Ministry of Lands, Housing & Urban Development

Uganda State of Urban Sector Report 2021-2022

Foreword

It gives me great pleasure to present the State of Urban Report in Uganda. The Government of Uganda is committed to ensuring orderly, sustainable, and organized urban development as part of the national agenda. It has been observed over time that, urban areas in Uganda have positioned themselves as engines of growth and development due to increased opportunities. Most of these Urban Councils have tried to ensure orderly and progressive development, but they are still faced with serious challenges which must first be understood before strategies to address them can be put forward.

A lot has been done but much more remains to be done. The Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development (MoLH&UD) sought to undertake a study of 41 Urban Councils to determine the state of urban development. The MoLH&UD through Consultant M/s GIPEA AFRICA Limited initiated the process, which covered 11 Cities, 10 Municipalities, and 20 Town Councils through interviews and field visits. The report, therefore, provides an analysis of the challenges faced in executing their work, strategies to improve the situation, and best practices to be up-scaled elsewhere in the Urban Authorities of Uganda.

The Urban Authorities continue to face limited resources, inadequate and well-skilled human resources, lack of streamlined roles and responsibilities for officers, poor supervision of developments, high staff turnover, lack of clarity, and sometimes contradictions in existing laws. Therefore, there is an urgent need to implement the proposed interventions to check the sprawl and continued unguided developments in these councils. The report presents ambitious but attainable recommendations to address the existing challenges in the Urban Authorities of Uganda generally. With the concerted effort of everybody within and without the Urban Local Governments this report will act as an opener for purposes of improving the situation.

With cooperation and hard work and dedication, I have no doubt whatsoever that our Urban Authorities in Uganda will transform into orderly, attractive, sustainable, and economically vibrant modern Cities in the entire country.

Once again, I thank everybody who made this study possible. I call upon all the Urban Councils to take this study as a process geared toward identifying gaps and bridging them for better urban development in Uganda, and proceed to implement the recommendations where possible.

Obiga Kania (MP)

MINISTER OF STATE URBAN DEVELOPMENT,

MINISTRY OF LANDS, HOUSING AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT

Preface

It is my great pleasure and relief to see the end product of this study in Urban Local Governments of Uganda 2022. The recommendations in this report are products of careful consultation, interviews, field visits, and analyses done by a team of experts in urban development. The State of Urban Report for Uganda's Urban authorities gives sight to the existing situation and guides on how Urban Local Governments should adapt to new approaches to turn around the status quo.

The report is a response to the need for a better understanding of the challenges facing urban authorities in Uganda to deliberately shape policies that guide urban development in Uganda. The rapid urbanization taking place in Uganda necessitates the need for periodic assessment and regular guidance so that land which is a scarce resource can optimally be utilized. The quest for orderly development in the Urban Areas of Uganda, especially in the suburban areas, and access to services has become more obvious than ever before. The Report identified several developments, management, and governance challenges facing the urban areas today such as; limited resources both financial and human capital, laxity among the urban managers, unguided rapid urban explosion, and conflicting legislations among others. This Report, therefore, strives to provide practical interventions that will guide the management of urban areas at different levels to meet the development needs in the urban areas of Uganda.

It has been a rewarding experience working with the team and I take this opportunity to appreciate and thank all of them individually and collectively for their commitment to the process. I wish to also express my profound gratitude to the staff in the Department of Urban Development in the MoLH&UD who made this assessment process possible. I also thank all those others who made contributions to the successful outcome of this Report including the Urban Council Technical staff who participated in the study and guided the team during field visits to produce this Final Report.

I commend the recommendations contained in the Report to all the managers of Urban Councils and other relevant MDAs in particular and the citizens of Uganda in general.

Dorcas W. Okalany

Permanent Secretary

MINISTRY OF LANDS HOUSING AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT

Table of Contents

Acronyms and Abbreviations

ACODE	Advocates Coalition for Development and Environment
AfDB	Africa Development Bank
CAA	Civil Aviation Authority
CBD	Central Business District
DLB	District Land Board
DWD	Directorate of Water Development
DUCAR	District Urban Community Access Roads
EAC	East Africa Community
EDMP	Expressway Development Master Plan
EU	European Union
FGDs	Focus Group Discussion
GGGI	Global Green Growth Institute
GKMA	Greater Kampala Metropolitan Area
GoU	Government of Uganda
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HH	Household
IT	Information Technology
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
IDA	International Development Agency
IBRD	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development
IRAS	Integrated Revenue Administration System
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
KCCA	Kampala Capital City Authority
LED	Local Economic Development
LG	Local Government
LGFC	Local Government Financial Commission
LGMSD	Local Government Management and Service Delivery
LST	Local Service Tax
TLB	Transport Licensing Board
MDAs	Ministries, Departments, and Agencies
MGR	Meter Gauge Rail
MoLG	Ministry of Local Government
MoTWA	Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife, and Antiquities
MDF	Municipal Development Forum
MLHUD	Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development
NPPB	National Physical Planning Board
NDP	National Development Plan
NEC	Northern Economic Corridor
NMT	Non-Motorized Transport
NPA	National Planning Authority
NPDP	National Physical Development Plan
NUA	New Urban Agenda
NUP	National Urban Policy

NWSC	National Water and Sewerage Corporation
NITA-U	National Information Technology Authority - Uganda
NUA	New Urban Agenda
NSUS	National Slum Upgrading Strategy
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
O&M	Operation and Maintenance
OPM	Office of the Prime Minister
OSR	Own Source Revenue
PFM	Public Finance Management
PSM	Public Sector Management
PSV	Public Services Vehicle
PDP	Physical Development Plan
PPPs	Private Public Partnership
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SGR	Standard Gauge Rail
TLB	Transport Licensing Board
TPC	Technical Planning Committee
TSUPU	Transformation of Settlement of the Urban Poor in Uganda
UAAU	Urban Authorities Association of Uganda
ULC	Uganda Land Commission
ULG	Urban Local Government
UN	United Nations
URF	Uganda Road fund
USMID	Uganda Support to Municipal Infrastructure Development Program
UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UEDCL	Uganda Electricity Distribution Company Limited
UN	United Nations
UPF	Uganda Police Force
WB	World Bank
WSDFs	Water and Sanitation Development Facilities

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Maps

List of Plates

Executive Summary

Urban areas are the engines of economic growth & development functioning as employment, education, technology, knowledge transfer, and center markets. The primary challenge of urban development is uncontrolled rapid urbanization (70% of the world's population will be living in Cities by 2040). Uganda is also rapidly urbanizing at about 5.2% p.a with 11 Cities, 31 MC, and 583 TC. This study, therefore, was aimed at understanding the current state of urbanization in Uganda to inform Policy and other strategic government and private sector interventions.

The main goal was to produce through a participatory process the state of Urban Development sector report for Uganda 2020/2021 – 2021/2022. The scope of work was focused on the Development of the data collection tools (adapted from the UN-HABITAT), engagement of stakeholders sampled from 11 Cities, 10 Municipalities, and 10 Town Councils, and analysis of the urban status looking at different thematic areas, and preparation of the report.

The approach adopted was highly participatory and interactive to provide an opportunity for the relevant stakeholders in urban decision-making positions to share their views, experiences, and suggestions as a contribution to the state of the urban sector development in Uganda. The process involved a literature review, focus group discussions, and one on one interviews with key informants including technical officers of the selected urban local governments, MDAs, and members of MDF.
Views collected from the key informant interviews, and FGDs together with information obtained from the literature review were consolidated and informed the urban sector report. It should be noted that this sector is not well documented and therefore the information obtained was based on survey findings (some statistics and estimates from sampled ULG) and secondary materials. The report findings were based on key thematic areas i.e., urbanization trends, land tenure, spatial planning, housing, urban refugees & migration, safety & security, urban economy, infrastructure & utilities, social services, and institutional and governance among others.

Uganda had a population of 35 million with a high population growth rate of 3.2% (Census 2014) and it is considered one of the fastest-growing populations in Africa (Un-Habitat 2016 – 2021). The population living in urban areas increased from 12.3% in 2002 to 18.6% in 2014 which reflects an annual urban GR of 5.2% for 2014 while urbanization increased to 26.5% in 2021 with a GR of 8.8. The level of urbanization in Uganda is projected to increase to 50% by 2050 (UBOS 2014).

Government prioritizes sustainable development of the urban sector as the engine for the country's economic growth and to provide a high quality of life. The sector offers real economic opportunities and the target is to attain the Country's Vision 2040 of Middle-Income Status if urbanization was harnessed properly.

The trend of urbanization in Uganda was traced from the pre-colonial times where before 1890, societies in Uganda were organized around tribal kingdoms and it is from these that early urban centers in the country were initiated. The end of the 19th century – Colonial (1900 – 1962) was for settlement stabilization, fixation, and pseudo-planning by the British which defined Uganda's urban spatial and development pattern.

The Post-colonial era brought about a concentrated and polarized settlement pattern, with the major towns of Kampala and Jinja dominating. Medium-sized centers functioning as 'intermediary centers and regional headquarters continued to expand while small centers developed more as district administration centers.
The Military State (1970-1980) changed the Urban Composition with emphasis on self-reliance and 'Ugandanization' which created the 'magendo' economy. This period created the informal sector and the saw growth of urban informality.

Between 1986–2004 the Period known as laissez-faire and urban informality saw the adoption of more liberal economic policies in the pursuit of economic growth after two decades of political turmoil and economic collapse. In the face of central government resource constraints, the changes in internal boundaries and subsequent creation of new districts resulted in a gradual evolution of small rural service centers into government-recognized urban centers, without any semblance of urbanity but with virtually nothing to offer.

The Age of the urban renaissance (2005- to date) has seen the development of the Urban Policy to control & manage the Country's high urban growth, decentralization; political control of urban areas and the electorate, and planning and managing urban areas. Supportive policies included; National Land Policy, National Land Use Policy, Housing policy, National Environment Management Policy, LED policy, National Population Policy, PPP policy, Slum Upgrading Strategy, and the creation of a Ministry responsible for Urban Development while the Ministry of Local Government handles urban administration and supervision.

It is projected that the population of Uganda by 2019 stood at 42.9 million of which about 10.8 million people live in Uganda's urban areas. By 2035 Uganda's population is projected to be 68.4 million of which 30% will be in urban areas. The total urban population living within the 11 Cities by 2021 stood at 3.9 million of which Kampala accounts for 50%. Municipalities accommodated 4.1 million while Town Councils was 3 million.

The development trends for urban areas in Uganda revealed that by 2019, the urban built-up area coverage was 1,589.7km2 with a percentage increase between 2010 and 2019 at 70%. Although the population and land area in urban areas was growing, the population density trend was on a downward trend. This could be attributed to sprawling tendencies and annexing of rural areas in a bid to expand urban areas. This implies that the urban footprint is growing faster than the urban population. Further analysis of the viability of Uganda's urban local governments indicated that, apart from Kampala, all urban areas by category do not meet the Urban policy criteria. The expansion and upgrading of urban areas in Uganda do not follow any systematic criteria but rather selective applications which must be corrected.

The study also identified challenges faced by the urban sector which include inter alia; unplanned settlements with a high rate of sprawl, limited-service provision, unemployment especially amongst the youth, weak urban management capacity and significant fiscal constraints, Climate change impacts, inadequate housing, deteriorating urban environment and inadequate urban infrastructure and services.

Under land management, it was noted that in Uganda's urban areas, Customary tenure was the most dominant at all urban levels and in all regions save central. The urban study indicated that customary land tenure was the most dominant in Cities (37%), Municipalities (46%), and Town Councils (50%). The major challenge for land tenure in urban areas in Uganda today was that security of occupancy by the lawful and bona fide tenants creates a dual system of property ownership which results in conflicting interests and overlaps in rights on the same piece of land creating land use deadlock between the registered landowners and the tenants resulting into conflicts and, in many cases, evictions.

In terms of spatial planning, only 45% of urban councils had PDPs with Town Councils having the least at only 29%. This was attributed to the limited funding of this sector. Total area coverage under detailed physical plans in urban councils was only 10%. Cities and MCs had detailed physical plans prepared in the early sixties and no significant effort to review them.

The limited coverage of PDPs and DPDPs had resulted in substantial growth of unplanned settlements which lacked services. This trend of urban development pattern is unsustainable and renders service provision very costly.

In terms of housing, the housing requirement was about 767,000 units, presenting a critical shortage of 54,400 units in Uganda's urban areas. There was also a major shortage of decent and affordable rental housing forcing the low-income population into low-quality and squatter settlements. About 70% of the urban population stayed in informal settlements, of which 20% resided in typical slums. Uganda's urban population will grow from 11 million in 2022 to 20 million in 2035 raising the housing demand to 1.4 million units - a total increase in housing needed of 48,700 units per annum. The Housing market was faced with high mortgage interest rates which increased the cost of borrowing leading to a high cost of housing provision.

Uganda is home to 1.4million refugees, out of which 500,000 are living in Uganda's urban areas. The impact of these refugees on the hosting urban areas included environmental degradation, the proliferation of unplanned structures and development of slums, Poor Solid waste management, conflicts over land ownership, high demand for socio-economic infrastructure services, and depletion of natural resources.

In terms of economic development, the current sprawling urban growth limits the growth of urban areas based on comparative advantage, agglomeration, and competitiveness. The limited exploitation of the comparative advantages in the different ULGs limits their competitiveness, optimum resource utilization, contribution to GDP, and their full contribution to economic development and prosperity.

In Uganda, urban areas accounted for 70% of non-agricultural GDP and provided 36% of overall job growth. There was a low level of productivity as indicated by the per capita, with only 3 Cities, 5 Municipalities, and 17 Town Councils located in districts with GDP per capita above USD. 1000. Development and growth were concentrated in the relatively developed areas straining the limited resources and resulting in diseconomies of scale, slowing growth and development in these areas.

The largest sector in urban economies was the service sector which employed 48%. About 52% of HH practiced some form of urban farming however 26% of HH relied on subsistence agriculture as the main source of livelihood. Urban economies relied on small-scale enterprises with 70% having a low turnover

of less than 10 million and employing many of the unskilled/semi-skilled youth. They also had limited taxable entities leading to poor revenue collections which affected service provision.

It was noted that there was an imbalance between supply and demand for urban roads. It was further noted that the Uganda Road Funds received by urban authorities were for mainly maintenance which aims at keeping the road conditions as close to their original design but not the creation/expansion of new roads. In terms of spatial distribution, all urban areas had low road density save for Kampala. Apart from Kampala and its neighborhoods, there was no congestion in the rest of the urban areas in Uganda. Urban areas have unique challenges which should be prioritized during resource allocation.

Urban roads accounted for 7% (10,108Km) of the entire country's road network (144,785Km) while paved urban roads accounted for 5.6% (570.8Km) of the entire country's urban roads. 6 out of the 11 Cities had coverage of paved roads above the national average (5.6%).

The tenure policy coupled with a lack of adequate physical planning had greatly hindered the acquisition of sufficient road reserves hence affecting road alignment in urban areas. All roads to be implemented and maintained by urban authorities should be planned roads.

In all urban areas, there were no efforts made to separate green and red modes of transport which made the roads unsafe for pedestrians and cyclists. Urban areas should adopt the universal design principles that recognize walking and cycling in transport, planning, design, and infrastructure provision.

The national average for street lighting was 8.2% which was very low. Other than Jinja city, all Cities were below 10% in the provision of street lighting. The average city coverage was at 11% and Municipalities at 5.4%. Town Councils had no evidence of streetlighting at all due to limited funding. Urban councils should therefore promote the use of PPPs as an intervention to attract external support in the provision of street lighting.

The study revealed that there was no integrated public road transport and the existing services were of poor standard. There is a need therefore for the government to formulate a public transport policy to address all emerging issues in the public transport sector.

There were no urban rail transit services both intercity and intra-city due to limited functional rail infrastructure. The existing infrastructure was poor and aging with inadequate funding, land encroachment on reserves, and the legal and policy framework were the major factors hindering the development of the rail sector. To ensure growth in the rail sector, the government should fast-track the implementation of the SGR Project.

Just like rail transport, inland water transport in Uganda was underdeveloped. Urban areas which shared territory with navigable lakes and rivers had undeveloped potential sites suitable for inland water transport services. Urban areas should fast-track the development of inland waterways to tap into the potential for water transport services.

Except for Entebbe international airport, and public aerodromes that existed in urban areas, their support facilities generally were in good condition but usability by the local urban population for these facilities was less than 1%.

The national average for access to piped water in urban areas of Uganda was 40.7%. Cities had the highest with 47.4%, Municipalities at 43.8%, and Town Councils at 31%. Urban areas with the lowest coverage included; Arua and Fort portal Cities (14%), Kumi and Nebbi MC (13%), and Dokolo TC (10%). Improved access to piped water had been greatly hampered by the unplanned settlement patterns which lead to difficulties in the supply of water and climate change effects that have led to low yields of both underground and surface water resources.

The national average for connection to the sewer systems in urban areas of Uganda was 7.2%. Cities had the highest with 12.5%, Municipalities with 1.9% while Town Councils had none at all. It was also noted that on average 3.8% of the households in Town Councils did not have toilet facilities. Urban areas do not benefit from the sanitation grants like districts yet they are highly populated compared to rural districts.

Findings showed that the national average connection rate for power supply within urban areas stood at 42%, with Cities at 38.2%, Municipalities at 43%, and Town Councils at 27.9%. Kampala had the highest connection rate at 86% while Gulu and Arua had the lowest at 14%. This was partly attributed to the low power supply which affects water production in the region. On the other hand, Makindye Ssabagabo MC had the highest rate at 74% while Nebbi and Kumi had the lowest at 16%. At the Town Council level, Kasangati had the highest at 59% while Dokolo and Pakwach had the lowest at 9%. The low connection rates were attributed to the high-power tariffs and connection rates.

The national average for government provision of education services stood at 42% and only 59.4% of the urban population could afford the cost of education in their respective urban areas. Affordability in Municipalities and Cities was higher at 65% while Town Councils stood at 41.7%. On average 58.2% of the urban population accessed education facilities. The average range of education service was good at 2.67kms compared to the recommended standard of 3 km.
The key challenges were the high cost of quality education and the declining Government expenditure on Education.

The national average for government provision of health services stood at 51.2% and only 69.9% of the urban population could afford the cost of health services in their respective urban areas. Affordability in Municipalities and Cities was higher at 61.7%. On average 66.2% of the urban population accessed health facilities. The average range of health services was good at 3.9kms compared to the recommended standard of 5 km.
The key challenges were; the low capacity of health infrastructure leading to overcrowding and poor-quality service delivery, the high cost of health services, and inadequate financial resource input from the central government.

On average, 49% of the urban councils were represented by between 5-10 female councilors, most evident in Town Councils (TCs) where 71% of the TCs have between 5 to 10 female councilors. The key challenges were low academic qualifications which affect the quality of deliberation, comprehension, and participation in Council activities; facilitating the increased number of councilors placed a big

burden on urban council resources (e.g., Nansana MC the number increased from 53 in 2015 to 95 Councilors 2021).

The main source of revenue in urban LGs was property taxes averagely contributing to 24%, followed by the planning fees (23%), business licenses, and LST (12%). Only 29% of the urban councils could meet the PFM reform strategy target of contributing 30% own source revenue towards their budgets. The key challenges in revenue management were; the lack of updated and automated taxpayer registers; the absence of policies to manage the large informal sector and poor utilization of the OSR system.

Urban authorities on average were collecting 2/3 of their budgeted local revenue mainly due to unrealistic budgeting and poor local revenue collections practices which affected budget implementation and effective service delivery.

On average, 69% of the staff positions in the urban authorities were filled, however, at the time of the survey, all staff in all Cities (except the town clerks) were in an acting capacity. There is, therefore, a need to review the terms of service in ULGs' civil service to attract and retain staff; review the ULG structure to allow for career progression and the central government should increase the wage bill to enable ULGs to fill more positions.

In terms of expenditure, on average, urban authorities spent 38% of their budget on wages and 18% on Operation & Maintenance. Town Councils spent the most on O&M (30%) while Cities spent less than 10% of their budgets on O&M. it was evident that urban authorities had limited resources for undertaking O&M, especially in the Cities and some of the Municipal Councils.

Given the above situation in the different thematic areas, the report recommends the following for further the development and prosperity of Uganda's urban areas:

- *The need for segregated urban sector data to give a much clearer picture to support decision-making. It also recommends the urban policy to be linked to policies from other MDAs which has a direct effect on urban development.*
- *Incorporate tenure-responsive LUP with other planning and land management tools and approaches. In addition, MLHUD pilot successes on tenure security through Physical Planning and Systematic Land Adjudication and Certification in the nine (9) Refugee Host Districts (RHDs) since 2019 should be upscaled to other areas.*
- *The MLHUD should establish a Physical Planning Fund to support the implementation of major physical planning proposals in terms of land use, public infrastructure, and utilities.*
- *Central Government should increase access to affordable & decent housing for all by Un-locking the enabler's role to become more responsive to all segments of the urban population, reducing the cost of construction by cutting costs of housing inputs and revising the building regulations and guidelines to care of the emerging issues in the housing sector.*
- *Encourage sustainable development through proper land use planning, management, design, and implementation of integrated refugee settlements to combat the refugee negative effects.*
- *Promote compaction, densification, and connectivity of urban areas, to reduce the cost of services, and cost of market access and enable exploitation of economies of scale and agglomeration, hence making urban centers more competitive; Support the informal sector businesses to transform into viable and sustainable business enterprises; Support manufacturing*

through innovation, research, technology and providing the necessary infrastructure to strengthen and improve urban economies.

- *Central government should commit adequate resource allocation towards road network improvement; target to achieve an average paved road density of 100 Km per 1000km2 by 2040; formulate a financing strategy for future road infrastructural development of all urban areas and promote low-cost road sealing technology in Town Councils to improve the quality of road surfaces.*
- *Given the re-birth of Uganda airlines as a national carrier, home-based air routes for intercity connection should be promoted for tourism development but also improve all support infrastructure at all aerodromes within the urban areas to acceptable standards.*
- *Urban authorities should enforce the protection of both underground and surface water resources by all stakeholders to reduce pollution, depletion, and poor water quality; the central government to extend the water grant to all urban areas to extend water services where NWSC cannot afford.*
- *Government should extend the sanitation grant to all urban areas to extend sewerage services that NWSC cannot afford.*
- *The government should review the tariffs and connection rates for domestic use to accelerate the use of HEP in urban areas.*
- *The LGFC should fast-track the roll-out of IRAS; introduce technological innovations e.g., the use of GIS to locate property, and strengthen the collaboration among the stakeholders in the collection, management, and administration of OSR.*
- *Central government should provide backstopping to ULGs in budgeting to ensure more accurate forecasting of their local revenue abilities.*
- *Local Governments should make comprehensive budgets and plans for O&M; effectively involve all the stakeholders especially user committees at all stages of the implementation with adequate feedback; central government to establish a rewarding mechanism or system for communities that excel in O&M to ensure an increase in capital development.*

Chapter One

1.0. Introduction and background

1.1. Introduction

As part of the national agenda, the Government of Uganda (GoU) is committed to ensuring orderly, sustainable, and organized urban development. This is because it has been observed over time that urban areas in Uganda have positioned themselves as engines of growth and development. Currently, Uganda has 11 Cities, 31 Municipalities, and 583 Town Councils which need serious attention. Owing to their contribution to national development such as propeller for development, growth, employment, education, technology, knowledge transfer, and, markets for industrial and agricultural products, urban areas are the pillars of economic growth and development in the country.

The MLHUD having realized the enormous task before the Urban Authorities as implementing agencies to ensure the orderly development of their environments amidst scarce resources, sought to undertake a study in the selected urban councils to investigate and understand the needs and challenges affecting these urban areas to come up with strategies that can help them perform better in this noble cause.

This report, therefore, gives a representation of a comprehensive overview of the status (existing situation) of urban development in Uganda following 14 thematic areas, their implication for the development of these urban areas, and recommendations.

1.2. Background

At the global level, urbanization is considered one of the main phenomena of the 21st century, because it is estimated that 70% of people throughout the world will live in urban areas by 2040. This phenomenon in the Ugandan context is slightly different because urbanization is at about 5.2% which is comparatively a low rate compared to other places. United Nations forecasts show that the level of urbanization in Uganda will increase to 50% by 2050 (UBOS 2014). However, the rate of urban spatial representation in the country indicates a high rate when one considers the number of places considered urban in terms of administrative arrangement and the built-up areas rather than population.

According to the National Development Plan III, urbanization had been occurring in Uganda without a proper explicit policy framework to guide the growth of urban areas not until 2017. A planned urbanization process leads to orderly urban centers which are a catalyst and contributors toward national economic growth, centers for innovation, entrepreneurship, and a source for high social services. The lack of proper planning on the other hand results in hotbeds of poverty, unemployment, crime, disease, and poor service delivery, among others. The Government of Uganda is committed to ensuring orderly, sustainable, and organized urban development as part of the national development agenda. This is in recognition of the greatest contribution to the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) from urban areas and the very important role they play in national development as engines of economic growth.

