution of poverty reduction strategy papers in reducing gender inequality were reviewed. As elaborated in chapter three, key sources of literature included books and journal articles on poverty reduction strategy papers and gender equality, and policy documents – mostly Uganda’s NDP II and other accruing budget and policy papers. Grey literature – including NDP II concept papers and analytical papers, as well as relevant sector-specific gender reports were reviewed. The study also reviewed relevant past papers that have covered the issues within the scope of this paper.

Key internet sources searched included among others: journal articles; electronic data bases such as International Development Research Centre; and international development agency websites such as the World Bank, the
UK Department for International Development (DFID); IMF and USAID. The key words that guided the literature search included: gender inequality; poverty reduction strategy papers; and gender-analytical frameworks.

For analysis of findings, the paper draws on Moser's framework, and the gender-mainstreaming framework. The two frameworks were selected because they are relevant for macro-level gender analysis. They are presented in detail in section 3.4.

1.5 Methodological limitations

The main limitation of the study arose from its use of grey literature whose quality in some cases was limited, or not peer reviewed. Nonetheless, theoretical analysis frameworks were used to critically analyse and triangulate literature with other peer reviewed journal articles. The limitations are further elaborated in section 3.5.

1.6 Structure of the paper

The paper is structured as follows. Chapter 1 introduces the study topic, rationale and methodology. In chapter 2, the paper draws on global experience to highlight relevant literature on the gender gap and the contribution of EDDs in bridging the gap. Chapter 3 elaborates the methodology used. In Chapter 4, the study findings are presented – the chapter undertakes an in-depth analysis of Uganda’s gender gap and how the NDP II proposes to bridge it. Chapter 5 presents the study conclusions.
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The literature review will describe the global gender gap, followed by the trends of Uganda’s gender gap. This will be followed by a subsection examining the countries that have successfully reduced the gender gap, and those that have persistently had wide gender gaps. This will identify the preconditions for bridging the gender gap. The chapter will then draw a link between the gender gap and poverty, with the aim of emphasising why PRSPs/EDDs need to pay attention to gender equality. The section will then examine Rwanda’s current EDD to determine if any patterns can be drawn for subsequent analysis of the study findings. The chapter will close with a conclusion, identifying patterns in literature, which will inform the analysis of strategies proposed by Uganda’s NDP II in chapter four.

2.2 The global gender gap

Measuring systematic differences in the outcomes that men and women achieve in i) economic participation in the labour market; ii) health and survival; iii) education attainment; and iv) political participation, the World Economic Forum has since 2006 ranked countries according to the level of gender equality. In 2015, 145 countries were ranked, 109 of which have been ranked since 2006 (WEF, 2015). The inclusion of countries in the index is driven by the availability of data on at least 12 of the 14 indicators which make up the index.

The Global Gender Gap index has therefore been applied to measure the relative gaps between women and men, across a large set of countries and across the four key areas, which form the sub-indexes of the Global Gender Gap Index (World Economic Forum, 2015), each of them with specific indicators as illustrated in Table 2.1. The sub-indexes and their associated indicators will be used to examine the nature of Uganda’s gender gap in chapter 4.
Table 2.1: A snapshot of the sub-indexes and indicators that constitute the Global Gender Gap Index

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-index description</th>
<th>Variable/Indicator</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Economic Participation and Opportunity:</strong></td>
<td>Ratio: female labour force participation over male value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This sub-index contains three concepts: i) the participation gap - captured using the difference between women and men in labour force participation rates; ii) the remuneration gap, captured through ratio of estimated female-to-male earned income, and a qualitative indicator; and iii) the gap between the advancement of women and men, captured through two hard data statistics (the ratio of women to men among legislators, senior officials and managers, and the ratio of women to men among technical and professional workers).</td>
<td>Wage equality between women and men for similar work(converted to female-over-male ratio)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ratio: female estimated earned income over male value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ratio: female legislators, senior officials and managers over male value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ratio: female professional and technical workers over male value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Educational Attainment:</strong></td>
<td>Ratio: female literacy rate over male value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The gap between women’s and men’s current access to education - captured through ratios of women to men in primary, secondary and tertiary-level education. A longer-term view of the country’s ability to educate women and men in equal numbers is captured through the ratio of the female literacy rate to the male literacy rate.</td>
<td>Ratio: female net primary enrolment rate over male value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ratio: female net secondary enrolment rate over male value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ratio: female gross tertiary enrolment ratio over male value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Health and Survival:</strong></td>
<td>Sex ratio at birth (converted to female-over-male ratio)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This sub-index provides an overview of the differences between women’s and men’s health through the use of two indicators as indicated on the right.</td>
<td>Ratio: female healthy life expectancy over male value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Political Empowerment:</strong></td>
<td>Ratio: females with seats in parliament over male value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This measures the gap between men and women at the highest level of political decision-making through the ratio of women to men in minister-level positions and the ratio of women to men in parliamentary positions. In addition, it measures the ratio of women to men in terms of years in executive office (prime minister or president) for the last 50 years</td>
<td>Ratio: females at ministerial level over male value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ratio: number of years of a female head of state (last 50 years) over male value</td>
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*Adapted from World Economic Forum (2015), p.4-5.*
Based on analysis of country data across the above parameters, the Global Gender Gap Report 2015, (WEF, 2015) indicates that at an aggregate level, the gender gap in education attainment and health and survival are comparatively smaller than the gaps in economic participation and political participation as illustrated in figure 2.1. The report estimates that 95% of the global gender gap in educational attainment, and 96% of the gap in health outcomes between men and women have been closed. However, the gap between women and men in economic participation and political empowerment remains wide, “only 59% of the economic outcomes gap and 23% of the political outcomes gap have been closed.” (WEF, 2015, p.7). These statistics indicate that on average, 69.75% of the global gender gap has been closed, and this requires global effort to close the global gender gap, which is estimated at 30.25%.

**Figure 2.1: The Global Gender Gap in 2015**

In 2015, 25 countries fully closed the gap on the Educational Attainment sub-index, the same number as in 2014 and 2013. Of these, only four countries (Botswana, Namibia, Lesotho and Swaziland) are in Sub Saharan Africa. In total, there are 21 countries where women still have less than 90% of the...
education outcomes than men have. Thirty-five countries are below world average on this sub-index. Half of these are in Sub Saharan Africa alone (Tanzania, Zambia, Mozambique, Cameroon, Burkina Faso, Mauritania, Burundi, Senegal, Liberia, Nigeria, Cote d’Ivoire, Mali, Ethiopia, Angola, Guinea, Benin and Chad) (WEF, 2015).

Forty countries (five more than in 2014) have fully closed their gender gap on the Health and Survival sub-index. Of these, only seven (Angola, Lesotho, Mauritius, Namibia, South Africa, Uganda and Zimbabwe) are in Sub Saharan Africa. Globally, no country currently has a gap bigger than 90% on the health and survival sub-index. Only nine countries are below world average on this sub-index, eight of these are in Asia, and only Mali in Africa (WEF, 2015).

No country in the world has fully closed the gender gap, but four out of the five Nordic countries (Iceland, Norway, Finland and Sweden ranking highest), followed by Ireland have closed more than 80% of the gender gap. Rwanda, the highest ranking country in Africa (in position 6 out of 145 countries) has closed 79% of the gender gap, Chad the lowest ranking in Africa has closed 58%, while Yemen, the lowest ranking country in the world has closed about 48% of the gender gap.” (WEF, 2015, p.7).

2.3 Uganda’s gender gap

In position 58 out of 145 countries, Uganda has closed only 70% of its gender gap. Uganda’s scores are undermined by poor performance on the political empowerment and economic opportunity sub-indices. (WEF, 2015). The nature of Uganda’s gender gap will be analysed further in chapter four. This section will nonetheless look at trends in Uganda’s gender gap since 2006, when the Global Gender Gap report was first published.

Since 2006, Uganda has only managed to bridge 2.8% more of its gender gap. The country had bridged 68% of the gender gap in 2006, and 70.8% in 2015. As indicated in figure 2.2, progress has been fluctuating and slow.
2.4 Factors for success or failure in bridging the gender gap: Lessons from successful and unsuccessful countries

2.4.1 How have successful countries managed to bridge the gender gap?

This section will consider the Nordic countries (Iceland, Norway, Finland and Sweden), which occupy the top four positions in the Global Gender Gap Report 2015 (Figure 2.3). Rwanda, which occupies position six and is the top in Sub Saharan Africa will also be included. This section will examine the literature for common traits which these countries share, and to which their success in bridging the gender gap could be attributed.

Figure 2.3: Highest ranking countries in the 2015 Global Gender Gap Index

Source: WEF, 2015 p. 349
Reasons for success in the Nordic Countries

The Nordic countries have consistently scored highest in GGGI rankings. Notwithstanding the possibility of other contributing factors, underlying this success are: i) strong regional collaboration through the Nordic Co-operation on Gender Equality; ii) time-bound gender programmes (Oeva, 1994); iii) strong policy oversight by the Nordic Council of Ministers for gender equality; (Nordic Council of Ministers, 2015) and iv) individual country policies that promote gender equality (SADEV, 2012).

Firstly, the Nordic countries’ success can be attributed to strong regional integration and collaboration through the Nordic Cooperation on gender equality (Nordic Council of Ministers, 2015). The Nordic cooperation involves Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden, as well as the autonomous territories of the Faroe Islands, Greenland and Aland, and was formalised with the establishment of the Nordic Council in 1952 (Nordic Cooperation 2011). The Nordic Co-operation on Gender Equality however started in 1974 when the Nordic Council of Ministers decided that each member government must assign an individual to coordinate with other governments on gender issues. In 1975, this Nordic contact group for gender equality was set up. In subsequent years, the contact group and the Council of Ministers prioritised a range of gender equality issues in spheres such as family and work; social planning and housing; labour markets; women in Nordic politics; equal pay; and women in economic development among others. (Nordic Council of Ministers, 2015)

Secondly, in 1982, the first Nordic Programme on Gender Equality was designed, and since then, four-year programmes have been designed prioritising various spheres of gender equality (Nordic Council of Ministers (2015). For purposes of this paper, the key priorities of the past three Nordic Programmes on Gender Equality, since 2006 will be highlighted.

The 2006 - 2010 Nordic Programme on Gender Equality entitled, “Focus on Gender: Working toward an Equal Society” prioritised two key themes,
namely, gender and power, and gender and youth (Nordic Council for Ministers, 2008). In the period 2011 – 2014, the Nordic gender equality cooperation had four priority themes; namely: “i) equality on the labour market; ii) equality in education; iii) gender, ethnicity and equality; and iv) zero tolerance for gender-related violence.” (Nordic Council for Ministers, 2011, p.13). Within each of these priorities, integration of a gender and equality perspective, and active participation by men/boys were embedded. The intention of the former was to avoid people getting differential treatment due to gender, while the latter was to strengthen gender mainstreaming as a strategic tool for improving work on gender equality. (Nordic Council of Ministers, 2011).

The goal of the Nordic Co-operation Programme on Gender Equality in the period 2015 – 2018 is “to contribute to effective work in the Nordic countries and to increase awareness about gender equality among the people of the region, parliamentarians, governments and the Nordic Council of Ministers’ own organs and projects.” (Nordic Council, 2015, p.5). The key priorities during this period are, the public sphere, welfare and innovation. Gender mainstreaming is part of the strategy to implement the programme whose specific objectives are: “1) To contribute to more efficient and richer national work on gender equality in the Nordic countries; 2) To support the Nordic countries in fulfilling their international obligations on gender equality and to create synergies across the Nordic Region; 3) To contribute to increasing knowledge of gender equality and Nordic co-operation among the people, parliamentarians and governments of the Nordic Region; and 4) To support all sectors within the Nordic Council of Ministers in the work to promote gender equality.” (Nordic Council, 2015, p.7).

Thirdly, political and policy oversight for cooperation on gender equality in the bloc, led by the Council of Ministers for Gender Equality could have contributed to the countries’ success story (Nordic Council, 2011). The Nordic Council of Ministers on gender equality leads Nordic inter-governmental cooperation on gender equality. The ministers meet annually and make joint decisions “in areas where working together can achieve more than the
individual countries on their own – this is known as Nordic synergy.” (Nordic Council, 2015 p.1). Below the Council of Ministers is the Committee of Senior Officials for Gender Equality, with representatives from all the Nordic countries. It meets three times a year to undertake practical work. It is assisted by the Nordic Council of Ministers’ Secretariat, which undertakes the daily operations of the Nordic inter-governmental co-operation, and implements the decisions taken by the Council of Ministers (Nordic Council, 2015).

Fourthly, although the Nordic countries are bound by a common framework and programmes for gender equality, some of the countries pay more attention to some specific gender issues (SADEV, 2012). For example, Norway and Finland pay more attention to gender and climate change, linked to ownership and control of land and therefore improving livelihoods. Security of women and girls, and their protection from all forms of violence is underlined by Norway and Sweden. (SADEV, 2012). Iceland particularly, has highly educated women, and the level of employment is almost equal to that of men. In 2013, Iceland introduced gender quotas for companies, and at least one in three board members in major companies are women. Iceland also has equal parental leave policies (Preisler, 2014).

In conclusion, most of the gender equality issues which the Nordic countries have prioritised for decades are part of the Global Gender Gap Index and other gender indices. These include: gender mainstreaming; women’s economic empowerment; sexual and reproductive health rights; equal access to education; political leadership; and women, peace and security (SADEV, 2012). While the GGGI begun in 2006 (WEF, 2006), the Nordic countries have been strengthening their gender equality performance for decades. It is therefore no surprise that they continue to top the GGGI scores.

**Reasons for Rwanda’s success**

“Rwanda is included in the Global Gender Gap Index for the second year and gained one place in 2015. Its high ranking can be explained by Rwanda’s strong performance on the Political Empowerment sub-index (7th) and good
performance on the Economic Participation and Opportunity sub-index (14th). However, this performance is slightly offset by lower scores and wider gender gaps in health and survival, and educational attainment in comparison to other countries. Rwanda has closed its gender gap in the labour force participation, enrolment in primary education, sex ratio at birth and women in parliament indicators. It is also the best-performing country overall on the perceived wage equality for similar work indicator.” (WEF, 2015, p.28).

Rwanda’s success is driven among other factors by: i) a shift in gender roles in the aftermath of the 1994 genocide (Wallace et al, 2008); ii) high levels of political participation by women, through parliamentary quotas (Powley, 2007); iii) progressive policies (Burnet, 2014), and iv) strong political will (Debususscher, et al, 2013), coupled with campaigns by women’s organisations for transformational change (Wallace et al, 2008).

Firstly, some scholars have attributed Rwanda’s exceptional ranking in the Global Gender Gap Index to significant changes in gender roles and attitudes following the 1994 genocide (Wallace et al, 2008). Traditionally, women in Rwanda like many African societies were not supposed to own or inherit property; and manage business activities (Burnet, 2014). The genocide shifted some of these norms, and women were required to cope and manage traditionally male-dominated domains (Debususscher, et al, 2013). With the death of husbands and fathers, women were left as the main survivors, comprising 70% of the population (Wallace et al, 2008). They inevitably became heads and economic providers of households, and major actors in politics (Debususscher et al, 2013). Some scholars posit that, the genocide may have helped destroy Rwandese’ confidence in traditional society, and paved the way for transformational change in gender equality (Burnet, 2008). Despite this generalisation however, other scholars (Carlson, et al, 2013) argue that entrenched patriarchal norms in Rwanda continue to oppress women, particularly the rural women to date.

Secondly, following the genocide, constitutional reforms introduced gender equality initiatives such as a 30% quota for women in all decision-making
organs (Powley, 2007). A Ministry of Gender was established, and inheritance laws were introduced to increase women’s ownership of land and business opportunities (Wallace, 2008). Despite the high quotas however, Rwanda scores low on the political participation sub index, and has only covered 45% of its gender gap according to the 2015 political participation sub index (WEF, 2015)- it nevertheless ranks high in relative terms to other countries where political participation of women is much lower.

Other scholars (Burnet, 2014) argue that on the contrary, beyond having a symbolic value, high political presence of women in parliament has not resulted into transformative gains for the vast majority of poor women in Rwanda. According to Debususscher et al (2013, p.1112), ‘transformative potential’ refers to the policies’ capacity to address the deeply ingrained societal norms and practices within which gender inequalities are embedded. The approach focuses on gender without dislodging women as the central subject; it recognizes that improving women’s status requires an analysis of social and power relations between women and men, as well as the commitment and cooperation of men.” While political quotas give voice to women, they do not necessarily transform societal norms that perpetuate gender inequality. This therefore raises the question, “what else could have contributed to Rwanda’s success in bridging the gender gap?”