It's under this premise that the Government of Uganda through the Ministry of Lands Housing and Urban Development also prepared the National Urban Policy (2017) to ensure planned urbanization which will spur integrated urban development and also guide the urbanization process in Uganda.

The Ministry of Lands, Housing & Urban Development sought to undertake a comprehensive study on the state of the urban sector in the country to analyze and provide an in-depth understanding of the current state of urbanization in Uganda to inform policy and other strategic government and private sector interventions within the urban sector for improved service delivery.

1.3. Rationale of the Study.

Development and management of Cities, Municipalities, and Town Councils in Uganda have been to date prioritized by the Government of Uganda however, a lot still needs to be done. These urban councils are characterized by numerous urban development challenges such as limited finances, inadequate infrastructure, poor social service delivery, lack of security of tenure, pollution, poor sanitation, inadequate staffing, and poor governance among others. The creation of new Cities and the proliferation of Municipalities and Town Councils without reliable information documented to inform decision-making has exacerbated these problems. There is a need for comprehensive integrated strategies to improve the situation. The justification of this assignment was premised on the need to produce the state of urban development report to inform policy, laws, and regulations for the urban sector.

1.4. Scope of work

The study covered all the 11 Cities (Kampala, Jinja, Mbale, Soroti, Lira, Gulu, Arua, Hoima, Fort Portal, Mbarara and Masaka), 10 selected Municipalities (Kitgum, Nebbi, Kira, Nansana, Makindye Ssabagabo, Iganga, Tororo, Kumi, Ntungamo and Bushanyi-Ishaka) and 10 selected Town Councils (Kamwenge, Kyenjojo, Pakwach, Luwero, Aduku, Busiu, Palisa, Wakiso, Kasangati, Katabi, Yumbe, Adjumani, Dokoro, Bundibujo, Kagadi, Kalisizo, Buwenge, Buyende, Mpigi, Budaka and Isingiro). The selection of these urban centres especially for Municipalities and Town Councils followed a regional representation so as to have a feel of the situation in different parts of the country.

1.5. Objectives of the Study

- To identify the key urban development issues/challenges, and needs and provide information on appropriate strategies for improving the situation.
- Identify institutional and policy strengths and weaknesses in the governance of urban areas and suggest areas where reforms will be needed to benefit from the urbanization process.
- Identify and critically analyze the state of urban development in the identified thematic areas in the ToR.
- Produce a detailed report on the urban sector in Uganda.

1.6. Methodology of the Assignment

A participatory and interactive approach was used to provide an opportunity for the relevant stakeholders in urban decision making to share their views, experience, suggestions and contributions to the state of urban development in Uganda. The process involved literature review; Interviewing key informants to identify gaps, challenges and needs of urban areas in Uganda. The stakeholder consultations took a regional and urban council clustering to try and capture the diversity of issues faced by the different regions and urban council levels. Also, spatial analysis was done to determine the trends of urban development in Uganda. Focus Group Discussions with focal persons in selected MDAs were conducted to gather information on development challenges and policy gaps in the management of urban areas in Uganda. From these a report on the state of the urban sector was compiled.

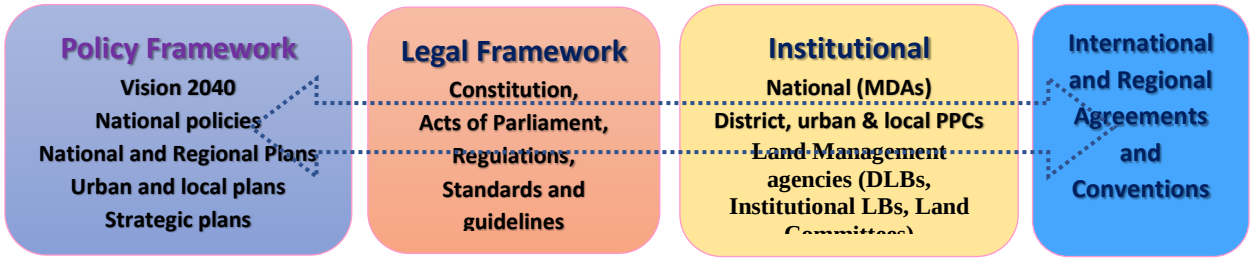
Chapter Two

2. Policy, Legal, and Institutional Framework for Development and Management of Urban Authorities

The government of Uganda has enacted several enabling laws and policies to manage, guide, stimulate urban development as a means to integrated, sustainable, and organized development. The Ministry of Lands Housing and Urban Development (MLHUD) has the overall responsibility for urban development whereas the Ministry of Local Government is responsible for the administration of urban councils.

The state of urbanization, urban development, and urban management in the country is guided by the following;

- The national policy framework that provides direction on urban development and the urbanization process.
- The legislations and frameworks that government has instituted to facilitate the governance and management of urban councils to ensure sustainable urbanization and development.
- The institutions and tools that the urban authorities and government institutions use to guide and manage the processes within their areas of jurisdiction.
- Evaluation of urban local governments' performance on sustainable development and management of development and land use.
- International and regional agreements and conventions that government and urban authorities/councils must integrate into the urban sector progression.



2.1 Policy Framework that guides the urbanization process and management of Urban Councils in Uganda.

Urbanization in Uganda is guided by several policies that provide direction on urban development and the urbanization process based on several guiding principles. They guide on how to manage urbanization, urban development as well as enhance the role of the urban sector in economic development and socio-economic transformation in particular and the country at large. An overview of the relevant policy framework is presented in table 1 below.

Table 1: Key policies that guide urbanization and management of urban councils in the country

Category	Policy	Key provisions	Issues
Policies relevant to urbanization and urban management	National Urban Policy, 2017	The policy promotes good governance to strengthen urban management with appropriate institutions and mechanisms that promote and encourage stakeholders' involvement. It also supporting institutional development and capacity-building programs for effective urban governance and management. It also provides a criterion for determining the hierarchy of urban	Community/stakeholder participation has not been comprehensively adopted by a number of planning authorities across all levels in the country, hence the resistance in trying to enforce given laws and regulations. The policy criteria for the different urban council levels seem to be far from reality. The Declaration of the current urban council levels seems to ignore the

Category	Policy	Key provisions	Issues
		areas using population, density, area, functionality, and PDPs.	provisions of the policy. The provisions for the criteria of establishing an urban area are not in tandem with those of the LGA and they need to be harmonized.
	The Uganda National Land Policy, 2013	Provides a framework to harmonize the diverse needs for human settlement, production, and conservation through best practices in land utilization for purposes of growth in the agricultural, industrial, and technological sectors. Provides a framework to harmonize aspects related to the regulation of land use, sustainable management of land resources, and issues of tenure, which are a big challenge in urbanization.	
	The National Land Use Policy; 2006 (NLUP)	Provides general guidance on optimal and sustainable utilization of land. Specifically, the policy provides for "planned, environmentally friendly, affordable and well-distributed human settlements for both rural and urban areas". Policy Statement 32, intends to revise and harmonize all existing laws and policies related to land use planning and develop implementation capacity.	The NLUP doesn't provide the standards, guidelines and, regulations for land use management. As a result, conformity of the planning standards to the land use planning through development control is largely challenged due to laca k of clear harmonization with other laws and policies from other sectors which leads to resistance at the implementation stage. E.g the Road Act 2019 empowers the Minister of transport by statutory instrument to declare a road reserve on any land acquired by the road authority for purposes of road construction, and may declare and gazette different widths of different classes of public roads upon technical advice from the Engineer in chief. It would be prudent to first plan the roads as provided for by the PPA 2010.
	National Housing Policy, 2016	The policy seeks to promote the realization of adequate housing for all premised on the principle of partnership. Part of the policy prioritizes Urban Housing and Slum Upgrading given the high urbanization rate in the country.	The policy emphasizes government involvement in the provision of housing for all however this role has been neglected and where attempts are made, the focus has been put on the provision for the rich at the expense of the urban poor.
	The National Environment Management Policy for Uganda, 2014	Provides an enabling framework by integrating environmental requirements in the process of physical planning of urban land use. Key areas emphasized cover management of water resources; biodiversity conservation; control of Pollution and Management of Domestic & Industrial Wastes; climate change impacts; population growth, settlements distribution and health.	Despite the presence of this policy and given that plans prepared always take cognizance of environmental issues, degradation of natural resources has continued unabated resulting in climate change impacts.
	National Local	Provides a framework for partnerships	

Category	Policy	Key provisions	Issues
	Economic Development Policy (LED) (2014):	in LED and a vehicle for implementing urban local government LED initiatives. It is intended to entrench decentralization, eradicate poverty and ensure inclusive, sustainable, and equitable economic growth at local level.	
	National Population Policy (NPP) (2008):	The policy defines critical issues that must be tackled to ensure a population that enhances the Country's development goals and objectives. The Policy observes that population influences the development process, and there is need to control population growth. The urban population growth rate must be met with appropriate infrastructure and other amenities to sustain the welfare of the urban population in terms of health, education, social welfare, and employment.	
	Public Private Partnership Policy (PPP) (2010):	The policy provides a framework for provision of public services and public infrastructure. It envisions better utilization of public funds, more efficient development and delivery of public infrastructure and services and boost economic growth. PPP will enhance the quality and cost of such services to be benchmarked against market standards, thereby helping to ensure productivity improvements within the economy.	
	The Decentralization Policy (1997):	Provides a framework for enabling inclusive economic development and nation-wide democratic participation by citizens and local communities as well as improves government service delivery, and achieve a better level of governance that is more transparent and accountable.	The decentralization policy seems to be implemented partially. The practice to date indicates that the government is centralising functions of urban local governments which defeats the essence of decentralizing. The autonomy and discretion of local governments has been weakened by central government controls over local revenues, leading to dependence on central transfers (over 90%).
	National Slum Upgrading Strategy (NSUS) (2008):	The US is designed as the main thrust to ensure that slum upgrading/redevelopment efforts are integrated into national policies, legislation, and programs to enable their implementation. Slum upgrading should be part of broader national development plans and as such it should be treated as part of medium and long-term planning and a development goal.	To date, we see no such deliberate programs to address slum upgrading.

Category	Policy	Key provisions	Issues
Upper-Level Plans	Uganda Vision 2040	One of the key fundamentals identified to harness the opportunities for development is urbanization and the following are prioritized; – Establishment of regional and strategic Cities, – Control urban sprawl through legislation, integrated physical planning and strict development control and increasing density of settlement. – Adopting well-planned high-density settlement for Kampala and medium-density settlement for the regional and strategic Cities. – Ensuring strict control of pollution, wetland management, waste management, and promotion and protection of green areas, open spaces and corridors.	
	The Third National Development Plan (NDP III) – 2020/21-2024/25	Designed to support the realization of the Uganda Vision 2040. The NDP III - 2020/21-2024/25) vision is "A Transformed Ugandan Society from a Peasant to a Modern and Prosperous Country within 30 years". The plan prioritizes urbanization and urban development as very critical for accelerating socio-economic transformation through economic growth, employment and wealth creation.	
	The National Physical Development Plan 2018-2040	The plan presents Government's strategy to resolve the conflicting sectoral pressures on land which is a finite resource. The plan defines the pattern of human settlements, other land uses and natural resources and the infrastructure networks that connect and service them. It defines a hierarchy of urban settlements as growth poles to drive balanced growth.	
	National Transport Master Plan (2020-2040)	The plan considers the needs of both users and providers of transport services, the regional and continental road transport plans and the roles of the different modes and the implications of regional integration with several regional organizations in Africa.	

2.2 Legal Framework

In line with the provisions of the Constitution, parliament has put in place the necessary legal framework that provides for the governance and management of urban councils (City, Municipality and Town) in Uganda. These frameworks provide for Local government setup, powers and functions, planning and financial

provisions and people's participation. These also make provisions for transparency and accountability, how Urban Local Governments manage the planning, land management, development control and compliance within their areas of jurisdiction. The key Acts of Parliament linked with urbanization in this regard are summarized in the table below.

Table 2: Legal instruments that guide urbanization and management of Urban Councils, strengths and weaknesses.

Category	Statute	Provisions	Issues
Supreme law	Constitution of the Republic of Uganda, 1995.	Sets the following objectives that relate to urbanization and urban development; – Objective XII, XIII, and XIV; requires the government to take necessary measures to ensure integrated and coordinated planning and bring about balanced development of the different areas of Uganda. – protection of important natural resources, and ensure that all Ugandans enjoy rights and opportunities and access to services. – The Constitution further provides for a decentralized Local Government under Article 176 (2) that ensures that functions and responsibilities are devolved and transferred from the Centre to Urban Local Governments in a coordinated manner.	
Urbanization, urban management related Acts	Kampala Capital City Authority (KCCA) Act (2010)	The Kampala Capital City Authority (KCCA) Act puts the administration of Kampala Capital City under the Central Government; defines the territorial boundary of Kampala; establishment of the Kampala Capital City Authority as the governing body of the city; the development of Kampala Capital City and a Metropolitan Physical Planning Authority for Kampala and the adjacent districts among others.	It is ironic for the law intended to independently guide governance and development in Kampala to also spill over to other districts which are managed by a different Act (LGA CAP 243). There is a feeling that Kampala is not a LG like other districts in the GKMA. This brings a question why coin together two entities different in character and function. Conflicts are bound to occur where some entities would want to impose themselves as superior to others. Whereas the KCCA Act as amended 2019 repeals section 22 on the functions of the Metropolitan Physical Planning Authority, it preserved section 21 which creates the same authority but with no functions. This shows that there is creation of redundant entities which confuses the actors.
	The Local Government Act (CAP 243)	The purpose of the Act is to give effect to the decentralization and devolution of functions, powers and services from the centre to LGs to ensure good governance and democratic participation in and control of, decision making by the people. To provide for the revenue, political and administrative set up of local governments. The act also defines the different	There is a practice of centralizing some key functions of ULGs which defeats the purpose of the decentralization policy. The MoLG does not follow the Act when gazetting urban areas. There are many urban areas which do not meet the set criteria in the LGA. Some of the criterion given for the

Category	Statute	Provisions	Issues
		functions for the different levels of urban local governments Schedule 3 Part VI section 32 declares that: (1) Except for those areas which are already gazetted, before declaring an area to be a town, municipality or city, the following requirements should generally exist— (a) the population must be, in the case of— (i) a town, above twenty-five thousand inhabitants; (ii) a municipality, above one hundred thousand inhabitants; (iii) a city, above five hundred thousand inhabitants; (b) the area must— (i) have capacity to meet its cost of delivery of services; (ii) have its offices; (iii) have a master plan for land use; (iv) presence of water sources. (2) Where a district headquarters is established, the area shall be declared a town.	declaration of an urban area are either vague or not measurable. There is also a contradiction between the LGA and the NUP regarding the criteria to be followed when declaring an urban area. The LGA is also silent on the source of funding for the provisions required for the declaration of an urban area. There is a gap in the legal framework regarding quality of the political leadership which is found to be low. Academic qualifications are a key determinant of the capacity to understand and taking informed decisions.
	The Physical Planning Act, 2010	Provides Uganda's hierarchical physical development planning and development control system covering five types of physical development plans (National, Regional, District, Urban, Local) Fifth Schedule Provides detailed requirements for inclusion in the district, urban and local PDPs	The law does not make mention of the source of funding for preparation and implementation of these PDP which explains the low performance in this area and resulting into sprawling informality in our urban areas seen today.
	The Land Act (CAP 227)	Emphasizes land use planning and zoning in conformity to the provisions of the Physical Planning Act and any other law. Also provides for the control and protection of environmentally sensitive areas/fragile ecosystems for the common good of the citizens of Uganda.	
	The Public Finance and Management Act, 2015 (PFMA)	The PFMA strengthens accountability and transparency in use of public resources, restores credibility and predictability of the National budget given a new financial reporting calendar, aligns the budget preparation, implementation and oversight; regulates all government revenues.	There is no streamlined criteria for financial allocations to the urban councils. The Public Finance Management Act (2015) is in conflict with some aspects of the decentralization policy. There is a notable feature in the amendments trend towards the centre taking over responsibilities that had been assigned to local councils e.g. PFMA, 2015. A high reliance on central government transfers reduces discretionary power of local governments and weakens local responsiveness and accountability.
	Building Control Act 2013	The act consolidates laws relating to erection of buildings; to provide for building standards; establishes the National Building Review Board and Building Committees; provides for planned, decent and safe building	

Category	Statute	Provisions	Issues
		structures that are developed in harmony with the environment.	
Other Acts Affecting urbanization and urban management	The National Environment Act (CAP 153) (Amended 2020)	This act provides for various strategies and tools for environment and social management. The Act also mandates NEMA with responsibility for in-situ and ex-situ conservation of biological fauna and flora resources either on land or in water, ULGs to monitoring implementation of local land-use plans in conformity with the national land-use plan.	
	Water Act, Cap 152	Promotes the rational management and use of the waters for Uganda, promote the provision of a clean, safe and sufficient supply of water for domestic purposes to all persons etc.	
	Public Health Act, Cap 281	Consolidate the law regarding the preservation of public health.	
	Historical Monument Act, 1967	Provide for the preservation and protection of historical monuments and objects of archaeological, paleontological, ethnographical and traditional interest and for other matters connected therewith.	
	Road Act 2019	Framework for the development, management and maintenance of public roads and access to roads in order to conform with the current Government policies and programs. The act provides for the establishment of road reserves and for the maintenance of roads, control over developments along the road to ensure that basic necessities of maintaining road geometry and engineering needs such as sight lines, horizontal curvatures, sight distances and road safety considerations are met.	

2.2.1 Relevant international agreements and conventions

Uganda together with other countries have ratified to a number of global development agreements and frameworks, with an understanding that Cities should be the source of solutions to, rather than the cause of, the challenges that our world is facing today. The urban sector progression is assessed in line with these regional and international obligations (table 3).

Table 3: Relevant international agreements and conventions

Name	Main provisions and comments
Sustainable Development Goals (SDG's) United Nations	In Uganda, the SDGs are implemented through the Comprehensive National Development Planning Framework under Vision 2040, National Development Plan (NDPIII) and National Physical Development Plan 2018-2040. Urbanization and urban development is prioritized in the plans and aligned to accommodate the SDG's; Urban LGs are obligated to "build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation". LGs are also required to "develop quality, reliable, sustainable and resilient infrastructure to support economic development and human well-being, with a focus on affordable and equitable access for all".

Name	Main provisions and comments
	SDG 11 Sustainable Cities and communities; addresses sustainable Cities, through proposed investment in public transport and improved urban planning and management. Sets the urban goal, highlighting Cities as hubs for ideas, commerce, culture, science, productivity, social development and much more. Urbanization and development must combat climate change and its Impacts by promoting mechanisms for raising capacities for effective climate change related planning and management.
The global Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development, the African Agenda 2063	Advocates for a well-planned and managed urbanization as a force for sustainable development. The Uganda Vision 2040 also seeks to invest in better urban systems to enhance productivity, livability, and sustainability.
The UN-HABITAT Agenda	To implement the Habitat II Agenda, the following commitments were agreed upon, by world leaders, under the Istanbul Declaration on Human Settlements; Adequate Shelter for All, Sustainable Human Settlements, Enablement and Participation: Gender equality, Financing Shelter and Human Settlements, Rural and Urban Development, Sustainable Development. UN-HABITAT also launched the Global Campaign on Urban Governance and Security of Tenure, to support implementation of the Habitat Agenda Commitments; and also help member countries formulate strategies that will help achieve MDG target 7.D on improving the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers.
Rio + 10 Declaration and the United Nations Agenda 2 The New Urban Agenda; Quito Declaration on Sustainable Cities and Human Settlements for all	Outline policies, strategies and commitments to achieve sustainable development that meets the needs of the poor. The New Urban Agenda commits to a better and more sustainable future where all people have equal rights and access to the benefits and opportunities that Cities can offer. That well-planned and well-managed urbanization offers a powerful tool for sustainable development. The New Urban Agenda lays out standards and principles for the planning, construction, development, management, and improvement of urban areas along its five main pillars of implementation. The New Urban Agenda correlates good urbanization and development, it underlines the linkages between good urbanization and job creation, livelihood opportunities, and improved quality of life, which should be included in every urban renewal policy and strategy.

2.3 Institutional Framework

There are a number of institutions involved in urban development both at the centre and local government levels (table 4). The responsibilities of urban development are distributed in various institutions at both the centre and local government levels. The central government plays the role of an enabler, coordinator and regulator of all the actors in urban development by providing the policy, legal and regulatory framework required to mobilize resources for efficient delivery of urban services. Below are the central government MDAs that deal with urban development.

Table 4: Institutions involved in urban development, urban management and municipal finance/ support.

Institution	Role	Issues
Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development (MLHUD)	The Ministry is responsible for providing policy, legal and regulatory frameworks as well as setting national standards and guidelines, and coordinating all matters concerning urban development in the country inter alia for all matters related to lands, housing and urban development in Uganda. It is also responsible for urban development.	Develop and implement a comprehensive strategy for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of the set standards, guidelines and regulations to be able to assess their impact and value in the management of urban development. Regular technical capacity building of all urban Local Governments to

Institution	Role	Issues
		enhance their capacity for implementing and enforcing compliance. Lobby for a specific funding vote to support the implementation of physical planning activities generally across all local governments.
The National Physical Planning Board	The Board is responsible for advising government on all matters relating to physical planning, hearing and determining appeals lodged by aggrieved persons and local governments, studying and giving guidance and recommendations on issues relating to physical planning transcending more than one local government, and approving and supervision of the implementation of physical development plans.	The board has limited technical capacity to oversee and support the performance of all urban councils in the country in addition to its other mandates.
Ministry of Local Government (MoLG)	The Ministry is responsible for urban administration of Urban Local Governments. It supervises programs related to urbanization including: urban governance, decentralization, community development, local finance, local economic development and social protection. The Ministry is also responsible for strengthening urban authorities through capacity building and training, as well as monitoring and evaluating the implementation of Government programs and projects in Urban Local Governments. It is responsible for creation of urban areas.	In the process of creating urban areas, the ministry should liaise with the MLHUD to ensure that created urban areas meet the set standards and guidelines.
Ministry of Works and Transport (MWT)	The Ministry is responsible for planning, development, and maintenance of transport infrastructure and engineering works in the country. It also oversees the provision of urban transport infrastructure.	Emphasis should be placed on the implementation of only planned roads. Coordinate the planning and implementation utilities and infrastructure provision in urban areas.
Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (MoFPED)	The Ministry is responsible for ensuring mobilization of public resources, managing the national budget, and is also responsible for economic planning at the different territorial levels. It further oversees how the mobilized resources are managed and accounted for as they must benefit all Ugandans.	
National Planning Authority (NPA)	The Authority is responsible for producing comprehensive and integrated development plans for the Country, elaborated in terms of the perspective long and medium–term plans. The Authority also wires local capacity development for national and decentralized development planning.	
National Water and Sewerage Corporation (NWSC)	The Corporation is responsible for providing urban water supply and sewerage services in the urban areas of Uganda.	
Urban Local Governments	The Local Government Act creates and defines the functions of different levels of urban local government. It also plays a supervisory role in the administration of urban local governments.	
District/City Land Boards and Uganda	The District/City Land Boards (DLBs) and the Uganda Land Commission (ULC) are bodies created by the Constitution to manage land which is not privately owned. The ULC holds and manages land in Uganda that is vested and acquired by the	

Institution	Role	Issues
Land Commission	Government of Uganda. The DLBs on the other hand are charged with facilitating the registration and transfer of interests in land and dealing with other land related matters in the urban areas.	
National Building review board	Established under Section 3 of the Building Control Act 2013. Some of the functions that the board is obliged to carry out include the following; − To monitor building developments − To ensure that the design and construction of buildings and utilities to which the public is to have access cater for persons with disabilities − To oversee, inspect and monitor the operations of Building Committees	
Physical Planning Committees	The Urban Physical Planning Committees are responsible for causing the preparation and detailing of physical development plans, approval of development applications, conducting development control activities (supervision and enforcement) and recommending to the NPPB changes in land use for approval.	The composition and functionality of PPCs in some urban local governments especially Town Councils is still lacking.
Key development partners	**National Partners;** − **Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and Community-Based Organizations (CBOS);** instrumental in helping the poor and other socially vulnerable group to exercise their social, economic and political rights through advocacy, providing legal aid and lobbying the government for legislative change. − **Private Sector;** The private sector plays an important role in the urbanization process through mobilizing human and financial resources to complement government activities. **Multilateral and Bilateral Partners and Programmes** − **The World Bank (WB);** The WB's Uganda portfolios comprising of more than 19 active programs - Global Environment Facility interventions, the USMID Programme is to enhance the institutional performance of local government to improve urban service delivery, Competitiveness And Enterprise Development Project (CEDP) and Land Information Systems (LIS) Project, The Second Kampala Institutional and Infrastructure Development Project (KIIDP-2), Cities Alliance (CA): Transforming Settlements of the Urban Poor in Uganda (TSUPU), Uganda Resilient City Initiative/Municipal Development Strategy/Future Cities Africa − **European Union (EU);** supporting the implementation of the Participatory Slum Upgrading Programme (PSUP) − **UKAID;** funded UN joint programmes on population in which UN-Habitat implemented two projects on youth empowerment and physical development planning. − **Africa Development Bank (ADB);** the regional Lake Vitoria programme AfDB support to 5 towns around the lakes in Uganda. **United Nations (UN);** strengthening the capacity of urban authorities to implement sustainable and resilient urban development plans and programmes	

Chapter Three

3.0 Urbanization trends and spatial development in Uganda

3.1 Introduction

Sustainable urbanization is premised on the networking of human capital, social capital, Information and Communications Technologies (ICTs). It is also supported by the level of infrastructure needed to solve sustainability challenges and lead to a better quality of life.