Thirdly, Rwanda’s progressive gender policies have played a major role in bridging its gender gap, particularly in economic participation, education outcomes and health and survival (Burnet, 2014). Rwanda’s National Gender Policy (2010) lays out the country’s framework for promoting gender equality, with a vision “set the Rwandan society free from all forms of gender based discrimination and see both men and women participate fully and enjoy equitably from the development processes.” (Republic of Rwanda, 2010, p.19). The policy lays out its objective as: “To promote gender equality and equity in Rwanda through a clearly defined process for mainstreaming gender needs and concerns across all sectors of development.” (Republic of Rwanda, 2010, p.19). This is to be achieved through approaches such as gender mainstreaming in sector policies, programmes, activities and budgets;
affirmative action to correct gender imbalances in sectors; institutional capacity development of the gender machinery to implement the gender policy; and involvement of men in promoting gender equality. (Republic of Rwanda, 2010). The policy identifies a range of thematic priorities, including economic empowerment for employment and growth; health and population; education and vocational training; justice; and employment of women in the private sector. Some of these core priorities align with the GGGI. The depth of implementation of the policies and their coverage (Longe, 1997) could be one of the factors pacing Rwanda at the top end of the index.

However, some scholars have questioned the transformative potential and sustainability of Rwanda’s gender equality policies. Debususscher, et al (2013, p.1130) for instance argue that “women are integrated into education and employment policies in order to match industrial requirements with relevant skills supply, but when gender equality objectives enter into competition with development and modernization goals, they are ignored. Such an approach to gender equality stands in opposition to a transformative paradigm which views gender equality as good in itself.”

Fourth is strong political will to promote gender equality (Debususscher, et al, 2013). Rwanda’s Gender Policy highlights the institutional arrangements for promotion of gender equality, and at the top of the hierarchy is the Office of the President of Rwanda, whose role is to “make gender and development issues a national priority; mobilise development partners to support government efforts to respond to gender issues; and ensure the effective integration of gender in policies and programmes of different ministries, private sector and civil society institutions.” (Republic of Rwanda, 2010, p.28). President Kagame’s strong support for gender equality won the African Gender Award in December 2007 (Wallace et al, 2008).

2.4.2 Why does the gender gap persist in some countries?

Yemen, Pakistan, Syria, Chad and Iran rank at the bottom five on the GGGI of 2015. Yemen, the lowest ranking country has only closed 48% of its gender
gap. The low scores are particularly noticeable in political participation, where
the country has closed less than 1% of the gender gap, and economic
participation where it has closed 22% of the gender gap.

Using the analysis of the Nordic Countries and Rwanda as a counter factual,
one can therefore argue that the gender gap in Yemen and other countries
that rank low in gender equality is broadly driven by: weak gender equality
policies; strong patriarchal social and religious norms; and lack of political
support for gender equality (World Bank, 2001).

According to the Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) report of Yemen,
Act and Criminal Code all contain provisions that discriminate against
women. In addition, the mix of statutory law, sharia, traditional tribal practices
and customary law leave women vulnerable to violence and discrimination.
Yemen’s overall poverty also contributes to the difficult situation of
women. Women have limited access to health care, economic opportunities
and education; early marriage remains prevalent. Just over 25% of Yemeni
women are economically active; the majority of women who do work are
employed in the agricultural sector.”

2.5 Linkages between the gender gap and poverty

“Endowing all men/boys’ and women/girls’ experience, knowledge,
competences and perspectives with equal value guarantees not only a
sustainable society, but also a better and more just society. Equality entails all
available human resources being brought into play, and this in turn increases
opportunities to generate economic growth and guarantees welfare.” (Nordic
Council, 2011, p.4).

The literature indicates that, “gender inequality is strongly associated with
gap costs sub-Saharan Africa $US95 billion a year. Figures 2.4 and 2.5
demonstrate the links between poverty and gender from a GDP and human
development perspective respectively.
Two patterns are visible from the graph above: i) majority of the lowest ranking countries on the GDI also have a low GDP per capita; ii) with the exception of Rwanda, all of the highest ranking countries also have a high GDP per capita. Rwanda demonstrates that a country does not have to be rich to achieve gender equality.

From an income poverty perspective, the World Bank indicates that countries’ GDP is affected by gender inequalities. The Gender and Growth Assessment for Uganda (World Bank, 2005) for instance highlighted that Uganda foregoes 2 percent of GDP growth annually because of restricted women’s participation in the economy.

The link between gender equality and poverty, from a human development perspective is also well illustrated in figure 2.5. For instance, “providing girls with an extra year of schooling increases their wages by 10-20% and women with more years of schooling have better maternal health, fewer and healthier children and greater economic opportunities” (DFID, 2011, p.2). Through socially constructed gender norms women’s capabilities and access to education, skills, economic opportunities and productive assets such as land
are undermined and this contributes to poverty (World Bank, 1997). In addition, the confinement of women to unpaid reproductive and productive work contributes to disproportionate income poverty and other manifestations of poverty by women (Moser, 1999). Gender therefore contributes to poverty at individual, household and country levels.

**Figure 2.5: The link between the Human Development Index and the Global Gender Gap Index 2015**

![Graph showing the link between the Human Development Index and the Global Gender Gap Index 2015.](source: WEF, 2015, p.38)

Therefore, “while correlation does not prove causality, it is consistent with the theory and mounting evidence that empowering women means a more efficient use of a nation’s human capital endowment and that reducing gender inequality enhances productivity and economic growth.” (WEF, 2015. P.336)

### 2.6 The contribution of Economic Development Documents in bridging the gender gap

Integrating gender in poverty reduction strategies is important because, “ignoring gender disparities comes at great cost to people's well-being and to countries' abilities to grow sustainably, to govern effectively and thus to reduce poverty” (World Bank, 2001, p.xi). Engendering PRSs is therefore paramount because “tackling the gender dimensions of poverty and implementing gender responsive interventions enhances the likelihood of success of poverty reduction strategy efforts. If PRSs are not engendered,
they implicitly reinforce unequal gender patterns that hinder development.” (Zuckerman et al 2003, p.4). Ideally, “poverty reduction strategies should be informed by the systematic collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated data and qualitative data on the gender dimensions of poverty” (UNWomen, undated, p.6).

A study analysing the integration of gender in PRSPs in 2002 indicated progress, albeit with a lot still to be done (Zuckerman et al, 2003). None of the PRSPs at the time engendered all sectors. The study also found that the PRSPs failed to include indicators for monitoring the gender commitments. It found that of 13 PRSPs published in 2002, “three almost mainstreamed gender, about eight spottily applied an outdated “women in development” approach, and another two almost neglected gender.” (Zuckerman et al, 2003, p.12). Most PRSPs pay attention to gender issues and analysis in the health and education sectors (UNWomen, undated), and not in other dimensions that have the potential to reduce the gender gap. Where there is a gender analysis of poverty, this is not matched with policy and budget allocations – there is policy evaporation (Whitehead, 2003).

Whitehead highlights the following as the main weaknesses of PRSPs: “limited use of sex-disaggregated data and use of old data; macro-economic policies are often assumed to be gender neutral; failure to consider gender equality as a cross-cutting issue – where they are discussed, women’s concerns are portrayed in isolation from larger sectoral concerns and unequal gender relations; omission of key priorities of women; poor integration of the qualitative dimensions of poverty into the overall analysis; and reinforcing women’s roles as mothers and carers rather than promoting the equal sharing of family and work responsibilities between women and men” (UNWomen, undated, p.6).

2.6.1 Reflecting on Rwanda’s Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy (EDPRS 2)

Rwanda’s current economic development document is embodied in the second “Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy (EDPRS 2),
2013 – 2018”. The EDPRS prioritises four thematic areas, which include: “i) economic transformation for middle income country status; ii) rural development and sustainable poverty reduction; iii) productivity and youth employment; and iv) accountable governance for improved service delivery and citizen participation” (IMF, 2013, p.12).

Recognising the weakness of its previous EDPRS 1 (2008 – 2012), the current EDPRS 2 highlights the need for more tools and guidance to sectors and districts to effectively mainstream gender and other cross cutting issues, and proposes the need for specific indicators to track progress on gender mainstreaming (IMF, 2013). The EDPRS 2 provides analysis and proposals that relate to strengthening some thematic areas of relevance to the GGGI.