The unprecedented era of increasing urbanization, and in the context of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, the Paris Agreement, and other global development agreements and frameworks, the common understanding reached was that Cities should be the source of solutions to, rather than the cause of, the challenges our Cities are facing today. If well-planned and well-managed, urbanization can be a powerful tool for sustainable development.

3.2 Overview of Urbanization in Uganda

The roots of urbanization in Uganda go back to the end of the 19th century when the European footprint in the country began to be felt (appendix 2). With the building of the Kenya-Uganda railway, economic and colonial administrative centres were established such as Fort Portal, Kasese, Gulu and Tororo. The railroad encouraged settlement fixation and emergence of urban centers that functioned as; (i) centers of commerce and collection centers for rural agricultural commodities; (ii) administrative centers in various parts of the country to stabilize most settlements; and (iii) trading centers, which later attracted a large Asian population. These grew into big towns but during this era, the British virtually ignored the pre-existence of well-established and sophisticated settlement and local governance systems, which had in many cases been in existence long before their arrival. High natural population growth in towns due to improved health and internal migration (especially rural to urban) are by far the most significant causes of urbanization.

Urbanization within the country is also partly explained by the persistent rural poverty that causes migration to urban areas with the hope to improve their livelihoods. Increasing differences between urban and rural incomes are creating high urbanization growth rates. The other factor is the economic transformation policies that have mainly focused on urban areas (for example industrialization).

The central region in Uganda has the highest number of people living in urban areas while the eastern region was the fastest urbanizing region. Economic growth and political stability over the last two decades have led to the expansion of urban centres, in particular Kampala, and the growing of hundreds of small trading centres, particularly along transit routes – highways and the railroad. The significant growth has taken the form of unplanned settlements, slums and pseudo urban areas characterized by poor services and road networks. Kampala is a “primate city” – meaning that it is disproportionately larger than any other city in the urban hierarchy in terms of physical development though in terms of area, the reverse is true. In terms of population, it is equivalent to the 10 newly created Cities in Uganda. The Greater Kampala Metropolitan Area (GKMA) was approaching 3.5 million in 2017, while the 14 remaining largest settlements were much smaller and ranged between 50,000 to 200,000 residents. The United Nations projects that the total urban population in Uganda will be 20 million by 2040 and 32 million by 2050, accounting for almost one-third of the country’s population.

Like many countries in Africa, Uganda has experienced strong economic and social gains over the last 15 years. However, there was still large unemployment in urban areas as the growth has not happened simultaneously with large job and productivity growth in the industry and service sectors. This has been compounded by a large informal economy and the "growing pains" from rapid urban sprawl, including severe congestion in Kampala. The next 18 years will be critical for Uganda in achieving Vision 2040 through harnessing the opportunity of demographic trends in Uganda to create an optimal urban system which is functional and a connected. Relative to 2040, at least three quarters of the country's infrastructure, industry and urban areas are unplanned, characterized by low-density, informal sprawl with challenges of underserviced urban centres such as congestion, overcrowding and pollution etc.

The rapid urban change presents further challenges to urban authorities' ability to acquire land for much needed infrastructure investment in transport and housing, while also encouraging informality in the economy. Effective urban planning is also challenged by a complex land tenure system and a lack of clear property rights, fiscal constraints, and the need for enhanced capacity in urban institutions. There is need for a new urban growth model that will encourage sustainable development by 2040.

3.3 Urbanization Trends in Uganda

Uganda had a population base of 35 million and a high population growth rate of 3.2% making it one of the fastest-growing populations in Africa (Un-Habitat Uganda Report 2016 – 2021). The country is largely rural but has been experiencing rapidly growing urbanization with an urban population growth rate of around 8.8% between 2014 and 2021. About 18% of the population reside in urban areas of Uganda (figure 1) of which 4 % reside in Kampala.

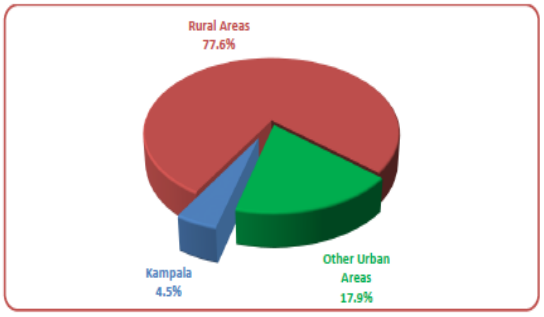


Figure 1: Population distribution by location
Source: *MLHUD*, 2017

The percentage of the population living in urban areas increased from 12.3% in 2002 to 18.6% in 2014 which reflects an annual urban growth rate of 5.2% - among the highest in the world (table 5). In 2021, the percentage population increased from 18.6% to 26.5% which reflects an annual growth rate of 8.8%.

Table 5: Number of Urban Centres by Type and Population, 1991– 2021

Type of Urban Centre	1991		2002		2014		2021	
	No.	Population	No.	Population	No.	Population	No.	Population
Cities	1	774,241	1	1,189,142	1	1,507,080	11	3,866,025
Municipality	13	480,922	13	745,036	33	3,249,609	31	4,134,478
Town Council	33	338,901	61	1,065,209	163	2,361,033	583	3,003,942
Town Board	20	75,589	20	n/a	62	308,142	-	-
Total	**67**	**1,669,653**	**95**	**2,999,387**	**259**	**7,425,864**	**625**	**11,004,445**

Source; Uganda Census main Report 2014.

Most of the urban growth was in secondary towns such as Hoima -10.7%, Mbarara - 8.6%, and Mukono - 10.4%, (UBOS, 2014). The Greater Kampala Metropolitan Area (GKMA) had the highest urban population representing over 50% of Uganda's total urban dwellers. It is projected that by the year 2035, Uganda's population will have grown to 68.4 million of which 30% will be in urban

areas. This has serious implications in terms of demand for land, housing, water, health, education, jobs and urban services, as well as impacts on the environment especially in urban areas.

3.3.1Urbanization and urban population growth in Uganda

The urban population has tremendously increased since the 2002 (NHPS) from 2.9 to 7.8 million people as at 2015/16. However, there was a slight increase in the proportion of population in urban areas from 21.4 in 2014 to 21.8 in 2015 and 26.5 in 2021 across the country.

Table 6: Proportion of urban and rural populations in Uganda 2002 – 2021

Year	Urban	Rural	Total	% in urban areas
2002*	2,999,387	21,442,697	24,442,084	12.3
2014*	7,425,864	27,208,786	34,634,650	21.4
2021	11,004,445	30,595,555	41,600,000	26.5

Uganda Bureau of Statistics (Census years 2002 and 2014)
Source: MLHUD 2016

The urbanization rate is estimated at 5.2% p.a compared to the national population growth rate of 3.2% p.a. It is projected that Uganda will become an urbanized country by 2050. From the table 7 below, it can be seen that the percentage of population in urban areas has been steadily increasing from 6.7% in 1969 to 21.4 % by 2014. It is estimated that between 2014 and 2021, the urbanization rate has grown to 8.8% with an increase of 3.6% while the percentage population in urban areas has grown to 26.5% which an increase of 5.1% in a period of 7 years.

Table 7: Population statistics based on census years

Location	1969	1980	1991	2002	2014	2021
National	9,535,051	12,636,179	16,671,705	24,442,084	34,634,650	41,600,000
Rural	8,900,099	11,697,892	14,782,083	21,442,697	27,208,786	32,152,075
Urban (including Kampala)	634,952	938,287	1,889,622	2,999,387	7,425,864	11,004,445
Urban (excluding Kampala)	342,239	449,439	774,745	1,189,142	1,507,114	9,087,018
%Population in urban	6.7	7.4	11.3	12.3	21.4	26.5
% Of population in Kampala	53.9	47.9	41.0	39.6	20.3	17.4

Source; UBOS 2016

Whereas the total population in urban areas has been steadily increasing, that is from 2.99 million in 2002, 7.43million in 2014 to 11 million in 2021, the population of Kampala as a proportion of urban areas in Uganda has been declining from 39.6% in 2002, 20.3 in 2014 and 17.4% in 2021 (figure 2). This can be attributed to the proliferation of urban centres in other parts of the country which is a good indicator. Looking at the urban population outside the Cities in Uganda, the population within the Town Councils and Municipalities, was too small for agglomeration. This only indicates the dispersal of small centres which is not good for economic development and vitality.

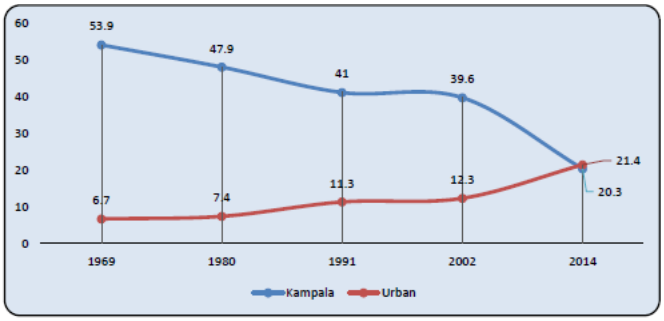


Figure 2: comparison of the trend of population in Kampala and other urban areas in percentage
Source; MLHUD 2016

Urbanization rates in Uganda are higher than official estimates if one considers an alternate measure – the Agglomeration Index (AI). The agglomeration index does not use statistical definitions of urban areas but instead uses three indicators to estimate the level of urban concentration in a country or region – population density, the population size of large urban centers, and travel time to the nearest urban center. The agglomeration index is the ratio of the population in the agglomeration area to the total population

of the country or region of interest. Using the AI, Uganda's urbanization moves up from 13% to 25% using proximity to Cities of 50,000 people; however, the index drops to 14% if Cities of 100,000 or more people are considered.

A similar pattern was seen in neighboring Kenya, where urbanization was 20% using statistical definitions, but increased to 28% using the AI considering a city size cutoff of 50,000. It dropped to 22% when the city size cutoff was set at 100,000 people. In contrast, official statistical estimates are higher than the AI for Tanzania, Rwanda and DRC. The important point is that the availability and quality of the transport network was likely to have considerable bearing on the extent of urban interactions. Dense settlements in close proximity but without transport connectivity would have fewer interactions in comparison with better connected but further settlements.

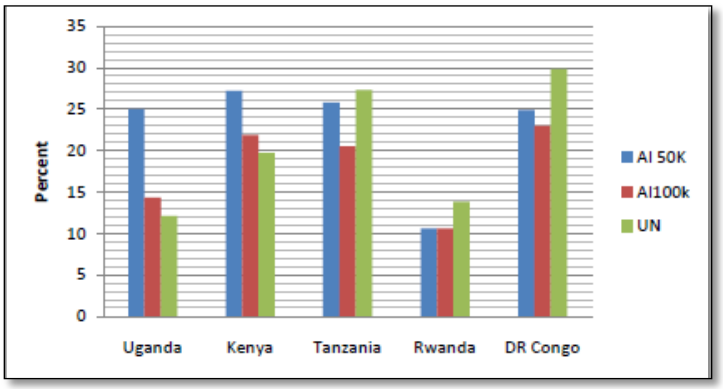


Figure 3: Agglomeration Index in the East African Community.
Source; Uchida and Nelson (2008)

3.3.2 Urban Dynamism in Uganda and Population Forecasts

At the core of the region's urban dynamism was undoubtedly the country's capital, Kampala City, which is the centre of a large, growing and spatially expanding urban agglomeration. With the location of the capital city Kampala in the central region, this is the most urbanized region in Uganda (table 8). However, the Inclusive Growth Policy Note 4 on Planning for Uganda's Urbanization indicates that the level of agglomeration, has grown rapidly in the Eastern region, having increased by 11.5% over the last decade (NPDP). In 2010, the Western region was the least agglomerated of the country's regions. Over the decade, the rate of agglomeration in this region has also been slower than in any other region of the country.

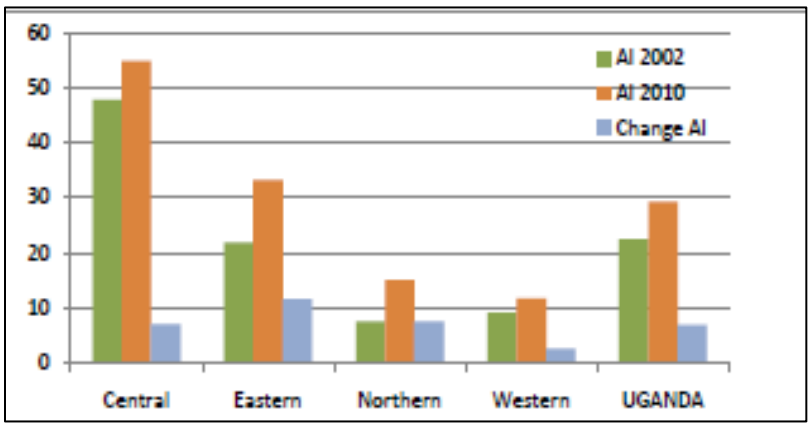


Figure 4; Population agglomeration at regional scale
Source; Mukwaya et al 2011

Table 8: Urban population across regions (2014)

Region	Urban	Percent
Central	3,868,218	40.6%
Eastern	1,172,648	13%
Northern	913,096	12.7%
Western	1,471,902	16.6%
Uganda	**7,425,864**	**21.4**

Source: UBOS 2014

Analysis further shows that Municipal Council had the biggest percentage (37.6%) of the urban population and the Town Councils had the lowest at 27.3% (table 9). This shows that the biggest number of urban areas (Town Councils) accommodate the least urban population yet a good number of them (50%) are quite big in terms of area coverage.

Table 9: Urban Population across urban centers, 2021

Region	Urban	Percent
Cities	3,866,025	35.1%
Municipalities	4,134,478	37.6%
Town Councils	3,003,942	27.3%
Total	**11,004,445**	**26.5%**

Within the Central region, growth has extended to Kampala's neighboring districts, creating several large satellite urban settlements, in particular within Wakiso District. These satellite settlements function today as suburbs of Kampala City, and have led to the emergence of the GKMA, which includes Wakiso, Mpigi and Mukono districts with a population of more than 4.3 million people in Uganda's largest urban settlements. Beyond the GKMA, the NPDP indicated that the highest concentration of the urban population along the Jinja Kampala-Masaka Corridor was in Buikwe District. Njeru Municipality and Jinja City created an urban agglomeration of around 300,000 inhabitants. Most urban settlements in Wakiso District have grown at an annual rate higher than 6%, with Kira MC, Kyengera and Kasangati Town Councils growing at more than 8%, while Wakiso and Kakiri Town Councils at more than 9%.

3.3.3 Gazetted Urban Councils in Uganda.

The 1969 and 1980 Population and Housing Censuses (P&HCs) defined urban areas to include gazetted urban centers (City, Municipalities and Town Councils) and ungazetted Trading Centers. The 1991 P&HC defined urban areas to include a population exceeding 1,000 persons. However, the 2002 and 2014 P&HCs defined urban areas to include only the gazetted urban centers (City, Municipalities, Town Councils and Town Boards) and ungazetted Trading Centers with a population exceeding 1,000 persons. The number of gazetted urban centers in the country has been increasing overtime due to the creation of new administrative units (districts). The period 2002-2014 saw a more rapid increase in the urban population, doubling from about 3 million to over 7 million. This increase was partly because of the natural population increase, an increase in the number of urban centers from 95 in 2002 to 259 in 2014. Findings indicate that by 2021 there was a total of 625 urban centres which has more than doubled since 2014 within a period of just 7 years (table 10) showing a percentage increase of 70.7%.

Table 10; Number of Gazetted Urban Centres by Type and Population, 1991– 2021

Type of Urban Centre	Population as per NUP	1969	1980	1991		2002		2014		2021	
				No	Popn.	No.	Popn.	No.	Popn.	No	Popn
Capital City		na	1	1	774,241	1	1,189,142	1	1,507,080	1	1,917,427
Cities	at least 300,000	na	na	0		0		0		10	1,948,598
Municipalities	between 50,000 and 299,000	na	2	13	480,922	13	745,036	33	3,249,609	31	4,134,478
Town Councils	between 10,000 and 50,000	na	34	33	338,901	61	1,065,209	163	2,361,033	583	3,003,942
Town Board		na	4	20	75,589	20	na	62	308,142	-	-
Total			**41**	**67**	**1,669,653**	**95**	**2,999,387**	**259**	**7,425,864**	**625**	**11,004,445**
% Increase			**37.9**		**41.4**			**70.7**			

The National Urban Policy (NUP) - 2017 provides for a criterion for classification, establishment and upgrading of urban areas. Urban area hierarchy is classified into 4 classes namely; metropolitan area, city, municipality and towns based on the population density, area and level of service. The requirements include;

- Minimum population densities of 3,000 people per sq/km for Cities, 1,600 per sq/km for Municipalities; 1,000 per sq/km for Town Councils; and 100 per sq/km for town boards;
- Minimum population size of 300,000 people for Cities; 80,000 people for Municipalities; 20,000 people for Town Councils; and 1,000 people for town boards,

- Minimum area of 100sq/kms for Cities; 80sq/kms for Municipalities; 20sq/kms for Town Councils; and 10sq/kms for town boards;
- Ability to meet its expenses, functionality, centrality and competitiveness.
- Other than a town board, an approved physical development plan with a compliance level of up to at least 50; and
- New urban centers shall be created during the National Physical Development planning process or event, at the City level it will be a National Physical Development Plan and at the municipal level a Regional Physical Development Plan.

Findings indicated that during the creation of these urban centres, none of the above criterion was followed, neither did they follow the criterion provided in the LGA schedule 3-part VI section 32. Further, analysis of the qualification of the current urban council by category was done to determine their viability for the status they hold and the results are indicated in tables 11, 12 and 13:

Table 11: Qualification of Cities using the National Urban Policy (2017) Criteria

		Min. Population Density (3,000)	Min. Population Size (300,000 People)	Min. Area (100 Km²)	Functionality (% local revenue to the budget)	Approved PDP	Built-up area (%)	Qualification
1	Kampala	7,321.7	1,428,455	195.1	15.6	✓	76.91	✓
2	Masaka	565.3	206,115	**364.6**	3.1	X	2.53	X
3	Fort Portal	725.3	93,054	128.3	6.1	X	4.28	X
4	Hoima	390.3	89,028	228.1	4.7	X	3.83	X
5	Mbarara	427.1	201,371	**471.5**	8.3	X	2.93	X
6	Soroti	3,618.5	108,916	30.1	5.5	X	6.35	X
7	Jinja	1,146.0	247,074	215.6	17.0	X	9.83	X
8	Mbale	1,590.2	254,915	160.3	3.7	X	10.87	X
9	Arua	765.0	308,362	**403.1**	51.0	X	3.74	X
10	Gulu	574.6	222,558	**387.3**	2.6	X	4.44	X
11	Lira	667.6	199,602	**299.0**	7.1	X	4.44	X

Based on Population Census 2014

- Based on the information above, it is clear that all Cities in Uganda save Kampala, did not qualify to be Cities based on the Urban Policy criteria by 2021.
- In terms of density, only Kampala and Soroti meet the minimum requirement for city status while Masaka, Hoima, Mbarara and Gulu fall way below the threshold.
- Only Kampala and Arua Cities met the minimum requirement under the population threshold while Soroti, Hoima, Fort portal and Lira are far below the threshold.
- All Cities met the minimum requirement for area however some Cities like Masaka, Lira, Gulu, Arua and Mbarara were too big which affected their density.
- The biggest areas of these Cities other than Kampala are typically rural which places a big financial burden in service provision to a populace that doesn't generate the requisite revenue.
- The biggest part of the Cities was under arable land save for Kampala with 76.9% built up coverage. The rest are typically rural areas with less than 10% built up coverage except Jinja and Mbale who stand at 10%. This proves that the selection of the Cities was based on political/administrative arrangement rather than the urban policy hence the discrepancy.
- Only Kampala city had an approved physical development plan, however, Fort portal, Jinja, Masaka and Hoima Cities were in the process of preparing new city PDPs while Jinja, Arua and Gulu had their PDPs on deposit.
- Using the functionality criterion, it was assumed that a functional urban council should be able to locally raise at least 50% of its budget. Under this criterion, only Arua met the requirement.

Table 12: Qualification of Municipalities using the urban policy (2017) criteria

No.	Municipality	Min. Population Size (80,000 People)	Min. Population Density (1,600)	Min. Area (80 Km²)	Functionality based local revenue	Approved PDP	Built-up area %	Qualification
1	Nansana	**365,124**	1,227.3	**297.5**	**15.5**	✓	6.72	x
2	Makindye Ssabagabo	283,272	**3,336.5**	84.9	9.9	✓	63.2	x
3	Kira	**317,157**	**3,288.6**	96.44	**26.4**	✓	72.49	x
4	Bushenyi	41,217	**456.4**	90.3	4.8	✓	1.65	x
5	Ntungamo	**18,719**	**367.5**	50.93	2.3	✓	4.44	x
6	Tororo	42,016	1,359.7	30.9	7.8	✓	8.97	x
7	Iganga	55,263	**7,675.4**	**7.2**	8.2	✓	72.53	x
8	Kumi	36,493	**392.4**	93.01	5.4	x	3.03	x
9	Kitgum	44,604	1506.9	**29.6**	2.8	✓	33.66	x
10	Nebbi	31,883	**589.3**	54.1	9.0	✓	1.00	x

- Based on the urban policy criteria, none of the selected Municipal Councils met the minimum requirements by 2021.
- Densities of some Municipalities were way above those of Cities e.g. Iganga, Kira, Makindye Ssabagabo and Nansana while in some Municipalities, the densities were way below the threshold like in Nebbi, Kumi, Ntungamo and Bushenyi Municipalities.
- The Municipalities that would qualify by population criteria include Nansana, Kira, Makindye Ssabagabo. The rest in the table, would qualify to be Town Councils if this criterion was followed. Furthermore, Ntungamo does not even qualify for Town Council status but rather town board.
- Based on the minimum area requirement, Iganga MC would not even qualify for Town Council status while only Kira, Bushenyi, Makindye Ssabagabo and Kumi Municipalities would qualify if the minimum area criteria were used.
- Other than Kumi, all the selected Municipalities in the study had approved PDPs.
- Using the functionality criterion, none of the Municipalities met this requirement. Ntungamo municipality was the worst performer with only 2.5% locally raised revenue.

One would therefore conclude that the expansion and upgrading of Municipalities in Uganda does not follow any systematic criteria but rather selective application which must be corrected by government.

Table 13: Qualification of Town Councils using the urban policy (2017) criteria

No.	Town Council	Min. Population Size (20,000 People)	Min. Population Density (1,000)	Min. Area (20Km²)	Built up (%)	Functionality based on local revenue	Approved PDP	Qualification
1	Kalisizo	13,981	855.6	16.34	6.3	-	✓	x
2	Kasangati	**125,715**	1,266.0	**99.3**	55.4	58.8	x	x
3	Kihihi	19,812	**397.0**	49.9	1.23	11.9	x	x
4	Kyenjojo	22,960	**238.6**	**96.22**	1	**36.5**	x	x
5	Kamwenge	19,286	282.4	**68.3**	1.9	**41.1**	x	x
6	Busiu	16,632	1,033.0	16.1	2.7	**36.4**	x	x
7	Buwenge	22,126	2,410.2	**9.18**	11.8	15.3	x	x
8	Aduku	**7,715**	**287.9**	26.8	0.7	**35.6**	✓	x
9	Pakwach	23,040	1,036.9	22.22	1.4	**19.6**	✓	x
10	Dokolo	20,135	**224.2**	**89.8**	0.7	25.4	✓	x

- Based on the urban policy criteria, none of the selected Town Councils met the minimum requirements by 2021.

- In terms of population size, only Kasangati, Kyenjojo, Buwenge, Pakwach and Dokolo met the policy requirement. However, Aduku TC was the outlier with very low population.
- For density, Kasangati, Busiu, Buwenge and Pakwach would qualify for Town Council status but Dokolo, Aduku, Kamwenge, Kyenjojo and Kihihi were outliers with very low densities.
- Using the minimum area criteria, Kasangati, Kyenjojo, Kamwenge and Dokolo were way above the threshold (above 90km^2) which was also above the requirement for Town Councils. On the other hand, Buwenge was way below the threshold for the minimum area requirement.
- Using the PDP requirement, Kalisizo, Pakwach and Dokolo would qualify for Town Council status.