Regarding political participation (WEF, 2006), the EDPRS 2 recognises Rwanda’s position as world leader in the proportion of women in Parliament (56.3%). It highlights the country’s conducive policy and legal framework for mainstreaming gender in socio-economic sectors at all levels. Key among these are the national gender policy, the Gender Based Violence (GBV) law, inheritance law, and land law. The EDPRS 2 then commits the government to consolidating the political achievements, embarking on strategies to increase effective participation of women in leadership and decision making especially in the private sector (IMF, 2013).

To promote economic participation and opportunity (WEF, 2006), the EDPRS 2 recognises that economic transformation is impossible to achieve without the foundational and cross cutting issues such as gender mainstreaming among others. The EDPRS 2 proposes to focus on “sector strategies that enable women and men to participate, access, control and benefit equally from growth processes in a way that recognises their different needs. This will enhance access to economic resources and opportunities in terms of jobs (especially off-farm), financial services, and property ownership, skills development and market information.” (IMF, 2013, p.86). It also proposes specific gender-friendly programmes such as Girinka which aims to economically empower poor families and improve household nutrition,
especially for children, by ensuring that poor households are given a dairy cow (Argent et al, 2014).

With regard to education attainment (WEF, 2006), the EDPRS 2 recognises the achievements in access to basic education, and the gender parity in Net Enrolment Ratios (NER). This was achieved through its award-winning “9 Year Basic Education” (9YBE) programme which facilitated access of all children to basic education. “The NER for girls (98%) remains higher than for boys (95%), and primary school completion rate has reached 72.7%” (IMF, 2013, p.80). The EDPRS 2 therefore proposes to maintain those gains, while focusing on improving the quality of primary education and learning outcomes. An improvement in basic education has benefits for both girls and boys, but has more multiplier benefits for girls (DFID, 2011).

In terms of gender equality in health and survival (WEF, 2006), the EDPRS does not necessarily provide a gender analysis or gender-specific programmes. However, improvement of maternal health and enhancing community health care are priorities which if analysed can contribute to bridging the country’s gender gap on the health and survival index.

Using a slightly different lens of analysis - Moser’s framework of gender analysis, some patterns can still be gleaned from Rwanda’s EDPRS 2. Moser’s framework is hinged on three concepts, namely: i) the ‘triple role’ for women; ii) the practical and strategic gender needs; and iii) the policy matrix. (March et al, 1999). The framework is explained in detail in section 3.4. Nonetheless, a review of Rwanda’s EDPRS 2 would be incomplete without this perspective.

Mindful of the productive roles of women, the EDPRS 2 makes reference to the country’s National Gender Policy (2010) which aims to significantly reduce the number of women involved in the care economy through training and facilitating access to credit. The EDRPS pledges that the government will “run a campaign to improve women’s position in the labour market and to change attitudes towards the kind of jobs that men and women can do.” (IMF, 2013,
To ease the reproductive roles of women, the EDPRS 2 highlights that the Government will continue interventions that place the family at the centre of development.

In terms of strategic gender needs, the EDPRS 2 prioritises the prevention of GBV, and ensure all Rwandans live a life free from all forms of violence and discrimination (IMF, 2013).

From a cross-cutting policy perspective, the EDPRS 2 proposes to mainstream gender in planning, budgeting and in all development programmes/projects at national and local levels. Sector strategies and district plans will focus on interventions that reduce poverty levels among men and women. Another programme specifically aimed at promoting gender equality is the Gender Responsive Budgeting Initiative. The EDPRS 2 also proposes to disaggregate thematic outcome indicators by gender.

2.7 Conclusion

The literature review has established the global context for gender equality, identifying what makes some countries successful, while others lag. The literature has established that successful bridging of the gender gap among other factors is driven by: progressive policies; political support; institutional capacity; specific time-bound flagship programmes targeted at bridging the gender gap; effective gender mainstreaming; and conducive social norms. Applying these benchmarks to the analysis of Uganda’s NDP II will therefore be feasible, because the literature has provided patterns for comparison.
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research aims and objectives

The literature review indicates that Uganda has put in place a number of policies and laws to promote gender equality, yet Uganda’s gender gap is still wide compared to other countries in the region. The paper therefore aims to analyse the contribution/potential of Uganda’s NDP II – which is Uganda’s main poverty-reduction framework for the period 2015 – 2020, in bridging the country’s gender gap.

The objectives of the research are:
1) To examine the nature of Uganda’s gender gap;
2) To analyse the policy proposals of the National Development Plan aimed at reducing gender inequality and closing the gender gap in Uganda;
3) To identify opportunities that could be harnessed to strengthen the National Development Plan’s potential to bridge the national gender gap.

3.2 Research Design

The research adopted a case study design, which is “a study of a single setting, a single location, problem, context or process, aimed at gaining an in-depth understanding of the context rather than specific variables, and in discovery rather than confirmation.” (Merraim, 1998, p.19). A case study design is used when, “a) the focus of the study is to answer “how” and “why” questions; b) actions have already been determined and the researcher cannot manipulate the behaviour of those involved in the study; c) the study covers contextual conditions relevant to the research topic; and d) the boundaries are not clear between the phenomenon and context.” (Yen, 2003, cited by Baxter et al, 2008 p.545).

Therefore a justification for why the case study design was selected is as follows: Firstly, the focus of this paper is to answer “how” and “why” questions - for instance why Uganda’s gender gap is wide; how the NDP proposes to bridge the gap, and how the NDP can be strengthened to effectively reduce gender inequality in Uganda. Secondly, policy actions have already been
determined in the NDP and the researcher cannot manipulate the behaviour of policy actors. Thirdly, the paper covers contextual conditions about gender and poverty in Uganda. Fourth, the boundaries are not clear between gender equality, the gender gap and the role of the EDD.

According Baxter et al (2008), one of the common mistakes researchers make in case study design is the attempt to answer a very broad question with too many objectives. Boundaries need to be set based on “time and place; time and activity; and by definition and context” (Baxter et al, 2008, p.546). For this paper therefore, Uganda’s NDP II (2015 - 2020) was selected as the focus of analysis. The rationale for this is presented in section 1.2. Although a number of sectoral policies exist to address gender inequality in Uganda, the National Development Plan provides the overarching framework to which all sectoral policies should align. Analysis of the NDP therefore enabled the researcher to investigate the opportunities for reducing gender inequality across a range of sectors.

3.3 Research methods

The study is based on secondary research, which “involves the use of existing data, collected for the purposes of a prior study, in order to pursue a research interest which is distinct from that of the original work; this may be a new research question or an alternative perspective on the original question (Vogel et al, cited in Heaton, 1998, p.1). The choice of secondary rather than primary research and data collection methods is informed by the nature of the research topic itself – a lot of primary research has already been done by various development practitioners to inform the design of the NDP II, and grey literature exists on its gender dimensions. The research topic also draws on analysis of Uganda’s gender gap, most of which information already exists in the Global Gender Gap Reports and in other web-based resources.

A literature review was undertaken of published and grey literature on the study topic to identify information and evidence on Uganda’s gender gap. Comparative analysis of the gender gaps of other countries that scored better than Uganda in the 2015 global gender gap index, notably Iceland (global
leader) and Rwanda (East African Region leader) was also done. Literature on
gender equality from books and peer reviewed journals was reviewed to inform the study findings and analysis. Notwithstanding the technical rationale for using the case study design, in practical terms, time and financial constraints also precluded the possibility of undertaking primary research for this paper. This however does not undermine the validity of the study, since secondary research is by no means inferior to primary research (Burns et al, 2000).

The study findings were analysed using the analytical frameworks described below.

3.4 Analytical framework – Moser’s framework and the gender
mainstreaming framework

Acknowledging the limitations of any single gender analysis framework (March et al, 1999), the paper draws on two frameworks of analysis – namely Moser’s framework of gender analysis, and the gender mainstreaming framework as elaborated below. The two frameworks were selected because they are relevant for the analysis of gender at a macro/policy level as reflected in figure 3.1.

Moser’s framework of analysis

Moser’s framework is hinged on three concepts, namely: i) the ‘triple role’ for women; ii) the practical and strategic gender needs; and iii) the policy matrix. (March et al, 1999). The triple roles of women include: reproductive roles (care and maintenance of the household and its members); productive roles (employment and self-employment), and community-managing roles (Moser, 1993). In analysing Uganda’s gender gap as it relates to economic opportunities (productive roles), the paper draws on the NDP’s strategies for closing the employment gaps.