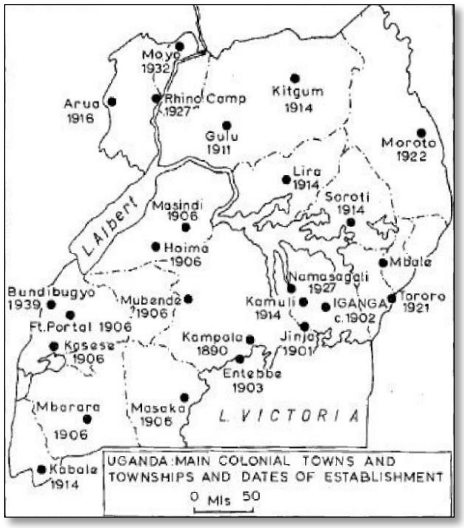
Based on the above analysis, it is evident that by 2021, the urban councils save for Kampala do not qualify for the status they currently hold. There was a mismatch between the policy requirements and the capacity of the urban councils to meet the set requirements. This therefore calls for a policy review to bridge the gap between the set standards and the situation on ground. There should also be a very clear criteria for allocation of resources and this should be known to the end-users so that they strive to improve on their performance.

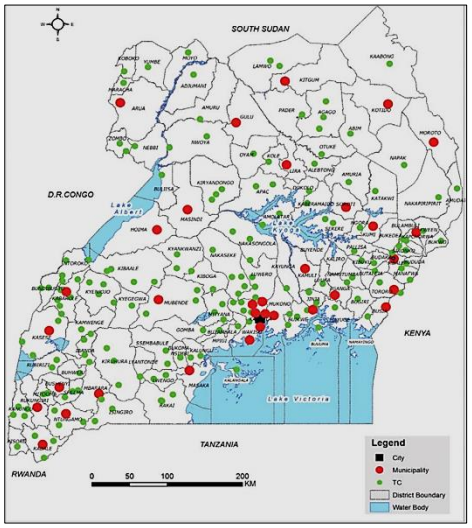
3.3.4 Key drivers of urbanization in Uganda

Urban expansion through reclassification of land use from rural to urban; Spatial expansion during creation of Cities and Municipalities in Uganda involved demarcation of the boundaries of selected urban areas and annexing adjacent townships and rural areas.

Administrative reclassifications; beyond pure spatial expansion, administrative reclassifications have influenced the pace and magnitude of urbanization. For purposes of achieving the required minimum area, the upgrading of some urban councils has led to annexing rural areas which compromises on food security and constrains provision of services. There has been a proliferation of new districts over the past 25 years from 35 in 1986 to 45 in 1998, 112 in 2010 and 160 by 2020. These new district headquarters are automatically gazetted as Town Councils reclassifying the population as urban irrespective of the level of development. These are operating without the requisite staff, tools, equipment, office space which compromise on their functionality. One can therefore conclude that what was referred to as urban in the Ugandan context was actually not when you consider the characteristics of an urban areas at a global scale.
From the above analysis, the process of classification, creating and upgrading of urban areas did not follow the set criteria stipulated in the National Urban policy. Therefore, there was lack of adequate urban development interventions both at central and Local Government levels to enable the provision of the required services, infrastructure and ensuring of productive, sustainable and livable urban areas.

It is therefore recommended that an effective mechanism for coordination of the implementation of the urban policy with regard to review of existing urban areas be done so that all Central Government and Local Government interventions fall in line with the set legal and policy frameworks in order to stimulate sustainable economic productivity and functional towns. The MoLG and the MoFP&ED should ensure that urban Local Governments deliver on the revenue, services and infrastructure requirements specified.





Map 1: Transitioning of Uganda's urban centres from colonial times to date.

3.3.5 Hierarchy of Urban Settlements and future population 2040

The Uganda NPDP 2018 – 2040 defines the new hierarchy of urban settlements based on the assumptions that the Average Annual Growth Rate (AAGR) will go down from the present 3.01%, the Annual Urbanization Rate (AUR) will also go down in GKMA - compared to the present 6.2%, yet still be significant in other urban Cities and towns. This assumes a conscious effort to divert the disproportional growth of Kampala as a mega-metropolis and primate city towards structured urban growth all over the country. The strategy favours planned urbanization along the corridors. In light of these positions, urbanization was expected to be significant with about 50% of the population living in urban areas by 2060.

The NPDP also projects the total urban population to be 30 million by 2040, and the urban population forecast in big settlements (more than 50,000) to be 24.1 million. Table 14 therefore, shows the proposed distribution of urban population by regions.

Table 14: Projected Urban Population by Region.

Region:	Central	Eastern	Northern	Western	Total
Population	11,350,000	3,430,000	4,250,000	5,170,000	24,100,000
Percent	47%	14.1%	17.5%	21.4%	100.0%

Source; NPDP 2018-2040.

There was no evidence that any location theory or long-range vision for a general settlement pattern was used as a guiding tool for urban areas in Uganda. That spatial order was a planning concept which was completely alien to the human settlement system in Uganda and "Spatial Disorder" is a better indicator for describing the situation (NPDP 2018-2040).

The current state of urban development in Uganda indicated the form of urban centers which was mostly linear, especially settlements that developed since independence (1962). Many colonial town centers have changed little in their form, building stock and infrastructure, and tended to feature rectilinear street patterns with single story structures making up a relatively small (1 - 2 km2) Central Business District (CBD). The only multi-story buildings tended to house banks or hotels, though the central axes of some towns did include rows of two-four story structures combining retail with residence. In secondary towns, land use was often limited to commercial structures along central arterial roads, a small industrial quarter on the outskirts near an intercity road intersection, and residential districts with small retail filling the spaces between homes. Most homesteads outside of both the grid of the CBD and the informal squatter settlements had some portion of the plots engaged in agriculture or animal husbandry.

Urban centers in the country are characterized by informal sprawl with high unemployment nearly three times higher than in rural areas, poor service delivery and limited government controls on land use, transport modes, emissions, or building standards (NPDP 2018-2040). There was low public sector investment in infrastructure and in affordable housing for the average urban resident which has led to numerous environmental and social problems.

Rates of unplanned urbanization are also high, ranging from 85.5% to 93% across the country (NPDP 2018-2040). Slums and informal settlements, along with planning and management deficiencies, severely affect the Ugandan city livability and environmental quality. The slum and the related informal settlement problem has accumulated over time and created a daunting task of urban renewal. It has made development works next to impossible by posing complex environmental, social, economic and spatial challenges.

3.3.6 Urbanization and the Planning of Spatial Development for Urban Centers in Uganda

3.3.6.1 Spatial Development of Urban Centers

Urbanization comes the need for integrated physical planning to organize and establish the optimal use of land for the various activities in order to achieve the desired form of social and economic development. The Government of Uganda, through the Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development (MLHUD) and the

Ministry of Local Government (MoLG) together with Urban Authorities/Local Governments, they are charged with the mandate to ensure that growth and development of urban areas in Uganda was realized in a planned and orderly manner.

Urban expansion in Uganda was characterized by reclassification of land use from rural to urban through spatial expansion by annexing the adjacent townships and rural areas, converting farmlands and villages into urban areas. This expansion is estimated at 8.8% p.a which is much faster than the global rate of urbanization. Beyond spatial expansion, administrative reclassifications have influenced the pace and magnitude of urbanization. For all the different urban area classifications, it is only the Cities and Municipalities which require master plans (PDP), water services and capacity to provide services before gazettement. The growth of urban areas in Uganda has been unplanned – with high rates of spatial expansion and unplanned growth, lack of integration between sectoral and spatial planning, inadequate provision of basic services, weak urban management capacity and significant fiscal constraints (LNANnet Uganda 2017). As a consequence, congestion and chaotic development was setting in making it impossible to develop organized living.

By international standards, 48.3% of those living in the urban areas of Uganda are slum dwellers[1] as compared to 47.7% Burundi, 46.5% Kenya, 42.1% Rwanda and 91.1% South Sudan while the East African region stands at 58.3% (Lars Kamer, 2022). These live in unplanned neighbourhoods, with poor road network, poor drainage, sanitation and waste disposal characterized by solid waste dumping in the neighbourhoods and liquid waste disposal into the water sources leading to contamination of water sources and increase in disease especially during the rainy season. The urban sector study 2021, revealed that the national average of House Hold (HH) living in slums was at 20% with Municipalities taking the highest share at 21.6% followed by Cities at 20% and Town Councils at 18.3%. The western region recorded the highest percentage of HH living in slums at 25%, followed by eastern at 21.6%, northern at 18.3% and central with 15%. The low percentage for central region could be attributed to the self-upgrading of some slum areas such as Katanga, Kikoni, Kivulu, Kisenyi etc.

3.3.6.2 Spatial Development trends (1990 – 2020)

Analysis of the built up within urban areas was done for the period 1990 and 2020. It was determined that serious urbanization started in the early 1990s with a built-up area of 262.72Km^2. The built-up area was in form of small concentration areas of Kampala, Entebbe, Mbarara, Kasese, Kabarole, Hoima, Masaka, Mityana, Jinja, Mbale, Soroti, Lira, Gulu and Arua among others. These formed the major urban centres then formed along major transportation routes. In the year 2000, expansion of the already existing urban centres and the creation of new ones saw the increase in coverage to 360.27km^2 with a 4.3% change from that of 1990. In 2010 the built-up area increased to 956.69km^2 showing a 26.1% change. This further grew to 2,546.38km^2 in the year 2020 a 69.6% change within a nine-year period (table 15).

The huge outward expansion was mainly due to re-establishment of political stability and recovery of positive economic development in Uganda as a whole. The variation in the 29-year interval between 1990 and 2019 indicates a declining trend in the urban density which is attributed to the increase in number and size of urban areas rather than population and the actual built-up area.

Table 15: Development Trends between 1990 - 2020

Year	Population	Area (Km2)	Change (km2)	% Change	Density
1990	1,922,173	262.72	0.00	0.00	7,316.43
2000	3,496,913	360.27	97.55	4.27	9,706.37
2010	6,285,551	956.69	59.64	26.12	6,570.10
2020	10,784,514	2,546.38	1,589.70	69.61	4,235.23

[1] A slum household is defined as a group of individuals living under the same roof lacking one or more of the following conditions: access to improved water, access to improved sanitation, sufficient living area and durability of housing (WB).

Preparation and Implementation of Urban Development Plans

There are two types of development plans being prepared and implemented in ULGs. These include physical and economic 5-year development plans. Physical planning encompasses deliberate determination of spatial patterns with an aim of achieving the most optimum level of land utilization in a sustainable manner. Physical Development Plans provide the tools, mechanisms and processes established by the Physical Planning Act (PPA) 2010 (amended 2020) for controlling urban land use and development; developing and amending urban and local government physical development plans and requirements for processing applications for planning permits.

In 2006, the Government established a Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development (MLHUD) mandated to ensure rational and sustainable use; effective management of land and security of tenure; orderly development of urban and rural areas, as well as safe, planned and adequate housing for socio-economic development.

MLHUD embarked upon forward planning in order to determine how and where development should take place at both the centre and local government level.

Within the Ministry, the Directorate of Physical Planning and Urban Development has provided policy guidance and technical support to Local Governments (LGs) on how to design and implement physical development plans that would adequately respond to their current and future development needs.

Further, with support from the MLHUD, the World Bank, and UN Habitat, several urban councils are currently reviewing and re-designing their PDPs.

The Directorate of Physical Planning and Urban Development also conducts annual urban planning needs assessments.

The 1998 Restructuring Exercise on MDAs disbanded the Ministry of Housing and Urban Development (MHUD) which led to the distribution of its functions to two newly created Ministries then; (i) the Ministry of Lands, Water and Environment and (ii) the Ministry of Works, Housing and Communications (MoWHC). The physical planning function was placed under the Physical Planning Department of the MoWHC.

Another notable development in forward planning was the implementation of the Lands Information systems (LIS)

Project, which is integrating all spatial and alpha numerical aspects of land administration, land registration and cadastral data managed by the MLHUD.

The Ministry also developed the National Urban Policy, which among others, determine the urban development trends and patterns, and spell out resource usage to enable Ugandans exploit the potential of urban areas as engines of economic growth.

3.3.6.3 Availability of PDPs in Urban Councils

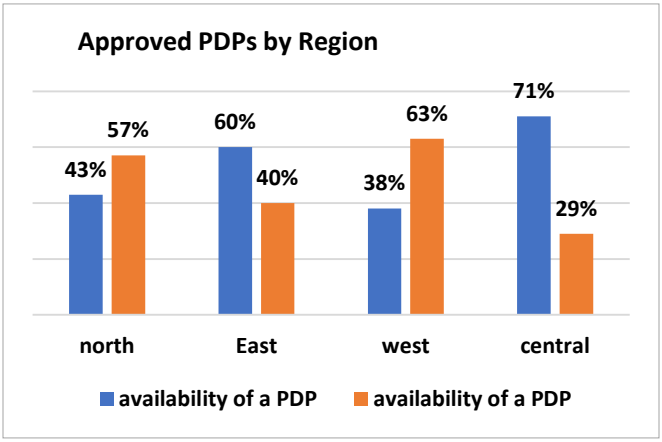
Over 90% of the urban councils had no approved PDPs to guide development yet Cities Municipalities and Town Councils were growing rapidly. The availability of PDPs in urban councils was still very low (8.3%) at national level (MLHUD) as per table 16. Municipalities had the highest at 35% while Town Councils had the least at 6.9%.

Table 16: Availability of valid PDPs

No.	Level of ULG	Number of ULGS	ULGs with PDP	%ge coverage
1	Cities	11	1	9.1
2	Municipalities	31	11	35.5
3	Town Council	583	40	6.9
	Total	625	52	8.3

Source: MLHUD

Other than Kampala, the rest of the Cities found with PDPs, their plans were not comprehensive (covering the entire city boundary) while those that had attempted to prepare them were still in draft form (e.g., Fort Portal, Jinja, Arua and Gulu). For the 573 urban councils without PDPs (91.7%), lack of finances was cited as the biggest handicap. At the regional level, the Central region (60%) and Eastern region (71%) had the highest percentage of urban councils with approved PDPs while the Western region had the lowest urban councils with approved PDPs at 38%.



Urban Councils with updated Physical Development Plans were 67 % and only 48 % of the towns had up-to-date PDPs. This shows that whereas the majority of the municipal councils had updated PDPs (table15), there was direct need for creation of PDPs for the newly gazetted urban centres.

Furthermore, on average 46% of all gazetted urban centers had up-to-date PDPs. Whereas most Municipal Councils 67% had up-to-date PDPs, less than half of the Town Councils (48 %) had up-to-date PDPs and this needs to be addressed promptly (table 18).

Table 17: Number of gazetted urban centers with/without plans

Description of Status	City Councils	Municipal Councils	Town Councils	Total
Number of gazetted urban centers	11	31	583	625
Number with up-to-date PDPs	1	17	40	58
Number requiring updating of existing plans	10	11	77	98
Number with only PDP available but no Detailed Plans	-	1	15	16
Detailed plan available but no PDP	0	1	1	2
Both PDP and Detailed Plans available	1	5	45	51

Source; MLHUD Statistical Abstract 2016

Majority (75%) of the urban PDPs were valid for 10 years whereas those spanning for a period of 20 years were only 25%, (Figure 3). It is desirable that urban PDPs should span for a shorter term or period due to high rate of urban development with a lot of demographics, social, economic and environmental changes that definitely necessitate timely review of the plans to match with current realities.

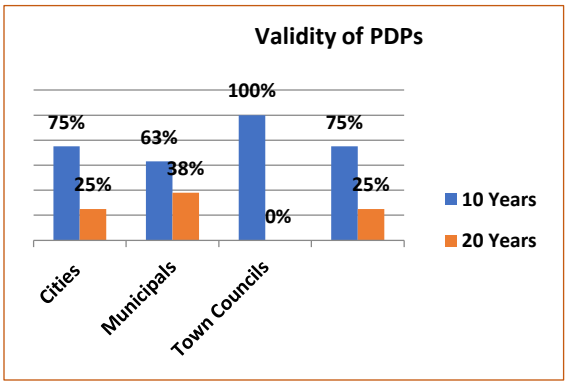


Figure 5: Validity of Physical Development Plans
Source: Urban study 2022

Implementation of PDPs was the main challenge facing the urban councils. Majority (60%) of urban councils implemented between 1 to 40% of their PDPs[2] (Figure 4). Most Town Councils (48%) had only implemented between 1 to 10% while Municipalities at 33%, had only implemented between 11 to 20%.

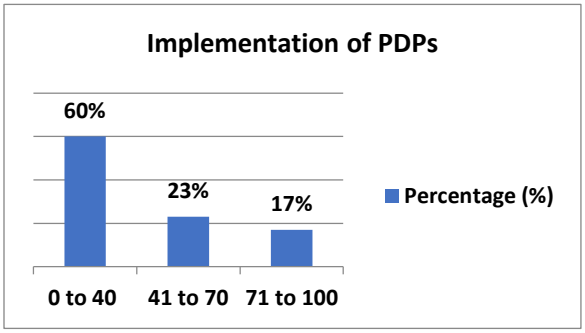


Figure 6: Implementation of Physical Development Plans
Source: Urban study 2022

The average of implementation of PDPs in Uganda's urban areas was only at 10%. The implication was that most PDPs were not implemented during their life span. The low level of implementation of the urban PDPs was attributed to numerous challenges faced by the urban councils which among others included: the complex land tenure system which makes land acquisition very costly, inadequate funding and non-prioritization of physical planning activities by the ULGs, urban poverty, weak institutional and enforcement capacity among others.

3.3.6.4 Level of Detailed Planning in Urban Areas in Uganda

Much as information shows urban councils had detailed PDPs, some of the referred to plans were either outmoded or had not been approved by the respective councils. For the case of TCs, what was available was mainly work done by students on internship while Cities had plans which were prepared majorly in the early sixties with no efforts of reviewing and updating them.

Their area coverage was also still small (10%) as illustrated in figure 7. This probably explains the high level of informality evident in Uganda's urban areas. Cities and Municipalities had area coverage of 10% while Town Councils had 5%. Majority of the urban councils save for Cities; their level of coverage was between 1 and 30%. It was also noted that there were some Cities with detailed plan coverage between 61% to 100%. However, this was based on the old administrative boundaries (which were smaller before they became Cities).

[2] The statistics are based on estimates by the technical officers from the various sampled councils.

Table 18; Coverage of detailed plans in urban category

Urban Council	% Coverage of detailed plans										Average
	0- 10	11 - 20	21- 30	31- 40	41- 50	51- 60	61- 70	71 - 80	81 - 90	91 - 100	
City	0	0	0	29	0	0	29	14	14	14	10
Municipal	11	33	22	11	0	0	11	0	0	11	10
Town Council	6	13	13	0	0	6	6	6	0	0	5
Total	**8**	**21**	**17**	**13**	**0**	**4**	**17**	**8**	**4**	**8**	**10**

Source; Urban study 2022

Regionally, central had the least coverage of DPDPs followed by the Western region 4% and 6% respectively (Figure 7) yet, these two regions had the largest percentage of built-up area. This was, however, attributed to lack of prioritization of planning and implementation of PDPs. The Central Government needs to develop a rewards and sanctions policy that would drive the preparation and implementation of DPDPs as a way of achieving the long-term proposals of the PDPs.

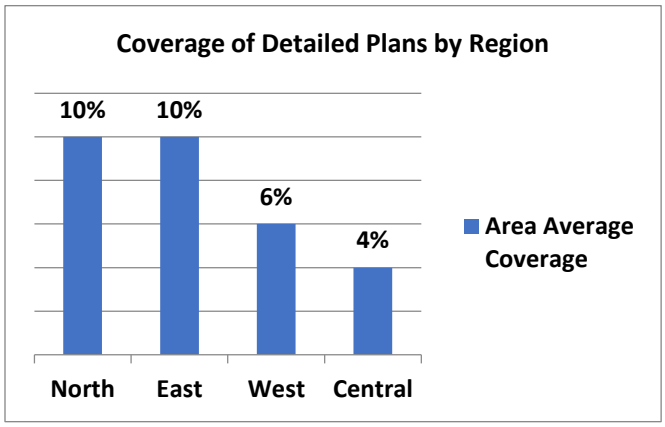


Figure 7: Coverage of Detailed Physical Plans at Regional Level
Source: Urban Study, 2022

The study further revealed that although the urban authorities had undertaken some activities relating to the process of preparing detailed plans, none had plans covering the entire administrative boundary except for Moroto Municipality. It was noted that all urban authorities were grossly underfunded for them to afford detailed planning and implementation.

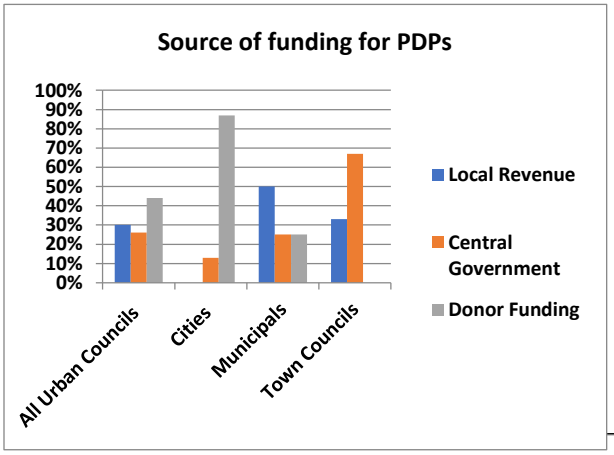
The biggest number of urban councils (25%) had implemented between 31 to 40% of DPDPs. Most of the TCs (48%) had only implemented between 1 to 10% of their DPDPs, MCs (33%) between 11 to 20% as indicated in table 19.

Table 19: Rate of Implementation of Detailed Plans by Urban Councils

Urban Council	Implementation of DPDPs (%)										Average
	0 - 10	11 - 20	21 - 30	31 - 40	41 - 50	51 - 60	61 - 70	71 - 80	81 - 90	91 - 100	
City	0	0	0	29	0	0	29	14	14	14	10
Municipal	11	33	11	22	0	0	11	0	0	11	10
Town Council	48	26	0	4	11	0	0	11	0	0	10
Total	**9**	**19**	**6**	**25**	**0**	**0**	**19**	**6**	**6**	**13**	**10**

Source; Field survey

3.3.6.5 Source of funding for preparation of PDPS



The major source of funding for PDP preparation in urban councils was donor funding (44%) as illustrated in figure 17. Cities majorly depended more on donor funding at 87% (Figure 8).

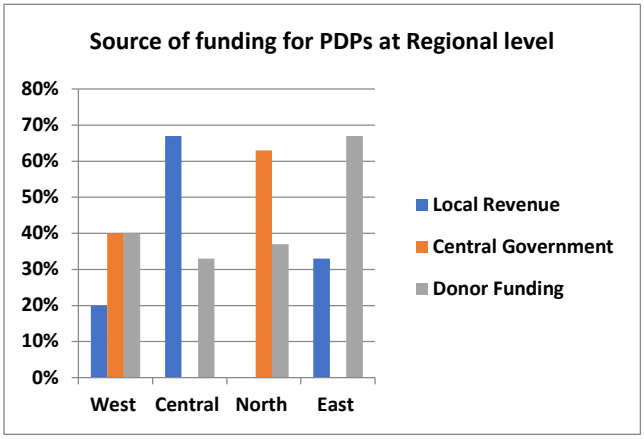
Figure 8: Sources of Funding for Physical Planning at urban levels
Source: Urban Study, 2022

Municipal councils relied more on local revenue (50%) while Central Government was the major source of funding for Town Councils at 67%. This calls for the Central Government to increase financial support as well as

enhancing capacity of urban councils to prepare and implement PDPs.

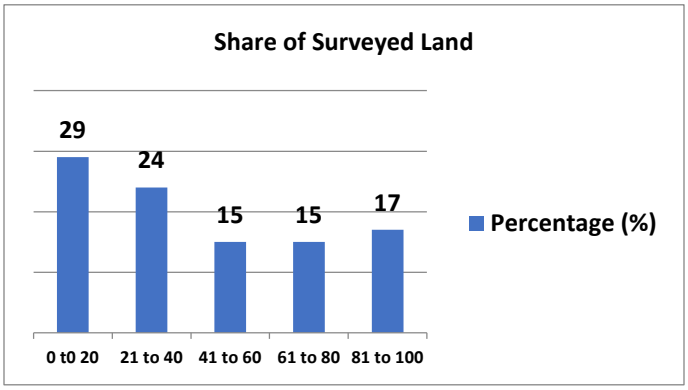
At the regional level, Central region mainly depended on locally raised revenue to fund their PDPs at 67%, whereas the Northern region depended on central government funding at 63% and Eastern region relied on donor funding at 66% (Figure 9). The Western region depended equally on central government and donor funding both contributing 40% each. There was need therefore, for the Central Government to balance its support in other regions for equitable and balanced urban development so as to avoid urban polarization. There was also a need for a well streamlined criteria for selection and funding of urban local governments during the preparation of PDPs.

Figure 9: Sources of Funding for Physical Planning at Regional Level
Source: **Urban Study, *2022***



3.3.6.6 Urban Land Surveys

The study indicated that none of the sampled urban councils had evidence of geographical coordinates for their administrative boundaries. It was further noted that majority of urban councils were using local council chairpersons to identify the extent of their boundaries as beacons. This had created a lot of boundary conflicts over revenue collection between urban councils. In addition, there were scenarios where developers found themselves partially in two urban councils which raised challenges of where to pay taxes and licenses. However, it should be noted that it is costly to survey administrative boundaries of these urban councils but at the same time it wasn't a priority for the central government.