A second concept introduced by Moser’s framework is that of “practical and strategic” gender needs. Practical gender needs are those which “if met would improve the lives of women (or men) without changing the existing gender
division of labour or challenging women’s subordinate position in society. Interventions which do this are typically concerned with inadequacies in living conditions such as water provision, health care, and employment.” (Moser, 1993, p.40). On the other hand, strategic gender needs “if met would transform the unequal power between men and women. These include: legal rights, domestic violence, equal wages, and women’s control over their bodies” (Moser, 1993, p.40). The third concept of policy emphasises the role of state policy in changing these unequal gender relations.

Notwithstanding the criticism that strategic and practical gender needs do not exist independent of each other (March, 1999), the framework provides a useful tool for analysis. This paper therefore adapts the concepts of practical and strategic gender needs where they align with the key variables of the Gender Gap Index, namely educational attainment, health and survival, economic participation and opportunity, and political empowerment as described in Table 2.1. The paper then analyses how the NDP II proposes to bridge the gender gap in these needs.

The gender mainstreaming framework of analysis

In addition to Moser’s framework, the paper uses the gender mainstreaming framework. “Mainstreaming a gender perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women’s as well as men’s concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally, and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality.” (UN 1997, cited in Moser, 2005, p12). Gender mainstreaming seeks to embed gender equality in public policy, processes, institutions and programmes (Daly, 2005).

According to May (1998), gender mainstreaming should take place at design, implementation and evaluation stages. The following elements are prerequisites for successful gender mainstreaming: “i) awareness of the
importance of gender issues in development outcomes (a conscious awareness that communities are not homogeneous); ii) commitment to address gender issues in the institution’s activities; iii) capacity for formulating gender-focused questions; iv) capacity for carrying out gender and social analysis; v) capacity for applying the findings of the gender analysis to the institution’s portfolio; vi) capacity for systematic monitoring and evaluation of gender-specific programme impact; and vii) systematic reporting of gender-relevant lessons learned, and subsequent programme adaptation” (Oever, 1994, p.6).

For the purpose of this essay however, the above elements will be collapsed into five core elements of analysis: a) evidence of gender analysis in the NDP II (this will take into account elements i, iii and iv above); b) existence of, and reference to gender policies within the NDP II (this will account for element ii); c) time bound strategies and programmes to implement gender equality in the NDP (accounting for element v); d) human and financial resources dedicated to gender mainstreaming (also accounting for element v); and finally e) effective monitoring and reporting mechanisms capable of reflecting how far the project is contributing to greater gender equality (accounting for elements vi and vii). These themes align to both the seven-element framework proposed by Oever (2009), and the fourteen-element framework proposed by Murison (2004).

The purpose of using the gender mainstreaming framework for analysis in this paper is therefore two-fold. On one hand, it will address some of the issues/limitations in the Moser framework, but most importantly, using the basic elements of gender mainstreaming, it will identify the extent to which gender is mainstreamed in the policy strategies proposed by the NDP II for bridging the gender gap in the indices measured by the GGGI.

The two frameworks will therefore provide the link between the Gender Gap Index on the one hand and the gender outcome aspirations of the NDP II on the other as elaborated in figure 3.1 below. The framework will be used to analyse the study findings in chapter 4.
3.5 Limitations of the study

In some cases, the study relied on grey literature, whose quality was not easy to assess. However, gender evidence from peer reviewed journals was used to triangulate the information from grey literature.

Secondly and related to the above, there was lack of current data in Uganda to support some of the arguments. In some instances, data cited by the NDP and other policy documents was as old as 2010, based on UBoS’ past national household surveys. In these circumstances, data from the Global Gender Gap (2015) report was used to strengthen the arguments. This is not to say that data in the Global Gender Gap report is 100% accurate. The WEF does acknowledge the limitations of some of its own data.

Thirdly, as is the case with many topics for secondary research, the internet had a lot of secondary data on gender equality, and selecting the most useful was quite challenging and time consuming. However, the study was kept focused by the analytical framework in figure 3.1 to ensure that time was not wasted on literature that was not of direct relevance.
CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

The chapter will provide a description of the nature of Uganda’s gender gap, drawing on the Global Gender Gap report 2015 (WEF, 2015) and on the literature review section. Evidence from the NDP II, sector reports, and other publications will also be used. The analytical framework presented in section 3.4 will then be used to examine how Uganda’s NDP II proposes to close the national gender gap. Based on the findings, gaps in policy and programmatic approaches will be identified. Finally, these will be analysed as potential opportunities to reduce Uganda’s gender gap.

4.2 The nature of Uganda’s gender gap

4.2.1 An overview of Uganda’s gender gap

As already highlighted, Uganda has bridged 70% of its national gender gap (WEF, 2015). Uganda’s gender gap is at about 30% as illustrated in figure 4.1, and examined in subsequent paragraphs.

Figure 4.1: Uganda’s gender gap in 2015

![Graph showing gender gap in various sectors]

Source: WEF, 2015, p.348

The size of Uganda’s prevailing gender gap is just a few decimal points smaller than the global gender gap average of 30.5%. Figure 4.2 provides a snap-shot of Uganda’s scores, which are further examined subsequently.
4.2.2 Uganda’s gender gap in respective GGGI sub-indices

The gender gap in economic participation and opportunity

Uganda is in 84th position on the economic participation sub-index (2015), having bridged 65% of its national gender gap. Uganda’s scores in the indicators of the sub-index are reflected in figure 4.2 and explained below.

Firstly, Uganda has bridged 96% of its labour force participation gap, and has a gender gap of 4% (WEF, 2015). According to the Uganda Bureau of
statistics (UBoS, 2010, p.x), “the Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR) is
the number of persons in the labour force, expressed as a percentage of the
working-age population. It measures the extent to which a country’s working
age population (14-64 years) is economically active. The labour force does
not include persons engaged in non-economic activities including domestic
chores such as cooking at home or caring for own children, as those activities
do not contribute to measured national income.” The available statistics from
UBoS and International Labour Organisation (ILO) on labour force
participation are quite outdated, but indicate that Uganda’s LFPR was 79% in
2010 (UBoS, 2011). According to WEF (2015), 80% of men participate in the
labour force, compared to 77% of women. The lower participation of women
could be because they are disproportionately represented in reproductive
gender roles (Byron et al, 1989), which are neither accounted for in UBoS’
definition of LFPR, nor in GDP.

Secondly, in terms of wage equality for similar work, Uganda has achieved
77% gender equality, and still has a gender gap of 23% (WEF, 2015). This
demonstrates that women are underpaid for similar work, compared to men.
This is consistent with literature that indicates that globally, women tend to be
paid less than their male counterparts (WEF, 2015). Uganda’s gender gap in
wage equality is additionally constrained by limited wage opportunities – “80%
of the labour force works primarily for themselves or their families, mainly in
the agricultural sector”. (MoFPED, 2014, p.37).

Thirdly, regarding estimated earned income, the country has achieved 40%
equality and still has an outstanding gender gap of 60% (WEF, 2015). The
same data indicates that men earn twice as much as their female
counterparts annually. The average earned annual income for women in
Uganda is 982 USD, while that of men is USD 2,448 (WEF, 2015). This could
be driven by factors like over-representation of women in unpaid work (Byron
et al, 1989), limited skills required by the labour market (Republic of Uganda,
2015), and social preference for male employees (OECD, 2015).
From a productive gender roles’ perspective, “a study on gender time use done by Action Aid (2014) among rural and urban communities in Uganda indicated that women typically spent less hours (1.5 hours on average) a day on paid GDP work compared with men who spent 7.5 hours. Women spend over three hours daily on housework compared to less than one hour spent by men. This underpins the observation by ILO (2009 p.1) that women are still overrepresented among unpaid workers around the world.” (Among, 2015, p.5). Unpaid work subjects women, to lower income compared to men.

Finally, Uganda has achieved 34% equality in proportion of female over male legislators, senior officials and managers, and still has an outstanding gender gap of 64% (WEF, 2015). As reflected in figure 4.2, there are three times more men in legislative, senior and managerial jobs (75%), than women (25%) (WEF, 2015). This matches similar statistics by UNDP (2014), which indicated that women in Uganda occupy only 20% of senior managerial jobs. Women are also underrepresented in legislative positions, as will be explained in the political participation sub-index.