Source: Urban Study 2022

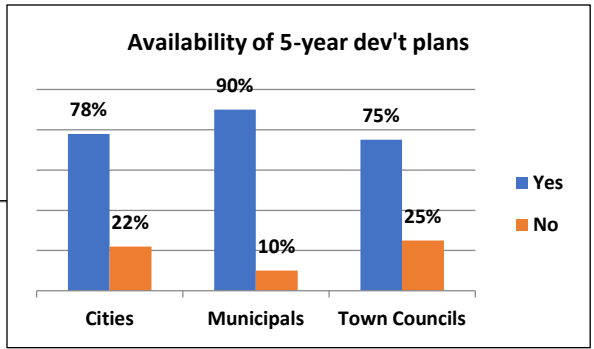
As regards the coverage of surveyed land in urban councils, 29% of the urban councils had less than 20% of their land surveyed (Figure 10). This means that most of the land in urban areas was not surveyed. The implication here was that the largest share of urban residents was occupying land that was neither surveyed nor registered. The lack of surveys in urban areas constrains physical planning efforts during the preparing and implementing local PDPs.

Figure 10: Coverage of Surveyed Land in Urban Councils.

3.3.6.7 Five Year Development Plans in ULGs

A 5-year development plan is a government development program of planned, coordinated and cumulative economic and social development in a period of five years. I the urban study it was noted that majority of urban councils (81%) had 5-year development plans (FYDP) as indicated in figure 20. Municipal councils recorded the highest at 90%. It was also observed that some Cities like Arua and Gulu did not have 5-year development plans at the time of the study. This was because some Cities were newly created and had not yet prepared the 5-year development plan for the city while others were in process of developing the plans as many had expired in June 2020. Ideally, development projects for budgetary allocation during the annual budgetary process must be derived from the 5 Year Development Plan. Hence, absence of 5-year development plans hinders service delivery.

Figure 11: Availability of 5 Year Development Plan in Urban Councils.



Source: Urban Study, 2022

At regional level, Wsestern region recorded a very good performance (100%). Some urban councils in the Eastern (14%) and central (20%) regions lacked these plans while the situation was worst in northern region with 43% (Figure 11).

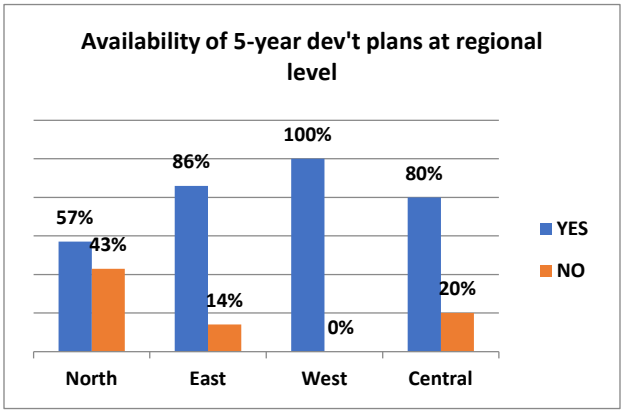


Figure 12: Availability of 5 Year Development Plan in Urban Councils.
Source: Urban Study 2022

The urban study revealed that priority was given more to the five-year development plan as opposed to the PDPs (Tables 20 and 21). This could be attributed to the cost and process of preparing these two different plans and the conditions attached.

Table 20: Comparison between PDP and FYDP at urban council level

Urban Council	Number	PDP	FYDP
Cities	11	1	7
Municipalities	10	8	9
Town Councils	10	1	6

Table 21: Comparison between PDP and FYDP at regional level

Region	% PDP	%FYDP
West	38	100
North	43	57
East	60	86
Central	71	80

3.3.7 Urban Renewal

A great number of historical urban centers had started to lose importance due to accelerated unguided urban development and industrialization pressures. Their history was crowded with limited planning and development control. Therefore, at the turn of the millennium, the historical urban councils and the new centers need a complete renewal. Additionally, the economic and social changes that have occurred since independence, subsequent economic collapse in the 1970s and 1980s and during the liberalization period of 1986 and beyond had long-term effects on the use of land in urban councils. The required interventions will as a matter of priority entail renewal to guide the regeneration of organized development in Uganda's Cities.

There have been no substantive efforts towards urban renewal in Uganda however what exists was unconscious self-initiatives driven by demand and supply for land in urban areas. The demand for land in highly urbanized areas with high land values has pushed development into informal settlements such as Kisenyi, Katanga, Kivulu and Kagugube in Kampala. However, though the areas have taken on a new look in terms of physical structures, the form and design have remained informal and as such created a modern look to informality. This was because there was no clearly defined program to guide the renewal process. In areas where deliberate efforts were made, like in Namuwongo (Kampala) and Walukuba (Jinja), the process either failed or was never completed due complexities in social cultural dynamics, availability of resources and politics of the day. It should also be noted, that the self-initiated renewal leads to displacement of the original inhabitants without a proper resettlement action plan and those replaced start a new slum, the case of Namuwongo and Wabigalo in Kampala.

3.3.8 Urbanization and urban development challenges, potentials and opportunities

Although Uganda has a low urbanisation rate of around 26.5% (the percentage of people who live in urban centres), its urban population growth rate was one of the highest in the world. This rapid growth is associated with numerous challenges as discussed below;

- Urban growth in Uganda has not been accompanied by economic transformation a phenomenon sometimes called "urbanisation without growth". The urban youth dependency was large, while the urban working age population remains relatively small. The result was that many urban centers now have large numbers of unemployed youth. With limited structural changes, urban employment majorly was in informal activities. Roughly 65% of the new jobs created in urban centres have not been effective at inducing sustainable wage growth in non-tradable services, and from very small firms. If this continues, it could have a large impact on the quality of urban and economic development in Uganda.

- Lack of good quality national and regional public transport infrastructure was also a challenge. This means that many Cities – including Kampala and other urban councils are not adequately connected to external markets nationally and internationally, limiting the growth of urban industries and other associated employment opportunities. Uganda's Northern region, and to a lesser extent the Eastern and Western regions had lower levels of asset ownership (other than land), infrastructure provision, market access and access to services (Better Growth, Better Cities - 2016).

- The Urban footprint was growing faster than urban population**.** Urban sprawl, a spatial phenomenon used to describe the suburbanization was occurring in Ugandan urban centres. Whether horizontally spreading, dispersed urbanization or peri-urbanization, the physical extent of urban areas in Uganda was growing much faster than their population, thereby consuming more land for urban development. The unbridled expansion of urban areas has profound implications for energy consumption, greenhouse gas emissions, climate change and environmental degradation. In Uganda, during the process of creating urban areas, authorities struggle to raise the required population for the status they seek and as a result they annex neighbouring rural areas in a bid to meet the required population size. Virtually rural areas are converted into urban areas especially for the newly created Cities. If unchecked, this trend will convert the entire country into urban in the next 50 years.

- Migration was one of the main factors driving the country's increase in urbanization, and in the process, it was making urban areas cosmopolitan. Rising migration brings both opportunities and challenges for the migrants, hosting communities and the urban local governments. Cities are also on the frontlines of irregular migration, defined as movement that takes place outside the regulatory norms of the sending, transit and receiving country. The biggest portion of the migrating population do not have skills and as such do not have any value addition to the development of the receiving areas but rather present a very big burden to the urban authorities especially in terms of service provision. The migrants have also been associated with slum development traits as was the case with Kisenyi in Kampala city.

- Rising levels of inequality and exclusion are becoming persistent trends in urban areas where most of the population growth will occur over the next 30 years. For most of the country's urban population, income inequality has increased since 1980. This means that people living in urban areas are experiencing higher income inequalities than they were a generation ago. The nature of inequality largely depends on what happens in urban areas. Inequality within Cities has economic, social and spatial manifestations and is characterized by differentiated access to income, consumption, opportunities, employment, health, education, technology, public spaces, municipal services and private goods. Urban councils are demarcated by visible and invisible divides resulting in various forms of social, cultural and economic exclusion. Inequality strongly affects vulnerable groups like women and girls, older persons, indigenous people, persons with disabilities, migrants, refugees,

street children and people living in poverty, all of whom are excluded from full participation in economic, political and social life. The outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic has further exacerbated these inequalities.

- Affordable and adequate housing was still an illusion for many. Housing affordability was a global challenge that affects virtually all households. Prospective homeowners are compelled to save more than five times their annual income to afford the price of a standard house. Renter households often spend more than 25 % of their monthly income on rent. High levels of unaffordability means that rental housing and slums remain the only housing option for low-income households. Slums represent one of the most enduring faces of poverty, inequality, exclusion and deprivation.

- Climate change was one of the most pervasive challenges facing Cities in Uganda today. Urban areas are both the source of the majority of the world's carbon emissions and home to the majority of the country's population that are victims of climate change. Although there is less impacts of climate change on our urban areas, more intense and variable precipitation was increasing the threat of flooding – a problem exacerbated by the growing number of developments in marginal lands like wetlands especially in the peri-urban areas. Migration from rural areas to urban areas was increasing as climate stresses increase in agriculture and rural areas, increasing pressure on inadequate services and stimulating more slums and urban sprawl. Urban councils must explore ways to generate local financing for adaptation and resilience investments.

- The country's urbanization is taking place within the context of a shortfall in the funding available for urban development programmes. There was an increasing need to develop and utilize a broad range of alternatives for financing urban development. Tapping into these resources requires innovation on the part of urban leaders to convert their urban challenges into well-defined and financially viable projects capable of bridging and potentially surpassing the investment gap. Other possibilities that can be explored are municipal bonds, strengthening the revenue capacity of local governments, improving central-local fiscal transfers, mobilizing resources from land-based finance, strengthening the financial capacities of public service utilities, expanding and deepening capital market provision of housing and real estate financing and making more effective use of public financing (e.g., smart and well-targeted subsidies) to leverage private financing.

- The country's urbanization is creating a big challenge for the urban authorities to grapple with inadequate staffing levels. The staffing in several urban authorities was not commensurate to their size and ever-increasing growth in the population. For example, Kampala, which was divided into five administrative divisions, has one planner for each Division; Jinja, Mbale and Arua – which are sizeable urban authorities also have one planner per division. The adequate number would be five planners per division. It was incredulous that one urban planner can effectively design a plan for a city with four or five Divisions.

- It is very difficult in Uganda to critically and systematically analyze urban issues. This was because research is limited, scattered and not coordinated. There is not central depository of the scanty data generated due to lack of a data base. UBOS the institution responsible for generating such data has not made effort to disaggregate data to urban level.

3.3.8.1 Recommendations for strengthening smart the urbanization process

The findings demonstrated a range of benefits to Uganda from supporting a national urban transition based on a better model of urban growth. The country must grapple with ongoing urban challenges, which cannot be solved overnight. Below are some of the recommendations:

Invest in nation-wide integrated economic and spatial planning. Integrated urban planning at a national level, is central to any approach. The issues related to urban areas do not fit neatly into one government agency,

and therefore requires cross-sector coordination. There is need to decide on whether one agency should be mandated to manage both administrative and development issues in these urban councils. Therefore, the government should ensure integrated planning by creating a cross-sector urban development group to coordinate governance and spatial issues. This would include all the major ministries covering transport, finance, energy and environment. This team could be a new coordination mechanism (clearing house) or build on existing ones e.g., through the National Planning Authority. The team should coordinate the activities of the NDPIII, Vision 2040, Strategic Sector Investment Plans, the ongoing National Physical Development Plan, and urban policy. It should also focus on issues such as land tenure, incorporating green growth considerations, and on identifying priority urban infrastructure and economic needs. The issue of administration must come on board because it coordinates all the above aspects.

- There is need for investing in better strategic land-use planning to reduce sprawl and this is a highly cost-effective intervention. This should be complemented by a range of large-scale sustainable public transport related investments within Cities, such as a bus network for Kampala, and a BRT for Kampala, Mbarara, Mbale, and Gulu.

- There is need at the city level to supplement national level planning efforts. The government should review existing metropolitan governance structures to ensure coordinated and enhanced urban planning at the city-level to assist in the preparation of integrated land use, transport plans and investment for all urban areas. This will not only aid the proactive management of existing challenges, but also help in raising investment, particularly for sustainable public transport.

- Enhance the technical and financial capacity of all urban institutions to plan and manage better urban authorities. Designing and implementing physical plans, in addition to managing urban areas, are complex processes that require adequate staff that are both qualified and competent. This therefore, calls for the restructuring of the current urban staffing structure.

- Efforts to improve financing flows to urban local governments should also be considered through greater local fiscal autonomy (e.g., through tax collection), increasing the creditworthiness of urban authorities to enhance their borrowing and debt raising potential for sustainable urban infrastructure, and working closely with the private sector to develop public-private partnerships for infrastructure investment.

- The urban authorities should prioritize the activity of preparing detailed plans following approved urban PDPs and ensure that all developments are guided by approved detailed plans if the approved PDPs are to be translated into well planned neighborhoods. In a bid to counter underfunding, professional bodies should encourage pro-bono services to the neediest urban authorities. Government should also establish how much is required for local governments to prepare detailed plans, assess their capacity and accordingly devise appropriate strategies to support those with capacity constraints.

- Support urban physical planning and urban systems development. Government has intervened in KCCA and the newly created eight Cities by securing donor funding for institutional strengthening targeting special urban capacity needs through USMID – AF, IDA and Global Green Growth Institute (GGGI). Government should identify additional funding for the rest of the urban council's overtime to create institutional strengthening and improve efficiency in delivery of key urban services, infrastructure and better management of urbanization in their areas of jurisdiction.

- The MLHUD working with the urban councils should as a matter of urgency take up the matter to ensure that part of urban local revenue resources is channeled to support urban physical planning and urban systems development. Urban councils should be supported to implement policies, plans

and strategies for urban development such as instituting urban management information systems and building capacity of the user department officials.

- Increase active participation of the youth in urban development programs. In order to harness their potential, the Government, with support from Development Partners must make the right investments in their education and learning and also provide them with relevant skills, such that they get employed and/or create their own jobs. In addition, the Government should avail opportunities for apprenticeship.

- The Government of Uganda is committed to implementing the initiatives of the New Habitat Agenda such as the compact city concept which should be incorporated into urban plans at all levels. Greater compaction is imperative in order to promote optimum use of land, optimization of existing urban infrastructure and preservation of the environment. High rise development should be promoted to optimize land use and reduce infrastructure costs that are typically associated with horizontal housing developments.

- UBOS should start to disaggregates data for urban LGs. This will go a long way to encourage ULGs to generate such information but at the same time inform their decision making in the management of their councils. The MLHUD should prepare annual abstracts for urban data and support these urban authorities to generate data on urban development.

Chapter Four

4.0 Governance and management of urban authorities in Uganda

Urban Governance and management focus on how urban LGs and other stakeholders, put in place comprehensive mechanisms and processes through which citizens can effectively articulate their interests, mediate their differences, and exercise their legal rights and obligations. Urban governance and administration involve promoting accountable and transparent institutional frameworks that responds and benefit society and also strive to eradicate all forms of exclusion among the urban populace. Cities and urban councils are legal entities and are mandated to handle all local matters affecting their inhabitants in their area of jurisdiction. The tasks are legally determined, and all are obliged to undertake them. This primarily involves spatial planning, land servicing, local economic development and non-commercial public services.

This section looks at three indicators: (i) urban legislation, (ii) decentralization and strengthening of local communities, and (iii) participation and urban development. It discusses the achievements that have been made in the above indicators by urban councils, delineates experiences, future challenges and issues that could be addressed, and provides a way forward.

4.1 Urban legislation

Urban development and management in Uganda have been guided by a number of policies, legal and regulatory framework, to consistently address emerging issues, including the ever-increasing levels of urbanization. Several aspects of the legal and regulatory frameworks have been re-aligned and the quality of the regulation was improving. From the late 1990s, the Government demonstrated a strong commitment to reviewing and replacing outdated policies and laws, and also formulating new ones. This was done in compliance with the recommendations of the Habitat III Agenda, and also as part of efforts to enhance the country's readiness to address prevailing and envisaged urbanization challenges. A key concern, however, was that several of the Policies and Acts (about 80%) are less than 5 years old. Although the Policies and Acts are novel, their adequate implementation is contingent on availability of sufficient funds from the Government and relevant Development Partners. Further, since legislation on urban development and management is espoused by a number of Acts and several government institutions are charged with implementing the Acts, it is prudent to enhance the level of collaboration and cooperation between the institutions to avoid duplication and conflict.

Another notable achievement with regard to improving urban legislation was that, although urban legislation was theoretically unified under a system of national laws, several urban councils have developed or are developing their own by-laws and/or ordinances to address specific urban development challenges within their areas of jurisdiction.

4.1.1 Decentralization and strengthening of urban/local communities

Over the past two decades, Uganda has also modernized its governance and service delivery institutions, one aspect of which has been a process of decentralization and intergovernmental institutional and fiscal reform. Uganda's Decentralization Policy is embedded in the 1995 Constitution of Uganda, the Decentralization Policy (1997) and the Local Government Act (CAP 243). The decentralization policy - which was first announced in 1992, and subsequently embedded in the 1995 Constitution, the 1997 Local Government Act (as subsequently amended), and a range of additional policy initiatives, such as the Fiscal Decentralization Strategy of 2002, and the National Development Plan (NDP), Section 8.14 incrementally devolved substantial powers, functions and resources to Local Governments (LGs). Today, urban LGs are run as fully fledged elected lower governments with legislative and executive powers. They have extensive service delivery responsibilities in areas such as health, education, water, transport, and environmental management, receive and raise significant fiscal resources, hire and fire staff, prepare and execute the Five-Year Development Plans, the Physical Development Plans and the annual budgets.

Since its adoption, the decentralization system has gradually, with notable achievements, been entrenched as a system and process of local governance. It has empowered citizens, increased awareness of their responsibilities and delivered services closer to people. Decentralization has also fostered effective and regular communication and exchange of ideas between the citizens and ULGs and between the ULGs and the Central Government. Today, there was growing evidence that the citizenry demand for accountability from their leaders, and they also endeavor to elect local leaders whose manifestos outline more pro-people programmes.

As in most countries, the process of decentralization in Uganda has not been monotonic, and in recent years, some recentralization has taken place. In 2005 changes to the Constitution (and, later, related local government legislation) transferred the powers to appoint the ULG clerks and their deputies back to the Public Service Commission. Over the past years, the intergovernmental fiscal structure has also become more centralized, with earmarked grants to ULGs now accounting for almost 85% of total fiscal transfers, and important sources of own source ULG revenue having been eliminated or curtailed by the center. In 2010, Kampala ceased to be governed by an autonomous ULG and was controlled by the Kampala Capital City Authority, which falls directly under the Central Government.

Box 3; Policies, Laws, Plans enacted over the last two decades

- Uganda National Urban Policy, 2017
- The Uganda National Land Policy, 2013
- The National Land Use Policy; 2006
- National Housing policy, 2016
- The National Environment Management Policy for Uganda, 2014
- National Policy for Conservation and Management of Wetland Resources, 1995
- National Agriculture Policy, 2013
- Tourism policy (2014)
- National Local Economic Development Policy (LED) (2014):
- National Population Policy (NPP) (2008):
- Public Private Partnership Policy (PPP) (2010):
- The Decentralization Policy (1997):
- National Slum Upgrading Strategy (NSUS) (2008):
- EAC Vision 2050
- Uganda Vision 2040
- The Third National Development Plan (NDP III) – 2020/21-2024/25
- The National Physical Development Plan 2018-2040
- Albertine Graben Physical Development Plan 2017 – 2040
- National Transport Master Plan (2020-2040) and Multi-Modal Urban Transport Master Plan for GKMA 2018
- Expressway Development Master Plan 2020-2070
- Master Plan on Logistics in the Northern Economic Corridor
- Constitution of the Republic of Uganda, 1995.
- Kampala Capital City Authority (KCCA) Act (2010)
- The Local Government Act (CAP 243)
- The Physical Planning Act, 2010
- The Land Act (CAP 227)
- The Public Finance and Management Act, 2015
- The National Environment Act (CAP 153) (Amended 2020)
- National Forestry and Tree Planting Act, 2003
- Water Act, Cap 152
- Public Health Act, Cap 281
- Historical Monument Act, 1967
- Road Act 2019
- The Condominium Properties Act No. 4 of 2001
- The National Slum Upgrading Strategy; 2008

In addition, other changes to the LG system appear to have weakened it at the structural level and made the resourcing and functioning of the overall LG system more difficult and less efficient. Particularly important among these has been the proliferation of LGs. Partially as a result of this, the urban local government wage bill was now substantially underfunded which led to the emergence of significant and chronic staff vacancies. Local governments also find it challenging to meet their obligations to residents in areas such as primary education, as distribution formulae are not always properly followed. For example, there was evidence of significant per student variations in allocations under the Universal Primary Education program (USMID – 2013).

Studies commissioned by Government to assess the impact of these trends and determine whether any formal revision of decentralization policy was required identified challenges. The current situation among other things was characterized by a disconnect between the requirements of local government system and the fiscal and other resources dedicated to it which hampers local government performance. The devolution process was also characterized by several contradictory trends - some of which appear to arise from dynamics within the broader political environment - structural pressures emanating from the urban transition.

Uganda's decentralization system has also had some shortcomings from a financial and technical perspective. Financially, ULGs heavily relied on central government's transfers. Over 95% of the local governments' budgets were funded by the central government. Table 21 gives the average central transfers to selected ULGs at 83.7% and 83.6% for Cities and Municipalities respectively while that of Town Councils is the lowest at 46.9% in the FY 2020/2021. On average, about 80% of the transfers from the central government are conditional and are earmarked for the provision of specific services; leaving local governments with little financial flexibility and capacity to implement varying prioritized local programmes. The remaining 20% of the transfers comprise of unconditional and equalization grants. However, these transfers are mostly used to cover administrative costs rather than delivery of services. Another financial challenge was that Development Partners support the country's national budget, this was tagged to specific sectoral programmes or projects leaving others unfunded.

Furthermore, the creation of new LGs has thinly spread the modest transfers from the Central Government to LGs. While the creation of LGs has supposedly improved the delivery of social services in their areas of jurisdiction, improvement in the quality of services delivered has lagged behind if one considers the quantitative indicators.

Table 22: Percentage of Central government transfers to urban Local Governments (FY 2020/2021)

No.	Cities	% of Central Govt Transfers	Municipalities	% of Central Govt Transfers	Town Councils	% of Central Gov't Transfer's
1	KCCA	83.3	Bushenyi- Ishaka	85.2	Kasangati	40.2
2	Mbale	86.1	Nansana	88.4	Busiu	23.3
3	Arua	87.2	Kitgum	97.0	Kamwenge	54.0
4	Lira	85.5	Nebbi	89.7	Aduku	74.2
5	Jinja	69.7	Tororo	47.1	Kihihi	42.7
6	Masaka	90.3	Ntingamo	92.8	Packwach	49.6
7	Fort Portal	85.6	Kumi	88.7	Kyenjojo	59.6
8	Soroti	86.7	Makindye-Ssabagabo	97.0	Dokolo	40.9
9	Hoima	96.3	Iganga	83.7	Buwenge	84.7
10	Gulu	66.1	Kira	66.5	Kalisizo	-
11	Mbarara	85.7				
	Average	**83.7**		**83.6**		**46.9**

Source: Urban study 2022

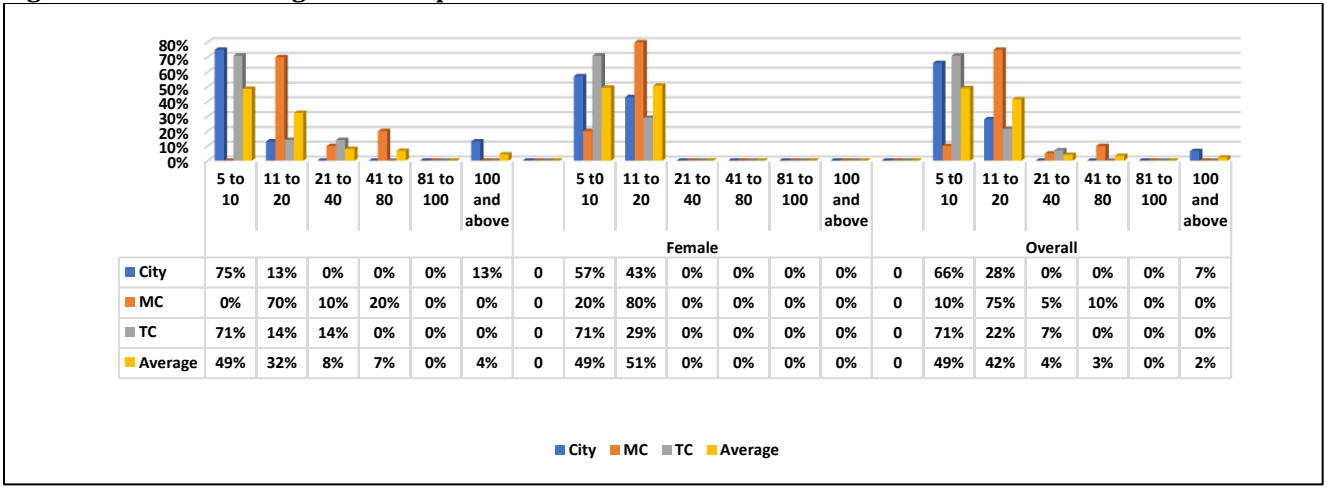
Technically, though the capacity of ULGs was generally improving, service delivery was sometimes constrained by the Central Government's refusal to decentralize certain services. For example, with regard to Secondary Education, control from the Centre has made supervision of secondary schools difficult. According to the Constitution, supervision of secondary schools was a role of LGs, but the Central Government continues to take on this responsibility. Further, Central Government's restrictions on staff recruitment has had a negative impact on the delivery of service in LGs.

4.1.2 Council composition.

Local government leadership structures are provided for in the Local Government Act Cap. 243 under Section 3, 4, and 35, Part III of the LG Act Cap 243 which describes the LG set up. It specifies that the Council was the highest political authority within the area of Jurisdiction of the LG and it has legislative and executive powers to be exercised in accordance with the constitution and LGA, CAP 243. Section 10 provides the composition of the council. In line with the principal of popular participation on which the decentralization policy was hinged, the councils are representative of all sections of the community.

The Act provides for; a) representation of Women (initially these would make up a minimum of 1/3 of the Council, this has however been amended to allow for more representation of women), b) representation of the youth, elderly, PWDs and workers, and d) representation of the area Members of Parliament as ex-officials. Figure 5 presents the number and gender composition of the councils.

Figure 13: Number and gender composition of urban councils



	Female													Overall						
	5 to 10	11 to 20	21 to 40	41 to 80	81 to 100	100 and above		5 t0 10	11 to 20	21 to 40	41 to 80	81 to 100	100 and above		5 t0 10	11 to 20	21 to 40	41 to 80	81 to 100	100 and above
City	75%	13%	0%	0%	0%	13%	0	57%	43%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0	66%	28%	0%	0%	0%	7%
MC	0%	70%	10%	20%	0%	0%	0	20%	80%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0	10%	75%	5%	10%	0%	0%
TC	71%	14%	14%	0%	0%	0%	0	71%	29%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0	71%	22%	7%	0%	0%	0%
Average	49%	32%	8%	7%	0%	4%	0	49%	51%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0	49%	42%	4%	3%	0%	2%

Source; Urban study 2022

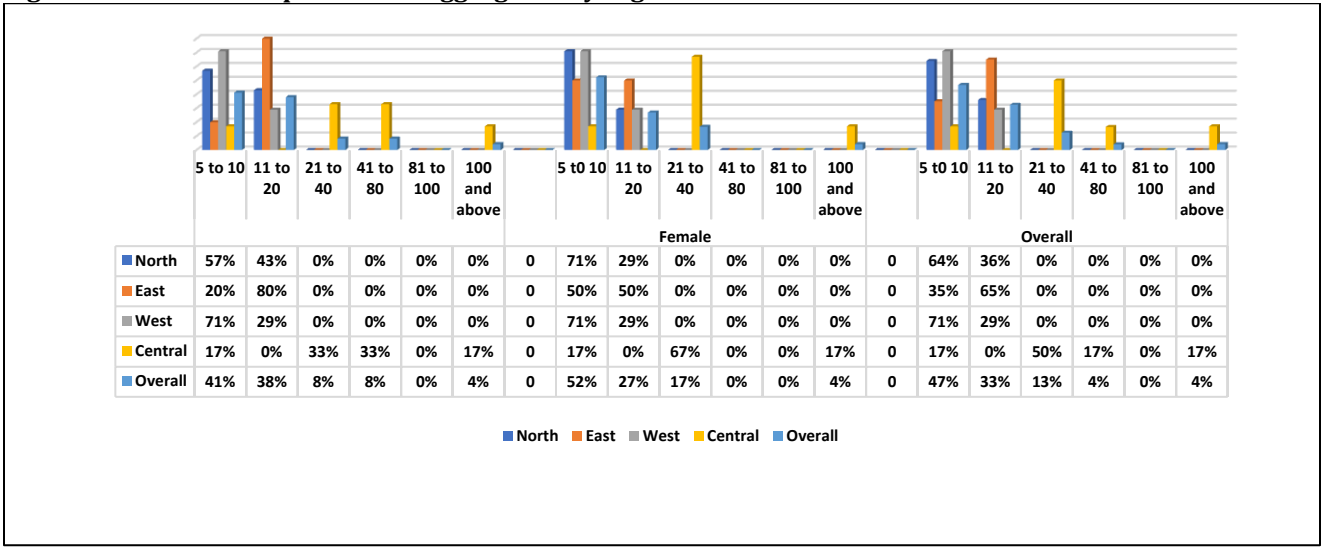
Overall, almost half of the urban councils (49%) were represented by between five to ten councilors. This was most evident in Town Councils where 71% had between 5 to 10 councilors. This has been attributed to the proliferation of urban councils. In the last few years there has been creation of many TCs many of which cover very small geographical areas hence explaining why the majority of them have less than 10 Councilors.

The urban authorities with most representation was found in the Central region. Specifically, 50% of the urban councils in Central region were represented by between 21 to 40 councilors while 17% had representation of between 41 to 80 councilors and the other 17% had more than 100 councilors. On the other hand, the least representation was observed in Western Uganda where the majority (71%) of the urban councils were represented by less than 10 Councilors.

The urban study identified an increase in the number of women representatives in the councils as a result of the amendment of the Local Government Act that stipulated that more than a third of members was supposed to be women. The increased number can be depicted from some examples of female composition where the numbers are more than a third of the female composition such as Masaka City with 56% female representation.

Central region had the most representation of female Councilors where 67% of the urban Councils had between 21 to 40 women councilors. None of the other regions had representation of more than 20 women Councilors. The least representation of female councilors was observed in the Northern and Western regions where 71% of urban councils in the two regions had less than 10 female councilors. Figure 6 presents the council composition disaggregated by regions.

Figure 14: Council composition disaggregated by regions.



	5 to 10	11 to 20	21 to 40	41 to 80	81 to 100	100 and above		5 to 10	11 to 20	21 to 40	41 to 80	81 to 100	100 and above		5 to 10	11 to 20	21 to 40	41 to 80	81 to 100	100 and above
							Female							Overall						
North	57%	43%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0	71%	29%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0	64%	36%	0%	0%	0%	0%
East	20%	80%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0	50%	50%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0	35%	65%	0%	0%	0%	0%
West	71%	29%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0	71%	29%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0	71%	29%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Central	17%	0%	33%	33%	0%	17%	0	17%	0%	67%	0%	0%	17%	0	17%	0%	50%	17%	0%	17%
Overall	41%	38%	8%	8%	0%	4%	0	52%	27%	17%	0%	0%	4%	0	47%	33%	13%	4%	0%	4%

Source; Urban study 2022

Challenge Identified:

- Most of the Municipal and Town Councils outside USMID funded programs had not inducted their councilors on their roles and responsibilities which was causing conflicts between the newly elected leaders and technical leadership;
- Majority of the councilors in Municipal and Town Councils academic qualification were below Senior 4 thus, making comprehension and participation in council deliberations very minimal;
- The urban councils had a challenge of facilitating the increased number of councilors. For example, the number of councilors in Nansana MC increased from 53 in 2015 to 95 in 2021 and these had a lot of expectations.

In order to improve good governance in ULGs, the MoLG should fast track the induction of all the ULGs in the country; develop a standardized criterion for determining areas of representation in urban councils to avoid over representation.

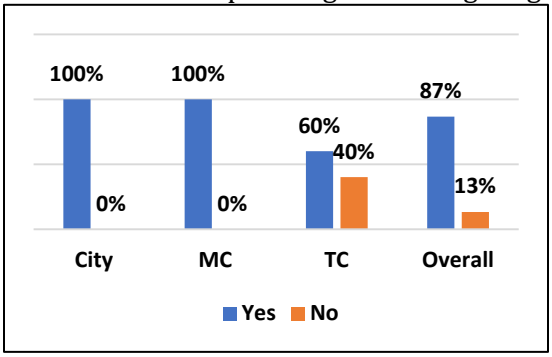
4.2 Local participation in urban development and Management.

Participation during Planning, Budgeting, Implementation and Monitoring of Council Programs

The legal system provides for bottom-up participatory planning and budgeting. ULGs are required to use participatory and consultative processes to identify and prepare the sub-projects to be funded in the annual budgets in a participatory manner with involvement of the lower local governments (Divisions, Wards), MDF, Private Sector and wider stakeholder input. The ULGs use a number of statutory forums to ensure participation in local governments. These include and not limited to: Local Government Councils elections, through lower council planning meetings, through budget conferences, Development Forums, Barazas and planning forums.

To ensure transparency and accountability, the services, infrastructure and other development projects must be included in the Urban Council Physical Development Plan (PDP), Five Year Development Plan, Annual Work Plans and Budget. The bottom-up and broad participation of stakeholders guarantees that the projects are identified/demanded by the community and reviewed by the Technical Planning Committees (TPC), the Physical Planning Committee (PPC), and the Budget Committee for financing in the budget. The annual work plan and budget are then discussed and approved by the urban Councils.

The MLHUD has been providing support to urban councils on integration and harmonisation of development, economic and spatial plans, annual budgets, and project investment menus with their Strategic and Long-term Development Strategies. The urban study confirmed steadfast ULGs' performance in this regard. The urban study confirmed that their budgeting processes were highly participatory involving a wide range of stakeholders through planning meetings and budget conferences. At the community level, ULGs obtained input from the Wards and Divisions hence providing comfort that there was community participation at the grassroots during planning and budgeting. ULGs also had in place Planning units and a Budget Desk that coordinated the planning and budgeting function. Sampled ULGs held annual planning and budgeting conferences following the budget calendar (between October and November).

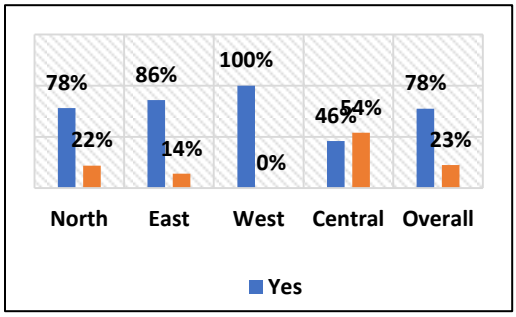


The study findings further revealed that stakeholders in the Cities and MC had participated in the physical development planning process and the budget conferences. On the other hand, there were 40% of TCs who had not participated in the above process as shown in figures 7.

Figure 15: Participation in physical planning and budget conferences

In terms of regional performance, all urban authorities in the Western region reported participation in the physical development planning and budget conferences, followed by Eastern region with 86%. On the other hand, the least participation was observed in Central region with only 46% (figure 8).

Figure 16: Participation in the physical planning and budget conferences by regions.



4.2.1 Urban Development Forums

In 2010, Uganda adopted the Urban Forum Concept to foster citizen participation at the urban local level by creating Municipal Development Forums. There are 10 City Development Forums (CDFs), 16 Municipal Development Forums (MDFs) and 1 Town Development Forum (TDF) in Uganda today. 22 of the CDFs and MDFs are under the Support to Municipal Infrastructure Development (USMID) program.

Composition of the Cities'/Municipal Development Forums (C/MDF).

Municipal Development Forums were instituted to enhance citizen's engagements with the Municipal/City LGs. These are instrumental spaces where citizens represented by private sector associations such as chambers of commerce, investor associations and trader's associations, Slum dwellers, human rights, the youth, urban poor, professional institutions, cultural institutions, religious institutions, civil society or community-based organizations, academics, youth, women, press among others. Stakeholders in the urban LGs meet regularly to exchange views, debate priorities and agree on common action on matters pertaining to the urban sector.

Although these forums were constituted under the USMID programme, their functionality covered all urban development issues. They were instrumental in carrying out the needs assessment studies, budget conferences, facilitating community dialogue meetings and grievance redress activities, act as a bridge between the citizens, private sector and government; participate in sub-project identification; monitor program implementation; provide oversight functions at the ULG level; discuss issues emanating from bi-annual public private dialogues with the wider members of private sector community affecting economic growth and private sector development, and participate in the community monitoring activities. All these are intended to enhance transparency, accountability and better service delivery in the urban authorities.

Following the critical importance of the MDFs, all the Cities save for Kampala, had established a functional City Development Forum (CDF) this was partially because all the new Cities were USMID beneficiaries where a requirement for establishment of the CDF was emphasized. Figure 9 presents the establishment and functionality of the CDFs.

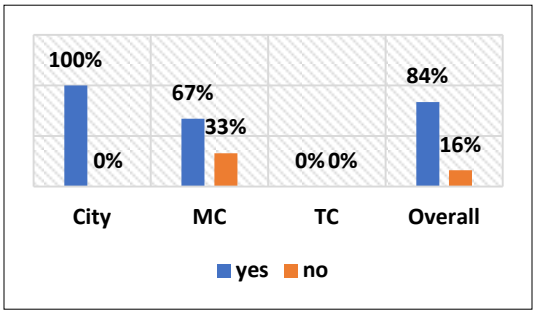


Figure 17: Establishment and functionality of the C/MDFs

The study revealed that whereas all the newly created Cities and Municipalities under USMID had established the CDF/MDFs. Some of the non USMID Municipalities that had established them included; Kumi and Bushenyi - Ishaka. It was further established that Town Councils save Bukomansimbi did not have Town Development Forums. The MLHUD needs to support the MCs and TCs with no MDF to establish them and induct them on their roles and responsibilities.

The City/MDFs were very popular in the Western region, where all selected urban authorities had established a functional C/MDFs, followed by Northern and Eastern regions with 86% and 75% respectively. The least number of urban authorities with established and functional C/MDFs were found in Central region (figure 10).

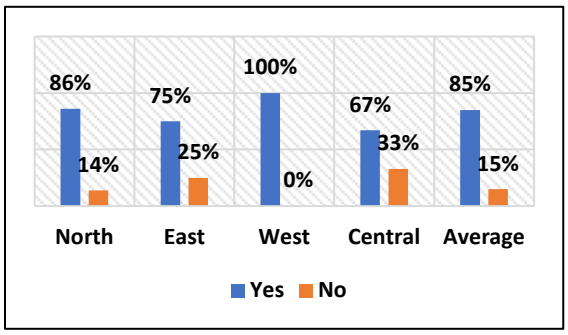


Figure 18: Establishment and functionality of C/MDF by regions.

The ULGs which had instituted CDF/MDF saw transformation in the functionality of their urban systems as opposed to those without. This was noted in the following areas: regular and consistent enabling environment for urban stakeholders' participation in urban governance and management; increased social responsibility among citizens in urban campaigns like keep the town clean, among others; MDFs have also played a watchdog role and also enhanced value for money and quality assurance in the spirit of transparency and accountability to citizens in various Municipalities; enhanced a sense of community ownership of infrastructure sub projects like community roads, bus parks, markets, etc; MDFs have also contributed to strengthening and promoting bottom-up approach to planning and decision-making, which was key under the decentralization framework; MDFs have enhanced a sense of community ownership of government projects and programs, through their participation and engagement.

The operation and management of CDF/MDF however, was faced by a number of challenges including; lack of a legal backing; lack of skills to articulate local government matters on laws, planning and budgetary systems; the executives had not been inducted by MLHUD; lack of finance to facilitate the program; lack of platform to interface with other urban councils to share experiences; some members joined in the hope of getting financial support, and when this was not forthcoming, they lost morale; some MC management look at MDFs as rival entities or spies.

In order to improve their performance, it is recommended that MLHUD build capacities of the MDF executives to be able to articulate matters of urban management. Furthermore, MDFs should be incorporated in the policy frameworks to strengthen their functionality.

4.2.2 District/City Land Boards:

The District/City Land Boards are bodies created by the Constitution to manage land which is not privately owned. The District/City Land Boards are charged with facilitating the registration and transfer of interests inland and dealing with other land related matters in the district/Cities. The field findings revealed that it was only KCCA that had fully established and functional City Land Board by the financial year 2020/2021 the

period under review. However, for the three visits to the KCCA Land Board, we failed to access the vital information for benchmarking and share experience with the relevant members. Findings also established that in the FY 2021/2022 cities save Jinja, had constituted the City Land Boards and these included; Mbarara, Masaka, Fort Portal, Soroti and Arua Cities.

4.2.2.1 Challenges Faced by District/City Land Boards:

- There was inadequate funding for the newly created City Land Board members as their emoluments and field activities was charged from local revenue i.e. sitting allowances and onsite visits which was to decision making to avoid land disputes and this was evident in Mbarara, Masaka and Soroti Cities;
- Inadequate funding for the newly created City Land Board like in Mbarara, affected regular meetings of the boards to consider the many applications by the clients rendering them inefficient;
- Some Cities like Gulu and Fort Portal Land Board members had not been inducted on their roles and responsibilities and work ethics by MLHUD to make them fully functional.
- Lack of clear documentation (inventory of Public Land) and poor record keeping in the mother districts for effective functioning of newly created City Land Boards; some documentations were not yet shared with City Land Boards by the time of the survey;
- Lack of resources for retooling of the newly created City Land Board Secretariat;

4.2.2.2 Recommendation:

- Local Government should create an inventory/register of all the public land within the area of jurisdiction and furnish the District/City Land Boards with such information.
- MoFPED should increase funding from the consolidated fund to facilitate activities of the City Land Boards activities;
- There was urgent need for all the Districts/City Councils to establish and approve their Land Boards as provided in the laws;
- Ministry of Local Government and the MLHUD should work together streamline the working relationship between Districts and Municipalities by providing guidelines to regulate how Municipalities relate with DLBs;
- MLHUD should provide legal documents to all members of the District/City Land Board and make effort to induct the boards immediately they are approved by the respective councils;

Chapter Five

5.0 State of Urban Environment and management

5.1.1 Overview

Uganda's key urban environmental settings are predominantly the network of wetlands, water, open spaces, trees, grasslands and outcrops of urban gardens that course throughout the country, delivering a suite of ecological services, including flood attenuation, water purification, and wastewater treatment. As we move towards achieving SDG 11 in Uganda, making urban human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable, understanding the quality and function of the urban environment was very key as this has been significantly degraded.

Ecosystems in urban centers across the country were being rapidly developed and lacked formal protection and environmental management. While there was limited data available about the urban's air quality, existing findings[3] show increased degradation due to the rise in vehicle emissions. Furthermore, the lack of national air quality standards will continue to delay establishment of baseline monitoring. Poor drainage, excessive dust, noise, massive clearing of neighborhoods to pave way for real estates and uncontrolled dumping of wastes on any open space urban dwellers can come across had ravaged every urban center in Uganda[4].

Plate 1: Wetland degradation in KMPA

5.1.2 Urban wetlands

Urban wetlands serve as the primary infrastructure for physically and biologically cleansing water, filtering out sediments and nutrients that enable the raw drinking water to be cost-effectively treated for human consumption. The wetland system has also served as the urban's primary sponge for absorbing stormwaters, slowly releasing and cleansing waters by discharging into lakes, recharging groundwater flows or other ecosystems.

However, the steady decrease in wetland area was driving overall wetland system to a decline. Once a large and vital ecosystem, the remaining area of wetlands constitutes approximately less than 10% of the surface areas across all urban areas in Uganda according to recent spatial analysis based on satellite imagery[5]. Unfortunately, the urban wetland resources are now mostly characterized by their state of degradation. Urbanization; encroachment; indiscriminate disposal of wastewater from the settlements, industries, and commercial establishments; and the illegal dumping of solid waste have led to degradation of almost all of urban wetlands to some extent in past decades and disrupted the ecological functions the urban centers have relied on throughout its history.

[3] NEMA, 2019. Air quality test results for Kireka suburb
[4] UN-Habitat Support to Sustainable Urban Development in Uganda
[5] Uganda wetlands atlas

The urban study spatial analysis indicated that there was a significant level of encroachment of urban wetlands showing an average encroachment level of 55% for Cities between 1996 and 2008[6]. In the same period, Mbale city was the most affected with 96% of its wetlands encroached (table 23).

Table 23:. Level of wetland encroachment in Cities between 1996 and 2008.

City	Area (Ha)		Change (Ha)	%ge change
	1996	2008		
Kampala	3,201.40	1,287.74	1,913.66	60%
Fort Portal	870.86	266.18	604.68	69%
Hoima	1,358.84	369.23	989.61	73%
Mbarara	2,421.07	2,208.21	212.86	9%
Masaka	5,409.93	4,161.33	1,248.60	23%
Soroti	4,896.84	-	-	0%
Lira	3,819.24	2,354.35	1,464.89	38%
Jinja	1,587.63	417.48	1,170.15	74%
Gulu	2,744.42	1,221.34	1,523.08	55%
Arua	-	-	-	0%
Mbale	3,459.76	144.86	3,314.90	96%
Average				**55%**

Source: Ministry of Energy and NFA

There was significant level of encroachment if urban wetlands showing an average encroachment level at 57% for Municipalities between 1996 and 2008. In that period, Nansana Municipality was most affected with 89% of its wetlands encroached (Table 24).

Table 24: Level of wetland encroachment in Municipalities between 1996 and 2008

Municipalities	Area (Ha)		Change (Ha)	%ge change
	1996	2008		
kira	3,118.39	994.89	2,123.50	68%
makindye ssabagabo	1,099.31	482.24	617.07	56%
Nansana	6,058.87	638.77	5,420.10	89%
Bushenyi	621.52	309.43	312.09	50%
Ntungamo	291.42	284.50	6.92	2%
Tororo	274.87	60.58	214.29	78%
Nebbi	-	-	-	0%
Kumi	1,636.06	478.35	1,157.71	71%
Kitgum	192.78		192.78	0%
Iganga	133.38	82.60	50.78	38%
Average				**57%**

Source: Ministry of Energy and NFA

Wetland conversion to developed land has progressed quickly over the past few decades. For example, Wetlands within the GKMA have been consistently encroached upon by development, causing a steady decrease in wetland area, a direct indicator of overall wetland system decline. The wetlands are used by the residents of informal settlements and slums for domestic and small-scale income-generation uses. Yam, sugarcane, cassava, sweet potatoes, mixed vegetables and matoke are grown; papyrus was harvested, and brick-making and fish farming also occur. While this local use of

[6] The only data accessible by the consultant was for 1996 and 2008.

wetland goods and services was an important source of livelihoods for the residents, these activities also directly contribute to the degradation of the wetland and its functions in our urban areas.

Plate 2: Wetland degradation near Nwoya town

5.1.3 Terrestrial Ecosystem

Uganda's urban centers' terrestrial ecosystems include hills and a patchwork of forests, urban tree canopy, and lowland forests/floodplain forests alongside wetlands that collectively provide habitat for a considerable diversity of birdlife. Available information was limited about the state of the urban centers' terrestrial environmental assets; however, spatial analysis shows that the amount of undeveloped land in urban centers decreased save for the new Cities, indicating a significant overall degradation of the urban centers' terrestrial assets. Combined with the conversion of protected open spaces and gardens into developments, this loss of soil, vegetation, habitat, and biodiversity constituted a significant threat to the urban centers' overall ecological health.

5.1.4 Land and Soil

The urban centers were characterized by a varied topography where by some were low hills that were separated by wide shallow valleys with papyrus swamp wetlands, drainage courses and others were plain plateau in nature. Historically, the important institutional purposes in urban centers such as the government, churches, universities, were located on hill tops of urban centers while the slopes were developed with commercial and residential uses.

Plate 3: Land degradation in Wakiso

The regulatory context for the development of the land during the colonial period established conditions that led to further environmental degradation beyond the challenges of working with the physiography. Urban development of the land under the control of the British Crown was subjected to formal planning, while the area occupied by the local African population evolved organically without formal physical planning. Decades of expanding urban development led to the clearance of much of the natural vegetation on the hill tops and slopes. This has destabilized the soil and caused increased runoff, erosion, siltation, and flooding in the low-lying areas.

5.1.5 Vegetation

Urban centers do not have a structured, contiguous, maintained, and protected open space system or an urban forestry program to protect and monitor resources. Residential and industrial development had reduced the land area of low land forests country wide. Forest lands had been virtually eradicated in most urban centers. The National Forestry Authority addresses forestry at the country-scale with no focus at the urban scale where forests are highly endangered. A significant number of trees within urban centers were located on private lands and alongside roads. In most towns these trees were removed for fear of accidents whenever it rained which significantly

changed the aesthetics of these urban areas. The few developed and maintained gardens were found in urban centres country wide but were all privately owned. While the wetland areas were used for recreation, such use leads to infilling, i.e., for playing fields, that contributed to their further degradation. Most residential neighborhoods commercial areas lacked public open space, gardens, parks, and playgrounds that allow urban center residents to escape from the congestion and density of urban life.