**The gender gap in educational attainment**

In 117th position on the education sub index, having achieved 93% equality in education attainment, Uganda still has a gender gap of 7%. (WEF, 2015). Firstly, Uganda has closed 84% of the literacy rate gap, and has an outstanding gender gap of 16% (WEF, 2015). This mirrors the analysis done by the NDP II that, “…6.9 million Ugandans (5.5 million women and 1.4 million men) aged 15 years and above are non-literate.” (Republic of Uganda, 2015, p.66). The gender imbalance in literacy could be explained by the fact that for long, traditional norms prioritised boy’s education (OECDb, 2015) over girls’. Although gender parity in primary education has improved in recent years (WEF, 2015), there is a cohort of adult women that are illiterate due to socio-cultural disadvantage in yesteryears.

Secondly, in terms of primary school enrolment, Uganda has achieved 93% gender parity, and still has an outstanding gap of 7%. Primary school
enrolment for girls is at 93% for girls, and 90% for boys (WEF, 2015). Uganda’s policy on free Universal Primary Education (UPE) since 1997 has been commended for increasing enrolment (Republic of Uganda, 2015), and subsequently, reducing the gender gap in primary school enrolment. Most parents are no longer faced with prioritising limited financial resources between girls’ or boys’ education (OECDb, 2015). However, enrolment statistics mask issues such as retention, completion, and the quality of learning outcomes, (Republic of Uganda, 2015) for girls and boys.

Thirdly, the country has achieved 95% gender parity in secondary school enrolment, and has an outstanding gap of 5%. Secondary school enrolment is 22% for girls, and 22% for boys. (WEF, 2015).

Finally, enrolment in tertiary education is the weakest score on the sub-index, with a gender gap of 22%. “At university level, there has been an increase in girls’ enrolment partly due to the affirmative action scheme of 1.5 additional points to enable girls enrol in public universities. This enrolment reached its peak in 2004 when female enrolment was as high as 48%” (UNICEF, 2014 p.1). The lack of affirmative action in other tertiary institutions could be a contributing factor in the overall size of the gender gap at this level.

The gender gap in health and survival

Uganda is in 1st position along with a number of other countries, having bridged 98% of its health and survival gender gap (WEF, 2015). This refers to “the number of boys born alive per 100 girls born alive.” (WEF, 2015, p.73). Although there is evidence of son-preference in Uganda (OECD, 2015b), this does not directly affect the survival of girls. There is no evidence to suggest a higher rate of abortion of female babies over males, as is the case in some countries (Frost et al, 2013).

Uganda has surpassed the gender equality indicator of healthy life expectancy, and women have a higher life expectancy than men. This indicator represents the “average number of years that a person can expect to
live in full health by taking into account years lived in less than full health due to disease and/or injury.” (WEF, 2015, p.73). Although the evidence on Uganda’s life expectancy varies by source, WEF indicates 52 years for women, and 49 for men (WEF, 2015).

The health indicators used by the GGGI are an attempt to keep the indicators neutral/not women-centric to avoid the pitfall of other gender equality indices (Permanyer, 2013, p.1). However, gender parity in life expectancy should not mean that no further gender-equality action is required in Uganda. From a practical-gender-needs perspective, a number of health issues continue to affect women’s reproductive roles. For instance, maternal mortality and HIV prevalence are still high (Republic of Uganda, 2015).

The gender gap in political empowerment

Uganda ranks 36th on the political participation sub-index, having bridged 27% of its gender gap, which leaves a gender gap of 73% (WEF, 2015). Uganda has bridged 54% of its gap on the women in parliament indicator, with 35% women, compared to 65% men in the 2015 parliament (WEF, 2015). Regarding women in ministerial positions, the gender gap stands at 58%. Only 30% of women occupy ministerial jobs, compared to 70% of men (WEF, 2015). Finally, Uganda has never had a female head of state, and has a gender gap of 100% on this indicator.

Other (strategic) gender needs

“GBV remains a critical human right, public health and economic concern, with 56% of women having experienced physical violence by the age of 15 years, and 28% women aged 15-49 having ever experienced sexual violence compared to 9% of men in the same age group.” (Republic of Uganda, 2015, p.69). While the NDP proposes actions to address GBV, other strategic gender needs e.g. equal wages and legal rights are not given much attention. These issues are not discussed further in this paper because they do not typically constitute the GGGI themes.
4.3 How Uganda’s National Development Plan proposes to bridge the national gender gap

This section therefore examines the NDP II to determine the policies and interventions in place, and their potential to bridge the gender gaps highlighted in section 4.2. This section first applies the analytical framework proposed in section 3.1 to establish the facts in the NDP II. A summary of the findings is tabulated in table 4.1 which has been developed to merge all the key components of the analytical framework. Subsequently, patterns emerging from the NDP II are analysed to draw conclusions on how the NDP II promises to bridge Uganda’s gender gap. Although there are other themes (justice, water, climate-resilience, etc.) of relevance to gender equality, this section strictly analyses the four themes constituting the GGGI.

4.3.1 Gender mainstreaming in NDP II, mapped against the analytical framework

Table 4.1: Gender mainstreaming in the NDP, mapped against the GGGI and Moser’s Framework

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender Mainstreaming in NDP II</th>
<th>Practical Gender Needs &amp; Global Gender Gap Index themes in NDP II</th>
<th>Strategic Gender Needs &amp; GGGI in NDP II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Economic Participation (Productive gender roles)</td>
<td>Health &amp; Survival</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) Does a gender policy exist?</td>
<td>Partially</td>
<td>Partially</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Has gender analysis been done? Is there quantitative disaggregation of data, and qualitative analysis of correlations?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Are time bound gender strategies/programmes proposed to implement the policies?</td>
<td>Partially</td>
<td>Partially</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Are there measurable gender equality milestones?</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) Are financial resources to implement gender equality allocated?</td>
<td>Partially</td>
<td>Partially</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6) Does a gender mainstreaming unit/expertise exist to deliver programmes?</td>
<td>Partially</td>
<td>Partially</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3.2 Analysis of the patterns

This sub-section follows the structure of questions posed in table 4.1. However, gender policy; expertise; and financing are discussed separately because they cut across all GGGI/NDP II themes.

Existence and cross-reference to the national gender policy in NDP II

Existence of a gender policy in the NDP framework is scored as partial because the only time the NDP II highlights the National Gender Policy is in reference to it as one of the significant achievements over the past decade (Republic of Uganda, 2015). Linkages are not drawn between it and sectoral priorities in the NDP, for reducing gender inequality. This is a let-down because the policy itself assumes the PRSP (NDP) as a key entry point for implementation (Republic of Uganda, 2007).

Notwithstanding its limited integration into the NDP II, the goal of the National Gender Policy (2007 – 2017) is to “achieve gender equality and women's empowerment as an integral part of Uganda’s socio-economic development. Its objectives are: 1) To reduce gender inequalities so that all women and men, girls and boys, are able to move out of poverty and to achieve improved and sustainable livelihoods; 2) To increase knowledge and understanding of human rights among women and men so that they can identify violations, seek redress and enjoy their rights; 3) To strengthen women's presence and capacities in decision-making for their meaningful participation in administrative and political processes; and 4) To address gender inequalities and ensure gender analysis in macro-economic policy formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.” (Republic of Uganda, 2007, p.14-15).

The Gender Policy identifies the following indicators by which success will be measured, “i) Proportion of the population below the poverty line by sex of household head; ii) Proportion of women in decision-making by sector and level; iii) Proportion of the population accessing justice by sex; iv) Percentage
of the population accessing public services by sex, sector and location; v) Maternal Mortality Ratio; vi) Proportion of girls completing formal education by level; viii) Incidence of gender based violence by region/location; ix) Proportion of the population with registered land by sex and location; and x) Proportion of the population accessing/utilizing credit schemes by sex and industry.” (Republic of Uganda, 2007, p.29).

Both the NDP II and the gender policy underline the cross cutting nature of gender (Republic of Uganda, 2007; and 2015). The gender policy notes that “different sectors have the responsibility to finance the gender mainstreaming interventions pertinent to their respective sector” (Republic of Uganda, 2007, p.22). Gender mainstreaming in the NDP sectoral priorities would therefore be in accordance with the requirements of the Gender Policy.

**Gender mainstreaming and proposals for gender equality in economic participation and opportunity in NDP II**

Has gender analysis been done? Is there quantitative disaggregation of data, and qualitative analysis of correlations? In its situation analysis, the NDP highlights that, “women continue to face constraints related to access to, control over and ownership of businesses and productive resources such as land and credit. There is limited employment of women in skill-based industries and this constrains women's income potential. Women are also marginalized in skills development, access to financial resources, employment in non-agriculture sectors and inheritance rights. Only 27% of registered land is owned by women. Although 70% women are engaged in agriculture, less than 20% control outputs from their efforts. Women comprise the majority of labour force in the agricultural sector, while men form the majority of the labour force in the industry and service sectors. In wage employment, 50% of employed women work in three of the lowest paying sectors compared to 33% of men.” (Republic of Uganda, p.69).