5.1.6 Air Pollution

There was limited information about local air quality conditions and risks (type and concentrations of particulate matter -PM) in urban areas' air and studies of the associated human health impacts. The lack of finalized air pollution standards by NEMA also contributed to the limit of available data required to be monitored and regularly collected. Air quality sampling studies conducted were indicative of unhealthy air and suggested that exposure to ambient air in urban areas may increase the burden of environmentally induced cardiovascular, metabolic, and respiratory diseases, including infections. Various anthropogenic sources appeared to contribute to the elevated course particle and PM levels in towns, such as soil dust disturbed by vehicles on unpaved roads, vehicle emissions particles, and burning of biomass. Deteriorating air quality also has implications for public health through outdoor air pollution, particularly automobile exhaust mainly from used cars, particulate matter from burning, road dust, and factory emissions.

Plate 4: Kampala city enveloped in dusty fog

5.1.7 Urban Sanitation

5.1.7.1 Effluents

The lack of a comprehensive effluent management systems in urban centers, including adequate waste water treatment facilities, point source pollution controls, and controls on nonpoint effluent discharge, degraded the urban environment and contributed to a loss of its ecosystem services. Effluents from both formally planned and informally settled residential areas and commercial and industrial discharges were the primary source of pollution and degradation of the urban's water resources. For example, all the open water sources of Kampala city could not be used for domestic purposes. The water was too polluted and could not even be used for watering domestic animals in some areas. NWSC was even forced to shift their main water works to Katosi due to high treatment costs.

Plate 5: Emission of raw effluent into urban wetlands

5.1.7.2 Waste Water Treatment

Less than 10% of the urban dwellers countrywide were served by the sewer systems. The majority (mainly urban poor relied on various forms of on-site sanitation facilities such as pit latrines, improved (VIP) pit latrines, septic tanks, public toilets and open defecation[7]. These untreated

[7] African Development Fund, 2008. Design of Water and Sanitation facilities for Buwama Water and Sanitation System.

effluents were discharged into the environment, flowed through the drainage channels and, ultimately, into the open water bodies. While wetlands can retain nutrients from wastewater and cleanse wastewater of nutrient loads, the degradation of wetland vegetation and encroachment of wetlands by development reduces this nutrient cycling capacity.

The inadequate collection and disposal of fecal sludge was an environmental issue due to spills and incomplete treatment and disposal of sludge that led to a high pollution load into urban wetlands and Inner Murchison Bay. There are currently numerous challenges to increasing the rate of fecal sludge collection, such as high transport in urban centers across the county. Households cannot afford the costs of emptying their pit latrines professionally, as such, they resort to cheaper options such as illegal emptying. There had been several attempts to improve the effluent waste collection system across the country through issuing cesspool emptier to towns. For example, under the new Umbrella Organization arrangements, several cesspool emptier had been given to urban centers for use at a fee.

Plate 6: Modern cesspool emptier in Kayunga town

Several effluent treatment facilities had also been established in several urban centers in especially in Central region (Buwama, Kayunga, Luwero, Mukono) plus Ntungamo and Mayuge among others. These were meant to support treatment of feacal sludge from the urban centers. However, most of these were not under use and those under use were poorly maintained. One such example is the effluent treatment facility in Kayunga where the drainage channels were blocked due to lack of funds for maintenance. The use of pit latrines was also not a viable option for urban areas due to the small plot sizes which do not permit the digging of a new one on the same piece of land. Use of cesspool emptiers on pit latrines which are not lined resulted into accidents.

Plate 7: Effluent treatment facility in Kayunga

Plate 8: Effluent treatment facility in Buwama town

5.1.7.3 Point-Source Pollution

"Wet" industries are those that discharge wastewater into sewers or storm water drainage channels that eventually enter surface water. Most of these industries had obsolete technologies, which in most cases are environmentally polluting. None had pre-treatment facilities for their wastewater

before it was discharged into either the environment or public sewer in urban areas. Since many industries do not treat the effluents generated before discharge, the direct release into wetlands was resulting in severe accumulation of contaminants. The industrial area's discharge from food industries, heavy metals, and pharmaceutical industries were degrading water quality with high Biological Oxygen Demand (BOD), Chemical Oxygen Demand (COD), color, pH, TN and turbidity. Many industries were set up without implementing an Environmental and Social Impact Assessment (ESIA) or completing mandatory periodical Environmental Audits (EA). Therefore, most industries did not have environmental management policies and environmental management plans for managing the wastewater generated[8].

Plate 9: Release of chemicals into drainage channels in industrial areas around Nakivubo channel

5.1.7.4 Non-Point Source Pollution

Non-point source pollutants flowing into the urban's aquatic resources largely consisted of storm runoff during the wet season, which increased the concentrations of all nutrients, in turn affecting water quality[9]. Runoff during the wet season increased the concentrations of ammonia, phosphorus, nitrites, and nitrates. High BOD levels within the urban wetland channels can also degrade aquatic assets, as observed pollution had reached levels sufficient for producing ammonia and hydrogen sulphide that could kill fish.

Collectively, it was estimated that pollution sources around major Cities and towns in Uganda amount to high levels causing water quality impairment and this had resulted into serious domestic water scarcity in Urban areas. A consequence to the wetland system and its services of untreated and unmanaged discharge from multiple sources was represented in the escalating cost of treating raw water drawn from the Nakivubo drainage at the Gaba drinking water treatment facility[10]. As noted previously, these escalating costs caused the National Water and Sewerage Corporation to invest in a new drinking water production facility located farther from the Nakivubo drainage outlet at Katosi (NWSC, 2013).

Non-point source pollution from auto shop areas was a driver of water quality degradation in urban wetland systems. Downstream lead concentration can be attributed to the high concentration of vehicles and numerous car sale depots and vehicle parking lots that discharge (leak) fuel and contaminated engine oil into the urban environment.

Along many urban streams, samples with high lead values from the Pharmaceutical Industry sites were several times higher than the NEMA-acceptable value for effluent. While these readings could be due to point-source pollution by pharmaceutical facilities, the study finds that these high lead levels could also be originating from non-point sources such as the leaded fuel in the industries and the chemicals as well as disposal sites for old batteries left at fuel stations.

5.1.8 Stormwater Runoff

[8] Walakira and Okot-Okumu, 2011, Profiling of industrial areas polluting Nakivubo channel.
[9] Banadda 2011, Impact of runoff from Urban storms on urban poor settlements
[10] NWSC, 2012, Proposal to establish new water treatment facilities in Katosi – Mukono District.

Expansion of the urban drainage system has not kept up with the rapid urban growth and development of informal settlements. The country has seen a high increase in the number of buildings constructed in the 21st century. The extent of impervious surfaces and compacted land area, the higher rates of precipitation and increasing storm events, and poor maintenance of the existing drainage system collectively have caused an increase in the volume and coefficient of runoff. This lack of an adequate drainage system required to manage storm water runoff and flooding was a key driver of urban's environmental asset degradation. A reduction in pervious land created greater storm water runoff volumes, leading to increased flooding and increased pollution of waterways as storm water collected solid and liquid waste from settlement areas and roads, transporting pollutants into the urban's wetlands. Also, the buildings had generally increased in size, leading to an even higher rate of increase in roof area. These conditions have increased the frequency and severity of flooding problems throughout the urban areas in Uganda[11].

Plate 10: Storm runoff in Kampala city

5.1.8.1 Flooding

Poor quality and maintenance of the existing drainage system contributed to flooding. Storm water runoff from upland and overland flow discharges into drainage channels and then flows to the wetlands where, under environmentally healthy conditions, runoff would be stored and flood peaks would be attenuated. Drainage systems and wetlands were frequently overtopped and flooded when they were impeded by solid waste, filled by sediment/siltation, and overwhelmed by the volume of flow. Channelization of some of urban wetlands had occurred in an effort to reduce the negative effects of flooding. The increase in vegetation clearing and construction on hill tops has exacerbated the surface runoff which has overwhelmed the existing drainage systems.

Most drainage systems in the built areas of the urban areas flowed in open culverts along the roadsides. The open culverts were frequently used as dumping grounds for waste disposal, which clogged the systems and caused flooding and health risks. Low-lying settlement areas were increasingly prone to levels of flooding that destroyed houses, roads, and culverts as well as contaminating the water supply.

Plate 11: Flooding in Mukono suburbs

5.1.9 Solid Waste

The amount of solid waste generated overwhelmed the capacity of the urban areas to collect and dispose of and, as a result, a great deal of the solid waste was thrown or carried by runoff into the drainage channels and wetlands due to limited funds that had been allocated to solid waste management in urban centers. A large percentage (60%) of solid waste that was generated was not properly collected or disposed. The lack of solid waste collection across most of the urban areas contributed to the degradation of the urban land, wetlands, and air. Solid waste

[11] UN-Habitat, 2013, Drainage patterns of major urban centers of Uganda

not properly disposed of caused blockage and backup of the limited drainage system and natural drainage corridors, thereby contributing to the flooding problem. Rotting and/or burned waste caused odors and air pollution. These consequently contributed to poor health and the spread of diseases.

While there were not many recycling or composting facilities in the urban areas of Uganda, some private players have made attempts to recycle some wastes but their efforts were too small compared to the challenge. In addition to households dumping waste into stormwater channels, sewers, or public areas, there was illegal dumping and burning by refuse collectors or building contractors. There was very little organized waste collection and disposal in urban areas. Medical and other toxic waste was untreated and generally discarded with other solid waste. Evidence also showed that toxic smoke from the burning of solid waste might be a contributor to air quality degradation in urban centers.

Plate 12: Flooded drainage in Kampala city

The high organic composition of urban solid waste was a driver of water quality degradation. The largest percent (88%) of the garbage generated in urban areas was organic, while the rest was inorganic, comprising glass, plastic, paper, metals, and construction and demolition waste. The high composition of organic solid waste caused considerable nutrient loading of drainage channels and wetlands, once the waste was transported into urban water bodies. The resultant nutrient concentrations contributed to algae growth and other indicators of high nutrient levels observed in the waters near Gaba treatment works and other wetlands throughout the urban areas.

5.1.10 Climate Change

Urbanization and climate change have been recognized as emerging challenges in Uganda that if not adequately addresses, could affect the country's development path. Though climate change effects have not been very significant in Uganda's urban areas, there general trends pointing towards serious climate impacts in urban areas of Uganda today. These have been noted in parameters like variability in the mean annual temperature and mean annual rainfall.

Inter-annual variability (year to year variability) of mean temperature over the period between 1975-2005(30 years), did not change much. The inter-annual variability was almost the same in all regions of the country with Central region varying between 1-2%, Western region 0.9 -1.3%, Eastern region 1.1-1.3% and Northern region 0.9-1.8%. These low values were expected because Uganda lies in the tropics where temperatures do not vary by large values throughout the year. A regional analysis does not show any significant changes in mean annual projections per decade in the four regions of Uganda however, urban center in the northern region (Lira and Moroto) were likely to be slightly warmer than urban centers in the other regions by between 0.10C and 0.20C.

In terms of variability, annual rainfall was found to be high as compared to temperature (1975-2005). Moroto has the highest variability in its annual rainfall with a coefficient of variability of 21.6% while Kasese had the lowest variability of 9% in the same period. There were no major differences in other regions as Central region ranges from 10.2-14.6%, Western region 9.9-16%,

Eastern region 10-12.5% and Northern region 10.6-21.6%. On regional analysis, all urban centers in the Central, Eastern and Northern regions save for Gulu showed a fairly increasing trend while the Western region showed decreasing trends in mean annual rainfall. Unlike temperature, mean annual rainfall projections do not show a clear trend of either increasing or decreasing, most of the urban centers especially in the Eastern region show slight increase in the total annual rainfall.

Urban areas were experiencing an increase in warming occurring in the last decades since 1960 and this was projected to continue with temperatures rising by 2-6^{0}C under different emission (extreme temperature and heat waves). Extreme temperatures increase evapotranspiration which reduces soil moisture, water table and available surface water, which will in turn affect agriculture and water availability.

In terms of rainfall, increased variability with more frequent and intense rainfall extremes, increased intense rainfall resulting into flooding. The extreme rainfall events projected to become more common in all parts of the country will increase flooding which will destroy infrastructure, settlements and water supply affecting the livelihood and health of the urban residents with no action from the urban authorities as it was reported in Kampala city, Mbale, Mukono and Kasese Municipalities.

The increased frequency and magnitude of droughts affected agriculture and food insecurity. Droughts reduce agricultural productivity as well as urban agriculture affecting food supply and resulting in rising food prices and insecurity. Droughts coupled with extreme temperatures affect urban water supply as it was the case in Arua, Kampala, Gulu, Mbarara and Nakasongola towns.

Reduced water table affects the supply of energy given that the country depends on hydroelectricity which is important for production and development. there have been reported incidences of reduced power production in Mpanga (Western) and Nyagak (West Nile) power stations.

Details on the level of vulnerability of urban areas to climate change, mitigation measures and building resilience, reference should be made to the Uganda National Urban Climate Change Profile, Final Report, May 2018.

Chapter Six

6.0 Land Tenure and Planned Land Use for sustainable Urban Land Management

6.1.1 Introduction

Urbanization results into change in land use (from rural to urban) and increase in density of developments to meet shelter, movement, nutrition, and income needs of urban residents. In order to support urbanization, there is need for affordable and bankable land as a precondition for sustainable urban growth. This can be achieved through efficient urban land management (efficient allocation and use of urban space aimed at guiding and controlling growth of urban areas to ensure orderly development and provision of services).

For urbanization to be efficient and effective in providing the backbone of growth, landed property rights play a critical role. They affect the transfer of land between users and in turn, land prices determine the intensity of investments in the area. However, both land transfers and prices are affected by land use regulation and urban planning, which are the policies that determine how and where land is used, enhancing urban connectivity, productivity, and livability as well as helping ameliorate negative externalities and coordination failures. Unregulated landed property markets are unlikely to achieve adequate urban densities and support efficient urban form.

6.1.2 Land tenure, legal framework and challenges in urban development

Many cross-cutting constraints have historically impacted and led to the current image/picture of urbanization in Uganda today. These constraints also impact the pattern and shape of urbanization in Uganda, particularly the complex land tenure systems. The Land Act (1998) recognizes four classes of land tenure: freehold, leasehold, Mailo, and customary as detailed in table 25.

Table 25: Land Tenure Regimes and challenges in Urban Areas

Land Tenure systems	Challenges under land tenure systems
Constitution of Uganda	– Article 237 (7) of the Constitution, tenure security supersedes planning. Land is vested in the citizens of Uganda. – Tenants' rights are also strengthened to the extent that, public infrastructure development has proven difficult and expensive, or has been constrained. However, government retained possibilities to acquire land in the public interest.
Freehold Land Tenure (FHLT)	– There is a lot of speculation on land under this tenure especially where big parcels of land under institutions is unutilized irrespective of their location in the urban areas. – Ownership restricts development proposals on such land yet sometimes such land is located in prime areas hindering growth.
Leasehold Land Tenure (LHLT)	– The rights incidental to this type of landownership are the rights to use, sub-divide, mortgage, and transfer (sub-lease and sell/assign) subject to the consent of DLB or ULC. – No renewal or extension of a lease without approval by the Physical Planning Committee of the Area is permissible. – This would be the best type of land holding in urban areas because it allows regeneration of derelict areas there by allowing transformation of these areas. – It is also open to planning however, this type of tenure was susceptible to change to freehold in many of the urban councils with its related challenges. This explains why many of the CBDs in urban areas of Uganda have virtually not changed in a very long time. – Currently, it is only leaseholds that have planning restrictions described in the lease agreement and enforcement effected. Others are open and this has created a challenge in enforcing land use management.
Mailo Land Tenure (MLT)	– The security of occupancy by the lawful and bona fide tenants creates a dual system of property ownership which results in conflicting interests and overlaps in rights on the same piece of land creating land use deadlock between the registered landowners and the tenants resulting into conflicts and, in many cases, evictions which was typical in urban areas of Uganda. – The non-eviction provisions in the law protects the lawful and bona fide tenants from eviction which compounds the complexity of urban planning in Uganda. It was difficult to streamline informal settlements through the regularization of tenure since physical planning was not a ground for

Land Tenure systems	Challenges under land tenure systems
	compulsory acquisition under Article 26 of the constitution. – The unplanned, disorganized settlement patterns typical on Mailo land have had a significant effect on the development of an efficient land market. – Households with weaker property rights typical to this tenure invest were less in housing quality than those with stronger property rights, thereby establishing a causal link between this land tenure systems and the development of slums/informality.
Customary Land Tenure (CLT)	– Majority of people may own or have the rights to use land, but they do not have land titles (security of tenure) which complicates detailed planning because of unregistered land holdings. – Obtaining a private certificate of title by individuals was lengthy and cumbersome involving prior agreements with owners such as the community, the clan and the respective land boards which explains why most of this land was untitled and also hinders land acquisition for services. – A holder of a certificate of customary ownership may convert his/her holding to freehold (Section 9). However, the option to convert has exacerbated conflicts over land as the elite and speculative purchasers of land especially in the mineral and oil rich areas have acquired huge pieces of land without the consent of the community in the pretext that it was free land. – A customary Tenure Registry was non-existent complicating matters.

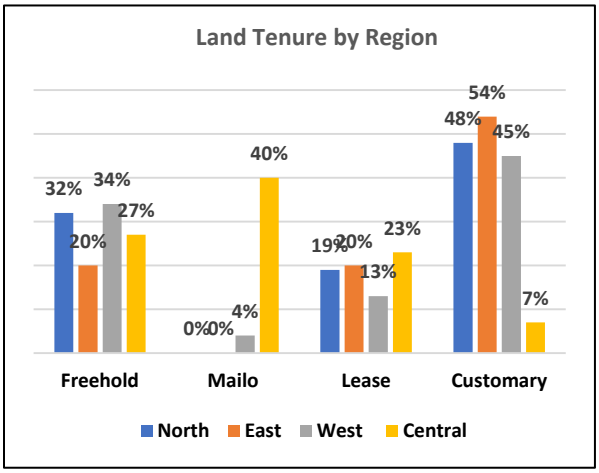
6.1.3 Land Tenure holdings in Urban Areas of Uganda

The urban study established that customary land tenure was the most dominant in Cities (37%), Municipalities (46%) and Town Councils (50%). Customary tenure restricts accessibility to land and therefore affects development. When it comes to PDPs, customary tenure impedes implementation of these plans. This explains the low levels of PDP implementation especially where this tenure was dominant. Free hold was most dominant in TCs at 33% and least at Cities (19%). Leasehold was most dominant in Cities with 30% coverage (table 22).

Table 22: Land tenure by urban council

Type of Urban	Land Tenure Type			
	Freehold	Mailo	Lease	Customary
Cities	19%	14%	30%	37%
Municipalities	25%	15%	14%	46%
Town Councils	33%	4%	14%	50%

At regional level, the urban study indicated that freehold was most dominant in Western region at 34%, Mailo in Central with 40%, leasehold in Central at 23%, customary was highest in Eastern with 54% and lowest in Central at 7%. Customary tenure was the most dominant in most of the regions save central.

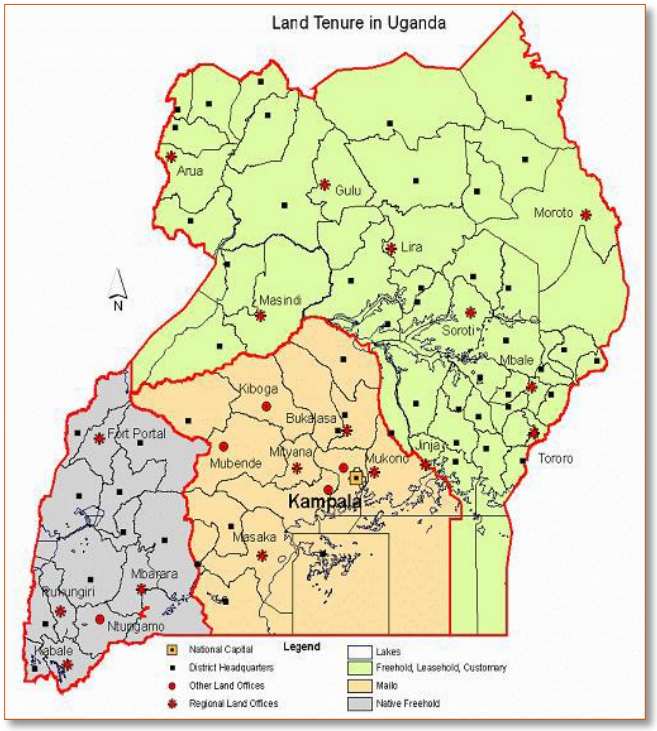


Information on the distribution of land by tenure types was difficult to obtain[12] since 95% of landowners in Uganda do not have land titles and their rights remain unregistered (DIIS Working Paper 2012:13). The land tenure system in Uganda was comprised of Customary 68.6%; Freehold 18.6%; Mailo 9.2% and Leasehold 3.6% (MLHUD Statistical Abstract 2020).

Map 2 illustrates the land tenure systems and their geographical coverage in Uganda. Although up to date reliable figures on the extent of the area and populations on each tenure type are not readily available, this map gives estimate coverage of the various tenure systems. The Central and parts of Mid-western region mostly have Mailo tenure system; south western had native freehold; leaseholds are scattered all over the

[12] The percentage land tenure coverage in this report, was based on estimates got from the technical officers from the various urban councils

country and mostly in urban settings; while customary tenure was most common in the Northern, North East and West Nile regions of the country.



Map 2: Land Tenure in Uganda.
Source; Draft Final Report of the Implementation of the Land Governance Assessment Framework in Uganda, 2014

The findings also revealed that the most worrying characteristic of land holding in Central region was the separation of land ownership from the ownership of developments on land, designed to accommodate rights of occupants (called Kibanja occupants) who own developments on land under the Mailo and Freehold tenure systems. Rights ascribed to occupants and processes proposed to administer these rights by The Land Act -1998 have never been realized because they are contested by the registered land owners. This was the main cause of informal land access under the Mailo and Freehold tenure systems. Informality in land access was perpetuated in land subdivision and land development processes as the urban councils only approves subdivisions and developments on land with formal land ownership documents.

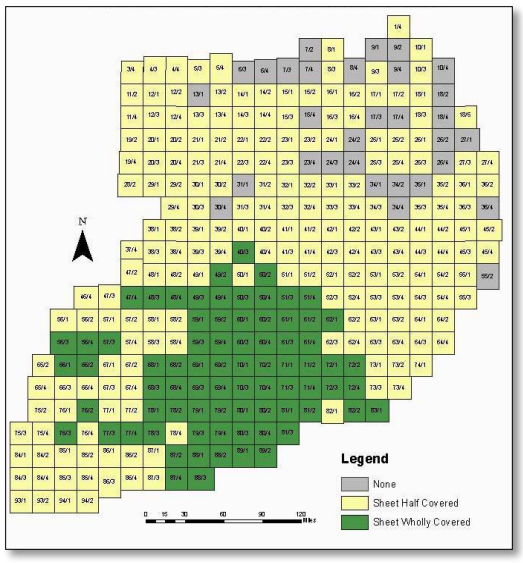
The Western region faces the highest land pressures with the average landholdings in the region being 25% below the national average. The region has the largest tracts of land under the leasehold system (EPRC 2008). Generally, formal registration and different types of titling are more frequent in central and western Uganda, whereas customary tenure prevails in eastern and northern Uganda.

It was also noted that different land tenure systems in existing urban areas depict different development patterns. For example, areas under leasehold and freehold were observed to be more orderly and better spatially organized compared to land under customary tenure.

6.1.4 Effects of land tenure system on urbanization and urban development

The 1995 Constitution in its Article 237(7) provides that Parliament makes laws to enable urban authorities to enforce and implement planning and development. The implications of this provision are that regardless of the tenure type, an area can be declared a planning area, planning regulations and development enforceable. This however does not come without challenge especially where rights to land are unclear. Furthermore, it has become very difficult and expensive for urban local governments to provide infrastructure and utility services because of multiple compensations (landlord and tenants) therein. On the other hand, implementation of detailed plans also becomes very difficult because of the unregistered rights on the land (Bibanja holdings). Overlapping property rights on Mailo land has created investment disincentives and reduced levels of productivity by almost 25% (Better Growth, Better Cities - 2016). There are also complex administration structures related to land. It should be noted that the Central region has nearly all (98.04%) the land registered in comparison to other regions at 50%. The Northern region has not had most of its land registered (8%) because of its reliance on the customary system (Map 3).

Map 3: Extent of registered land in Uganda.



The current functioning of land markets prevents efficient consolidation and allocation of land for new economic activity and infrastructure. Further still, infrastructure projects encounter very high transaction costs due to compensation for incumbents and a lack of transparency surrounding land transactions, particularly in the urban areas. As a result, urban centres are not developing efficiently and are experiencing costly sprawl, which is often unplanned.

Government through MLHUD has created 21 Regional Land Office (cadaster zonal areas) in order to ease access to land services. It also developed the Land Information System (LIS) that commenced in 2010 (at Ministry Zonal Offices (MZOs), Surveys and Mapping Department, the National Land Information Centre and Ministry Headquarters) aimed at establishing an efficient land administration system in Uganda.