Among other constraints, the NDP highlights that “slow technological innovations and adoption, particularly amongst women farmers despite being the majority labour force constrains agricultural productivity” (Republic of
Uganda, p49). Tourism is also mentioned as a major foreign exchange earner, and directly employing 6.6% of the total labour force, but this is not disaggregated by gender.

Therefore, it is sufficient to argue that the NDP provides a gender analysis of the economic participation and opportunity sub-index. It uses gender disaggregated data, and qualitative correlations to describe gender inequality.

Are time bound gender strategies/programmes proposed to implement the policies? There are two programmes mentioned in the NDP to address gender economic inequalities - The Uganda Women Entrepreneurship Programme (UWEP), aims to “increase the percentage of women accessing economic empowerment initiatives from 12% in 2009/10 to 30% by 2019/20” (Republic of Uganda, 2015, p.225). Another proposed project is to “set up a specific fund to support women in tourism sector to grow out of the informal to formal status with clear e-market linkages” (Republic of Uganda, 2015, p.145).

However, the NDP does not propose specific strategies to address underlying issues such as women’s access to credit; reduction and redistribution of women’s care work; and increasing women’s participation in managerial and professional jobs. All these issues, as evidenced in the literature review (UNWomen, undated) are crucial for the economic empowerment of women, so as to bridge the gender gap.

Are there measurable gender equality milestones? The NDP sets some indicators and targets relevant to gender equality in economic participation. These include:

- “Increase agricultural exports from USD 1.3 billion in FY2013/14 to USD 4 billion in FY2019/20, and reduce the number of the labour force in subsistence production from 6 million in 2012/13, majority of who are women to 3 million in 2019/20.” (Republic of Uganda, 2015, p.141). This is to be achieved among other strategies, by, “enhancing access to fertilisers
by both women and men; and promoting time and labour saving
technologies targeting women farmers” (Republic of Uganda, 2015, p.141).

- “Reduce the percentage of people living on less than USD 1 a day from
  19.7% in 2012/13 to 14.2% by 2019/20;
- Increase the percentage share of the national labour force employed from
  75.4% in 2012/13 to 79% by 2019/20.” (Republic of Uganda, 2015, p.95).

Most of the indicators are not disaggregated by sex. The National Gender
Policy’s recommended indicators of success, (highlighted in the
preceding/gender policy subsection) are also not included in the NDP II.
Progress in the contribution of the NDP in bridging the gender gap in these
areas will therefore be difficult to track.

Gender mainstreaming and proposals for gender equality in education
attainment in NDP II

Has gender analysis been done? Is there quantitative disaggregation of data,
and qualitative analysis of correlations? The NDP celebrates gender parity in
primary school enrolment, but notes that about “6.9 million Ugandans (5.5
million women & 1.4 million men) aged 15 years and above are non-literate.”
(Republic of Uganda, p.66). The NDP also highlights the low completion rate
at primary, and high dropout rate between levels especially among girls.
Although the transition rate to secondary school by girls has improved, there
is still a wide gender gap in transition rates (Republic of Uganda, 2015).

Although the situation analysis presents disaggregated data, the NDP does
not particularly provide an analysis of the qualitative underlying drivers of the
gender gaps in the sector. Gender analysis is not done for priority actions
such as, school completion and improving learning outcomes (Republic of
Uganda, 2015).

Are time bound gender strategies/programmes proposed to implement the
policies? The specific projects proposed by the education sector towards
gender equality are: i) “design and implement a partnership framework to
address socio-cultural and other barriers to girls' and boys' attendance and retention in school; and ii) provide gender sensitive sanitation facilities that would address special needs of girls and boys.” (Republic of Uganda, 2015, p.185). The NDP neither elaborates nor provides targets for these interventions.

Are there measurable gender equality milestones? The NDP sets the following targets that are related to promoting gender equality:

• “By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes;

• Ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university;

• Increase primary completion rate from 70.3% in 2013/14 to 85% in 2019/20;

• Increase primary to secondary school transition rate from 73% in 2012/13 to 80% by 2019/20;

• Increase Net Secondary completion rates from 35.5% in 2012/13 to 50% by 2019/20;

• Increase adult literacy rates from the current 73% to 80% by 2020.” (Republic of Uganda, p.96).

It is evident that there is no systematic effort in the NDP to disaggregate the targets by gender.

Gender mainstreaming and proposals for gender equality in health and survival in NDP II

Has gender analysis been done? Is there quantitative disaggregation of data, and qualitative analysis of correlations? Some gender analysis of health has been done. The NDP indicates that “about 50% of women cite lack of money as a problem for accessing health care, while 41% cite distance to health facilities as a challenge. HIV/AIDS prevalence rates indicate higher vulnerability of women and girls arising from their limited control over decisions for safe sex. Among the age group of 15-19 years, the female
prevalence rate has increased from 2.6% in 2006 to 3% in 2011, while male prevalence rates in the same age group rose from 0.3% to 1.7%.“ (Republic of Uganda, 2015, p.69). The NDP also discusses Uganda’s high fertility rates, which are caused by early-marriage and child-bearing, and cultural and religious norms. High maternal mortality is also discussed (Republic of Uganda, 2015).

There is however no analysis of gender as it relates to men’s health, and yet global evidence indicates that gender norms affect men’s health-seeking behaviour as well (Geldas et al, 2005). This omission may perpetuate the gender gap in healthy life expectancy, where men’s life expectancy is lower than that of women (49 and 52 for men and women respectively) (Republic of Uganda, 2015).

Are time bound gender strategies/programmes proposed to implement the policies? The key priority projects of relevance to bridging the gender gap are:

- “Mass treatment of Malaria;
- National health insurance scheme;
- Reproductive Health project;
- Community-health-extension project” (Republic of Uganda, 2015, p.183).

Although the above projects may have the potential to prolong life expectancy for both men and women, they are presented as gender-neutral. It is therefore not straightforward to assume that these projects will effectively contribute to bridging the gender gap in health outcomes.

Are there measurable gender equality milestones? The NDP II targets to improve life expectancy at birth to an average of 60 years by 2019/20 (Republic of Uganda, 2015). This target is however not disaggregated by gender. Other milestones include:

- “Reduce the Total Fertility Rate from 6.2 in 2012 to 4.5 in 2020;
- Reduce infant mortality rate from 54 (in 2012) to 44/1000 (2020) live births;
Reduce maternal mortality rate from 438/100,000 in 2012 to 320/100,000 live births by 2019.” (Republic of Uganda, 2015, p.178)

Although these milestones may potentially improve women’s life expectancy, they fall short of addressing the lower life expectancy of men. This is a missed opportunity for bridging the gender gap in healthy life expectancy.

**Gender mainstreaming and proposals for gender equality in political participation in NDP II**

Has gender analysis been done? Is there quantitative disaggregation of data, and qualitative analysis of correlations? The NDP II is devoid of any analysis of the drivers of limited political participation by women. In its situation analysis, the NDP celebrates the “critical mass of women in parliament,” (Republic of Uganda, 2015, p.68) as one of the achievements to date. It also highlights that “women councils have been established from grassroots to national level to enhance women’s confidence and to provide women at all levels with opportunities to rise into leadership positions.” (Republic of Uganda, 2015, p.70).

Beyond this however, there is no analysis of gender inequality in political participation, and there is no mention of how the critical mass of women in parliament will be leveraged to yield better outcomes for the poor and rural women they represent. This is disappointing, since this sub index is the weakest in Uganda’s scores on the GGGI (WEF, 2015).

Are time bound gender strategies/programmes proposed to implement the policies? The NDP does not propose specific programmes for bridging the gender gap in political participation. That notwithstanding, Uganda’s constitution (Republic of Uganda, 1995, Article 33(5)), provides a quota system requiring that a third of parliament shall be constituted by women. Although the quota provides affirmative action for representation of women, sticking to “a third” is in itself a perpetuation of the gender gap. Gender parity (WEF, 2015) in this aspect will require measures to have 50-50 representation of women and men in parliament and other political spaces.
Are there measurable gender equality milestones? The NDP proposes to “ensure women’s full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic, and public life” (Republic of Uganda, 1995, p.92). However, this is not matched by measurable targets.

**Gender mainstreaming expertise for NDP II**

The MGLSD is the national gender machinery (Republic of Uganda, 2007) mandated to work with sectors to mainstream gender in sector plans and budgets. Within the NDP, the Ministry has proposed, “to mainstream gender and rights in policies, plans and programmes in sectors and local governments.” (Republic of Uganda, 2015, p.226). The NDP II requires Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) to take responsibility for gender mainstreaming. The role of the MGLSD is therefore to provide technical support to the sectors to undertake gender mainstreaming, as elaborated in the institutional arrangements in table 4.2. However, as previously noted, the National Gender Policy is not referenced in the NDP and there is no re-affirmation of how MDAs should work with the MGLSD for effective gender mainstreaming.
Table 4.2 Institutional arrangements for gender mainstreaming, as laid out in the National Gender Policy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Roles and responsibilities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Ministry of Gender, Labour & Social Development  | - Establish appropriate mechanisms for coordinating gender mainstreaming at the different levels;  
- Provide technical support on gender mainstreaming to sectors, institutions, local governments, civil society organisations and the private sector;  
- Set standards, develop gender guidelines, disseminate and monitor their operationalisation;  
- Provide support to Gender Focal Points, Sector Gender Working Groups and Local Governments with a view to improving their effectiveness;  
- Coordinate the monitoring and evaluation of the UGP and gender responsive development in the country.                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                      |
| Sector Ministries and Sector Working Groups      | - Translate the UGP into sector-specific strategies and activities;  
- Build capacity of staff in gender analysis, planning and budgeting;  
- Monitor and evaluate sector programmes for their impact on gender equality;  
- Commit adequate resources for implementation of gender related activities;  
- Disaggregate data and information by sex and gender where applicable;  
- Collaborate with MGLSD on matters of gender mainstreaming.                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                  |
promoting gender-related skills amongst professional colleagues” (Derbyshire, 2002, p.33).

**Financing for gender equality in NDP II**

Although the NDP II does not make much reference to financing for gender mainstreaming, it mentions that “gender and equity budgeting has been introduced as a requirement for sectors and local governments to make the budgeting process and government policies, programmes and projects responsive to gender” (Republic of Uganda, 2015, p.70).

The MoFPED has boosted “the government’s broad policy of mainstreaming gender in sectoral plans by issuing along with the budget-call-circular, guidelines for gender-responsive-budgeting.” (Among, 2014, p.4). To promote compliance, Uganda’s Public Finance Management (PFM) Act (2015) now requires every MDA to present a certificate of gender and equity compliance to parliament before its budget is approved. The Act proposes that, “the Minister of Finance shall present with the Budget-Framework-Paper, a certificate issued in consultation with the MGLSD certifying that; a) The Budget-Framework-Paper (including those of MDAs) is gender and equity responsive and; b) Specifying measures to equalise opportunities for men, women, persons with disabilities and other marginalised groups.” (Republic of Uganda, 2015b, Section 9(6)). Sector budgets are now required by law to integrate gender equality financing. Within the NDP however, it is only the Social Development Sector that mentions that it will prioritise “implementation of the gender and equity certificate” (Republic of Uganda, 2015 p.227).

4.4 Missed opportunities and forward look

Missed opportunities have been drawn from a comparison of what Uganda’s NDP proposes, and what successful countries have done, as well as what the literature says about effective gender mainstreaming.
Firstly, as indicated in the literature review, strong political will may have contributed to the success of Rwanda and the Nordic Countries. While in Rwanda, the Office of the President has the top most mandate for ensuring that gender and development are a national priority (Republic of Rwanda, 2010), the Nordic countries mirror the same political support through their council of ministers (Nordic Council, 2015). In Uganda however, gender and equity issues are entirely under the leadership of the MGLSD, which is grossly under-funded (Republic of Uganda, 2015) and not politically well-connected to compel others to promote gender equality.

Secondly, analysis of Uganda’s NDP II reveals a lack of gender-specific programmes. There are only two programmes targeted at bridging the gender gap in economic participation (UWEP, and the women’s tourism promotion fund). However, consistent success of the Nordic countries is partly attributed to time-bound/five-year gender programmes (Oever, 1994), focused on specific themes. The NDP does not propose specific programmes to target themes where gender gaps are widest.

Thirdly and related to the above, Uganda’s NDP lacks measurable milestones towards gender equality, contrary to the elements of effective gender mainstreaming (Oever, 1994). Important indicators such as poverty head counts, life expectancy, school completion among others, are not disaggregated by sex. In addition, milestones are generally not broken down by year. This creates a challenge of meaningfully tracking progress. The NDP II itself identifies as a weakness of NDP I, that “absence of clear indicators for monitoring and evaluation of gender-mainstreaming and limited availability of gender disaggregated data for effective programme design has made it difficult to assess impact attributable to gender mainstreaming.” (Republic of Uganda, p.69). Despite identifying this weakness, NDP II makes the same omission.

Fourth, while Uganda has a comprehensive gender policy (Republic of Uganda, p.2007), this is not effectively utilised in NDP II. This leads to policy evaporation (Longwe, 1997), where gender policies get overshadowed by
other priorities in the policy space. The NDP would have been an appropriate tool to translate the country’s gender policy into practice (Derbyshire, 2002).

Therefore, the following recommendations drawn from the elements of effective gender mainstreaming (Oever, 2015), vis-à-vis the gaps identified in NDP II, are proposed:

1) Strengthen the linkage between the NDP and the National Gender policy to inform effective gender mainstreaming and avoid policy evaporation.

2) Strengthen the use of gender statistics and qualitative analysis, so as to identify specific bottlenecks that perpetuate gender gaps in sectors.

3) Based on effective gender analysis, put in place gender-specific programmes with clear milestones to plug specific gender gaps. Lessons on how to do this could be drawn from the Nordic Countries.

4) Rethink political positioning and institutional arrangements of the mandate for gender equality. Leadership models in which gender equality is championed by the Office of the President (Rwanda), or high level ministers (e.g. in the Nordic Countries) should be considered.

5) Strengthen gender-equality financing through enforcing the gender and equity-compliance requirements of the PFM Act (Republic of Uganda, 2015b).
CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION

5.1 Strategic contribution of the study

As the main strategic document providing the framework for poverty reduction and economic development, the Economic Development Document is expected to play a key role in shaping the priorities for addressing gender inequality. Uganda’s EDD – the National Development Plan (II), is considered by the Government and development practitioners in the country to be the compass – directing development efforts from 2012 – 2020. Amidst other priorities, it is therefore expected to set out how the country will bridge its gender gap.

Making comparison with Rwanda’s current Economic Development Document - the second Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy (EDPRS 2, 2013 – 2018), it can be argued that the EDD does have a critical role to play in bridging the gender gap. Rwanda’s EDD highlights the need for tools for sectors to effectively mainstream gender, and proposes specific indicators to track progress. In addition to proposing strategies to plug the gender inequalities in the GGGI-relevant sectors, Rwanda’s EDD proposes to significantly reduce the number of women involved in the care economy and improve women’s position in the labour market. In this regard, Rwanda’s EDD aims to tackle some drivers of gender inequality, which perpetuate gaps in strategic gender needs, as well as gaps in the GGGI.

Reflecting on the analysis of Uganda’s NDP, some strategies similar to Rwanda’s are proposed. However, some shortfalls are evident. Notably, the National Gender Policy is at risk of policy evaporation; specific programmes are not proposed to address the prevailing gender gaps; and measurable gender milestones are not in place to progressively measure reductions in the gender gap. In addition, expertise for gender mainstreaming may not necessarily be guaranteed by the gender focal persons assigned in the various ministries, as most of them are not well trained and equipped to deliver the task. Opportunities for gender-equality financing exist within the
remit of the PFM Act (2015), but the success will depend in part on its enforcement and the capacity of MDAs to undertake effective gender and equity planning. The NDP II does not pay much attention to addressing underlying drivers of gender inequality, e.g. rights and patriarchal norms, which could transform unequal power between men and women.

It can therefore be predicted, that unless some measures are put in place at the sectoral level, Uganda’s scores on the Global Gender Gap Index will not improve substantially over the duration of this NDP (2015 – 2020).

5.2 Areas for further research

Finally, one issue that has not been examined in detail by this paper is the role of regional integration in strengthening member countries’ efforts to reduce the gender gap. Regional integration has been seen to have contributed to the success of the Nordic countries. The outstanding question in this context therefore is, “How can the East African Community cooperation be harnessed to integrate lessons from Rwanda and improve gender equality scores of other member countries?”
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