Overall, the land tenure regime in Uganda affects urbanization and orderly urban development, infrastructure development and services in numerous ways including: Limiting the supply of developable land for housing, public services, infrastructure development, economic activity, especially for activities requiring large parcels and/or concentrations of activity; Enabling and encouraging land speculation and distorting the property market; Directing development to the urban periphery where land was more affordable, thereby distorting the spatial structure on the metropolitan, city and local scales; Constricting local initiative and entrepreneurship by limiting access to mortgage finance for most home owners with unregistered properties; Deterring foreign investors; The lack of access to land and the fear of eviction epitomize a pervasive exclusion of poor people from mainstream social, economic and civic opportunities, particularly, women.

6.1.5 Areas of Intervention in Urban Land Management System

The following strategies are recommended to address the challenge of land tenure systems and urbanization and these include;

- Urban land use planning as a path to land tenure regularization – at all levels of land use planning and implementation, land tenure regularization should be one of the core activities in this process as a way to streamline development;
- Incorporate tenure responsive LUP with other planning and land management tools and approaches to further streamline land tenure and curtail on its impacts on urban management and development;
- MLHUD pilot successes on tenure security through Physical Planning and Systematic Land Adjudication and Certification in the nine (9) Refugee Host Districts (RHDs) since 2019 should be upscaled to urban areas.
- Institutional responsibility and capacity for tenure responsive land-use planning;
    - Enhance capacity and address resource constraints of planning authorities;
    - Improving coordination of all stakeholders in land management;
    - Local knowledge was key in providing information to support decision making in land management;
    - Avail resources for relocation; and make urban development and planning a priority.
    - Awareness creation

Chapter Seven

7.0 Urban Housing and human settlement

7.1.1 Overview

Despite the increase in the urbanization rate of the country, the formal housing delivery has not matched with the growing urban population, and hence informal housing supply has come in to fill the gap in urban areas. It has been estimated that about 70% of the urban population stays in informal settlements, of which 20% reside in typical slums (World Bank, 2016). These percentages are expected to increase if no efforts are made to reverse the situation.

More so, own house ownership was way beyond the reach of many urban households hence resorting to rented housing, which was more affordable and accessible. Majority of urban households derive their income from informal sources and therefore do not qualify for a residential mortgage. In Uganda's urban areas, only 28.4% of urban households derived their income from formal employment as their main source of income and the largest percentage of such households was from central region, (UNHS 2019/20). Notwithstanding, most of the formal housing was delivered to cater for the high- and middle-class. Moreover, majority of urban households (48%), stay in rented housing while 44% lived in owner-occupied houses. It was further noted that the main issues to affordable housing are the high costs of land, high cost of building materials, restrictive access to housing finance, and restrictive building regulations among others.

Governments has assumed an enabler role shifting the responsibility of housing supply entirely to the private sector and individual households. The housing policy and government interventions ought to be more responsive to all segments of the population and government should intervene where necessary since private sector was driven by profits. This intervention should include finding ways to reduce cost of serviced land and other inputs to housing, ensuring delivery of planned and serviced land, facilitating access to mortgage housing finance by all households in formal and informal sector, reducing cost of construction by exploring new technologies based on locally available building materials. Other areas of concern are the recognition of incremental construction and promotion of urban rental housing to meet needs of all segments of urban population in order to reduce on the cost burden of housing as well as increasing accessibility to affordable and decent housing for all.

7.1.2 Urban Housing and Demand

Access to adequate and affordable housing is a human right and a fundamental need of an individual household as it plays a vital role in the growth and development of the households, the community and the country at large. On the other hand, housing demand involves estimating the ability of different groups to be able to afford the costs of their preferred or available housing. In this case, the purchasing power of the urban households is the main influencing factor. This section, therefore, discusses the context of housing need and demand in Uganda's urban areas.

7.1.2.1 Housing Quantity

The urban housing requirement was estimated at around 767,000 (2021) units and this would rise to about 1,400,000 units between 2016 and 2035, (Table 26). This means that 285,600 units would be required for Kampala alone and 331,800 for central region. At the current level of stock, an additional 633,000 units would be required between 2016 and 2035 (about 48,700 units per year). Whereas the urban population was growing, urban poverty was also growing and most urban residents have low levels of income, mainly from informal sources.

Table 26: Future Housing Requirements in Urban Areas of Uganda

Year	Estimated Population	Estimated Housing Demand
2014	7,400,000	514,000
2021	11,043,000	767,000
2035	20,000,000	1,400,000

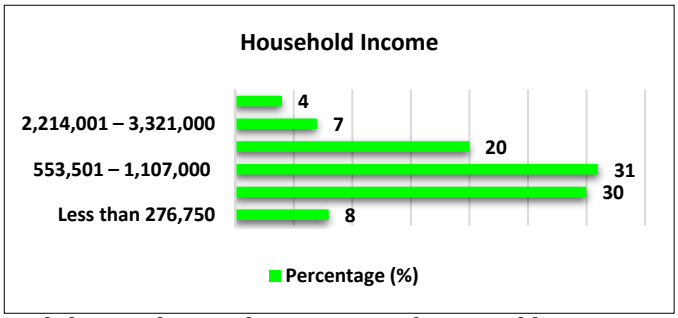
Source: Population and Housing Census 2020; Uganda National Housing Survey 2019/20.

7.1.2.2 Household Income and housing provision.

For an individual to qualify for a mortgage from the commercial banks, one must earn above Ugx. 5 million (US$1,400) a year from formal employment in order to access mortgage, (CAHF, 2020). This means, therefore, that the minimum income to qualify for a mortgage was about Ugx. 420,000 per month. In Uganda's urban areas, majority of households (31%) earn between Ugx. 0.6 to 1.1 million per month, (Figure 19). An urban household earning not more than Ugx. 1.1 million per month would only be able to afford a mortgage of up to Ugx. 28 million, (US$ 7,800). A household purchasing a low-cost house of Ugx. 72 million (US$ 20,000) would need to earn at least Ugx. 2,862,011 (US$ 800) a month to afford it, paying a monthly installation of Ugx. 1,001,704, which is 35% of the monthly income. This therefore implies that by 2021, 89% of Uganda's urban households could not qualify for mortgage to afford a low-cost house of Ugx. 72 million due to low incomes.

The COVID-19 pandemic greatly affected the incomes of the urban households due to long periods of lock downs and loss of jobs or businesses which hampered the supply of housing as well as its affordability. 1.3 million people fell into poverty since the COVID-19 outbreak after the proportion of the poor in Uganda increased by 3.2% (NHS 2019/20) indicating that majority of urban households could only engage in the housing market as tenants.

Figure 19: Household Monthly Income Distribution in Urban Areas World Bank Group, 2021 (CGIDD, 2019 & CAHF, 2020).



Besides, the low incomes of urban households, most urban households lacked security of tenure (certificate of registration) to be used as collateral for residential mortgage financing. The implication was that decent housing was very expensive and way beyond the means of the majority urban residents and this explains why many opt for rental housing.

7.1.2.3 Housing Finance

The interest rate for mortgages ranges from 16 to 20% per annum with a repayment period of up to 20 years. Uganda has a total value of Ugx 1.6 billion (US$ 429,166) in residential mortgage loans collectively held by formal commercial banks and non-banking financial institutions (CAHF,2020). The UNHS 2019/20 Report, estimated the median monthly household income at Ugx. 436,000 from 700,000 in 2016/17. As such, an urban household with this average monthly income could afford a mortgage with a principal of Ugx 18 million (US$ 5,000) at an interest rate of 16% amortized for 20 years with a monthly repayment amounting to 35% of the monthly income. However, a low cost decent two-bed roomed unit in urban areas costs about Ugx 72 million, which was more than twice what an urban household could afford. Also, the amount a borrower could mortgage was way far below the price of the lowest priced houses on the market.

In addition, the high mortgage interest rate increases the cost of borrowing for housing finance further contributing to high cost of housing which poses a significant impact on housing affordability. For example, a 20-year mortgage of Ugx. 72 million low-cost two-bedroom house at an interest rate of 16% would require a monthly mortgage repayment of about Ugx. 1 million. If a low interest fund for mortgages was provided by government and an urban household was able to secure a mortgage at 8% then the monthly repayment of the same house would reduce from Ugx. 1 million to about Ugx. 600,000. This would, therefore, increase housing

affordability and drive the demand for housing units leading to increase in supply as well. As such, majority of urban households with low incomes prefer to stay in low quality housing which they can afford.

National Housing and Construction Company Ltd (NHCCL), has no special incentives in form of subsidies and affordable interest rates for low- and moderate-income households. Hence, government needs to highly subsidize the interest rates or create a low-interest fund such that the cost of borrowing reduces making mortgage financing more affordable especially to the majority of the low-income households.

7.1.2.4 Rental Housing

The share of renting households was becoming significant in urban areas of Uganda and almost half of the urban households (48%) were renting. The urban study revealed that the average monthly rent was Ugx 263,500 ($74) for both formal and informal rentals. This amounts to 37.5% of monthly expenditure on house rent, which was slightly above the maximum 30% expenditure standard. This, therefore means that on average most urban households staying in rented housing could not afford rent for housing.

Households in Town Councils were spending about 26% of their average monthly income on house rent and therefore their house rent was quite affordable, (Table 26) whereas households in Cities and Municipalities spent 40% and 46% respectively meaning that they were equally struggling with house rent. At the regional level, households in the Central region were spending 50% of their income on house rent per month implying a severe cost-burden (Table 27). As such, an urban household paying an average monthly house rent of Ugx. 263,500 should at least earn Ugx. 900,000 and more for it to have affordable house rent. For instance, such households earning more than Ugx. 900,000 per month in Uganda's urban areas were only about 31% implying that almost two-thirds (69%) households were facing un-affordable house rents. Despite rental housing being more accessible in the urban areas, most households struggle with un-affordability of house rent while others are severely cost-burdened. As a consequence, most households opt to stay in low quality and informal housing which more often in poor condition and lacks basic services.

Table 27: Household Rent in Urban Areas

Urban Councils	Average Monthly House Rent	%ge Spent on House Rent	Level of Affordability
Cities	321,200	46	Struggling
Municipals	284,700	40	Struggling
Town Councils	184,900	26	Quite Affordable
		Household Rent by Region	
North	205,730	29	Quite Affordable
East	247,400	35	Struggling
West	322,920	46	Struggling
Central	351,560	50	Severely cost-burdened

Source: Urban study 2022.

7.1.2.5 Household Expenditure on housing

Urban households spend 20.3% on housing which was second to food and non-alcoholic beverages items (UNHS 2019/20) as illustrated in figure 24. The food costs are evidently high which distorts the households' budgets reducing budgetary expenditure on housing. However, affordability of housing was considered to be less than 30% of gross household income. Even if the expenditure on housing was within the affordable level, spending up to 30% or more was difficult due to the high costs of food, health, education, transport and communication.

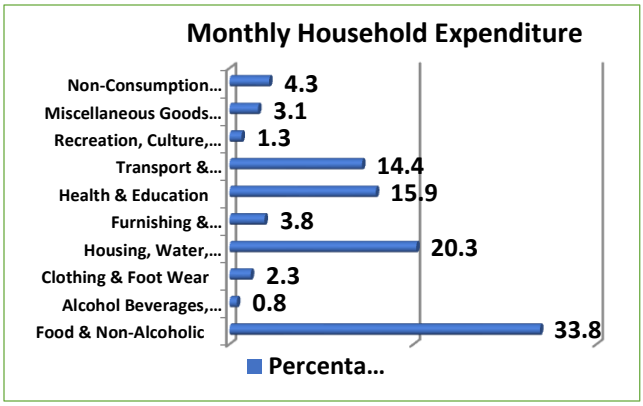


Figure 20: Share of Monthly Expenditure in Urban Areas.
Source: UNHS 2019/20.

This means that the tradeoffs most urban households make in housing and other items are inevitably spent on food thus forcing such households to reside in low quality and informal housing. This situation implies that very low- and moderate-income urban households reside in averagely priced and inappropriate housing so as to be able to save and meet other basic living costs. Basically, the implication is that some urban households have no willingness to pay for adequate housing even if such households had the ability to pay.

7.1.3 Urban Housing Supply

This section discusses the qualitative measures of housing supply and the different housing supply systems and how they affect the quality, quantity and affordability aspects of housing supply in urban areas.

7.1.3.1 Housing Quality

An overall assessment shows that urban housing supply was inadequate in terms of quantity and quality. A major shortage has been noted in the rental dwellings sector yet it plays a very big role in housing young and newly formed families as well as catering for the needs of the migrants and majority of the urban poor. As the share of urban households facing housing affordability was high and expected to expand, the supply of decent and affordable rental housing had not matched with the increasing population growth and household formation rates in urban areas. The share of rental dwellings was 48%, while 46% were owner-occupier dwellings and the remaining 6% were categorized as social housing, (Figure 21). The urban study further revealed that the increasing demand for rented housing has led to conversion of owner-occupier houses into rental accommodation hence increasing the share of rental housing in urban areas.

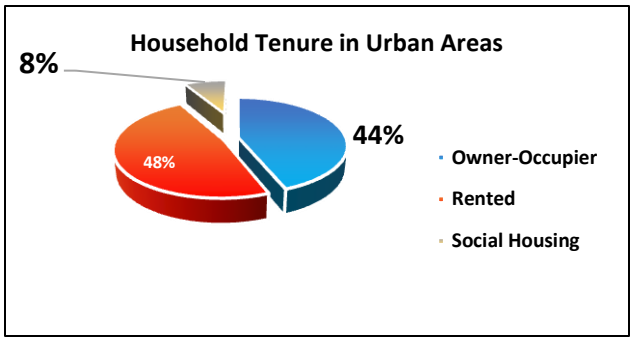
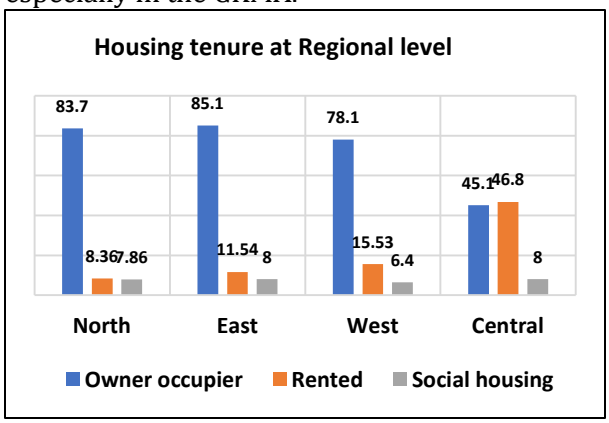


Figure 21: Household Tenure in Urban Areas.
Source: Urban study 2022.

Renting was a common feature in all the urban categories of Uganda with Cities registering the largest percentage at 50% (Figure 22). Among the urban centers, Kampala had the highest percentage of 72%.

Figure 22: Household Tenure in Urban Areas.
Source: Urban study 20222022.

Regionally, Central region had the highest share of renting households (46.8%) while the Northern region had the least at 8.3% (Figure 23). The predominance of renting households in the Central region was attributed to the high concentration of the urban population in the Central region especially in the GKMA.



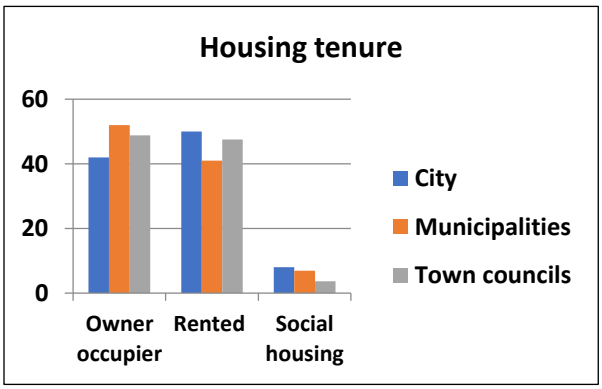


Figure 23; Household Tenure in Urban Areas.
Source: Urban study 20222022.

Due to the increasing cost of land in urban areas, owner-occupier houses were spreading towards the urban peripheral areas where land was still affordable, depicting a more peasantry and rural character in a more low-density pattern.

7.1.3.2 Nature of Housing

The nature of housing varied between the various urban authorities and regions. Overall, the largest percentage for shelter (53%) was permanent (Table 28). Municipalities recorded the highest percentage of permanent houses (61%) while Town Councils had the lowest (48.3%).

More still, Central region registered the highest percentage of permanent dwellings (75%) while the Eastern region had the lowest (45%). The challenge was that some of the permanent shelter was located in unplanned and informal areas that lacked adequate infrastructure, water and sanitation which compromises the health of urban residents termed as 'rich man's slums. This also makes regularization of such areas very costly including provision of infrastructural services especially in terms of compensation and actual delivery of services.

Table 28: Nature of Urban Shelter

Nature of Dwellings	Percentage (%)
Permanent	53
Semi-Permanent	29
Temporary	18
Total	**100**

Source: Urban study 2022.

Municipalities recorded the highest percentage of semi-permanent shelter with 31% while Cities had the lowest with 25%. At regional level, Eastern region had the highest percentage of semi-permanent dwellings (40%) while Central region had the least with 15%. Cities had the highest percentage (25%) of temporary shelter while Town Councils had the least at 16.7%. The Western region had a predominance of temporary shelter at 30% while the lowest was in the Eastern and Central both at 10%. This situation needs urgent attention in as far as improving the nature and condition of housing in urban areas was concerned, because temporary shelter was insecure and was more prone to fire which could lead to loss of both lives and property.

7.1.3.3 Housing Typology

In terms of housing typology, bungalows constituted the largest percentage at 35% (Table 29). This predominance implies presence of a relatively large single-family dwellings and homes. Bungalows are more often owner-occupied and take up much more space per person than other housing types particularly apartment buildings. The drawback with bungalows was that they promote urban sprawl and create much lower densities in urban areas. Such areas in turn become un-sustainable and energy inefficient thus affecting the rate of return on investments. Of recent, new apartment buildings are being built in urban areas especially in the GKMA to accommodate the new arrivals and these apartments are currently a vital source for accommodation of urban residents with modest incomes and were mainly preferred because of their locations where job opportunities and quality of life were high.

Table 29: Household Typology in Urban Areas

Typology	Percentage (%)
Semi-detached	23
Apartments/Flats	14
Tenements	28
Bungalow	35
Total	**100**

Source: Urban study 2022.

Tenements, on the other hand, accounted for about one-third of the shelter which was the most common type of shelter in high density and informal urban areas and mainly constructed for rental purposes. Tenements were one-two roomed units. Given the household size of 4 persons, this portrays some level of overcrowding in such units. Town Councils had the highest percentage (32.5%) of households living in tenements while Municipalities had the lowest at 20%.

At a regional level, Western region registered the highest percentage for tenements and semi-detached shelter at 33.3% and 30% respectively. The urbanization anticipated to take place in Uganda's urban areas was likely to increase the demand for housing where multi-family dwelling units in form of flats or apartments would be the ideal solution to control urban sprawl as well as promote optimal land utilization.

7.1.3.4 Household Occupancy

The urban study however, revealed that a higher percentage (51%) of households in urban areas had dwellings with one room for sleeping (Table 30). Households with two rooms were 25.5% while those with more than two rooms were 23.4%. The above analysis shows a surplus of smaller housing units and a 25% shortage in the availability of more than two roomed housing units. Furthermore, 82% of urban households renting occupied dwellings with only one room used for sleeping only 2% occupied more than two rooms. This, however, provides a clear indicator that the quality of housing was still poor and characterized with overcrowding which results into faster spread of infectious and respiratory diseases.

Table 30: Number of Rooms in Households

Number of Rooms	Percentage (%)
One Room	51.0
Two Rooms	25.5
More than Two Rooms	23.4
Total	**100**
Renting Households	
One Room	82.0
Two Rooms	15.6
More than Two Rooms	2.4
Total	**100**

Source: UNHS- 2019/20.

7.1.3.5 Housing Requirement

Currently in Uganda the number of households was estimated at 9.5 million of which 27% (2.5 m) were in urban areas, (IFC, 2021). The urban housing deficit stands at 54,400 units, of which 37,075 are in Kampala, (Table 30). Uganda's urban housing situation was characterized by inadequate housing in terms of quality and quantity. The National Development Plan (III) set a goal of reducing the acute housing deficit of 2.2 million by 20% by 2025 and to also decrease the percentage of urban dwellers living in slums and informal settlements from 60% to 40%. In addition, the government through its housing policy 2016 promised to increase the production of adequate housing for all income groups from 60,000 to 200,000 housing units per annum so as to meet the housing needs by 2022, but so little has been achieved.

Over 90% of housing supplied in the urban areas was meant to cater for the high- and middle-class households despite the existing demand for the low-cost housing for the low income and majority of the urban poor. Yet, the Sustainable Development Goal II recognizes the need to make Cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable by 2030 through ensuring access for all to adequate safe and affordable housing, basic services and upgrade of slums among others. The central government should therefore be able to deliver on the objectives of the SDG II since the housing deficit requires urgent attention from the government.

Table 31: Housing Shortages in Urban Areas of Uganda

No.	Indicator	Kampala	Urban
1	Population	2,145,539	11,043,000
2	Average Household Size	3.4	4
3	Household Occupancy Density	3.6	3.6
4	Estimated Housing Need	175,300	766,900
5	Estimated Housing Stock	138,225	712,500
	Housing backlog/deficit	**37,075**	**54,400**

Source: Population & Housing 2020; National Household Survey 2019/20.

NHCCL provides about 135 housing units annually on the market with no provision of affordable houses for the low- and moderate-income households as many of the available units are far beyond the reach of the ordinary middle- and low-income households. NHCCL delivers mid-value houses at about Ugx 350 million (US$100,000) which was unaffordable to the majority of the urban poor (CAHF, 2018). With the above gaps, the government's role in facilitating the supply of affordable housing was not being fulfilled.

7.1.3.6 Housing Affordability

The current prices of houses have greatly soared almost three times since 2,000 thus creating affordability challenges for the middle- and low-income earners. The price of the cheapest newly built house by a formal developer or contractor was about Ugx 76 million (US$ 21,000) in 2018, (CAHF 2018), an affordable housing of a one-bedroom house went for between Ugx. 47 million (US$ 12,000) and Ugx. 85 million (US$23,600), while two-bedroom and three-bedroom units were being offered for Ugx. 150 million (US$ 41,700) and Ugx. 200 million (US$ 55,600) respectively. An urban household earning the average monthly income of Ugx. 703,000 would only afford a house of no more Ugx. 25 million (US$ 7,000) - thrice the annual income. The high costs of houses are resultant to the consequences of speculation and hoarding of land which renders the available and relatively serviced land very expensive.

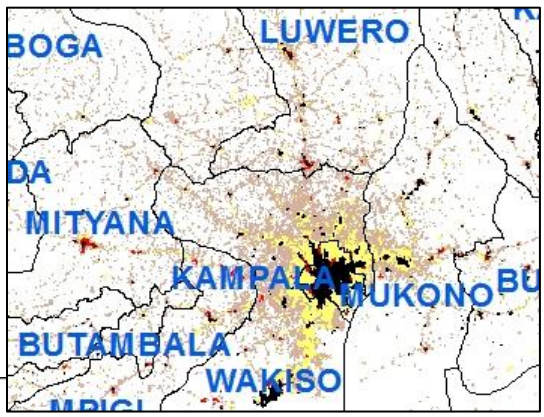
The rising cost of building materials also contributes to the high cost of housing in the urban areas. For instance, in 2021, cement prices increased by over 34% from an average of Ugx 30,000 to Ugx 40,000 for a 50kg bag of cement. The increase was attributed to both internal and external factors and increased demand from several infrastructural developments. This price volatility has greatly and negatively impacted on capacity of households to undertake or even continue with housing construction already started and thus many were likely to suspend construction for the time being. This situation will increase the already existing wide affordability gap especially for the middle- and low-income earners whose housing needs are being met through informal mechanism. As such, most urban housing is being delivered through informal means more often on small and illegally subdivided plots. The implication is that excessively high housing prices causes social problems especially when access to decent housing becomes unaffordable to many households, thus leading in particular to overcrowding, homelessness and proliferation of informal settlements.

7.1.4 Housing Settlements/Neighbourhoods

The urban study revealed that there were two types of settlements both formal (30%) and informal (70%) of which 20% lived in typical slums. Most households in informal settlements resided on customary tenure which was largely unregistered, un-surveyed and un-titled accounting for about 40% of the Uganda's urban areas.

More than half (51%) of the urban households lived in one-roomed housing units presenting high levels of overcrowding. Cities had the highest room occupancy at 5.7 followed by Municipalities and Town Councils at 4 and 3.3 respectively. Eastern region had the highest occupancy ratio at 4.5, while Central had the least at 3.5 persons per room. It was deduced that there was high level of informality in Uganda's urban areas with majority of buildings built illegally without any form of planning guidance. Overall, only 48.6% of the buildings had approved building plans in urban areas of Uganda.

Map 3: Linear settlements typical of Urban Areas of Uganda



Consequently, the current urban form was mostly characterized by the level and nature of concentration of settlements in the urban centres. On one hand, there was high concentration of settlements in the urban centers and areas that immediately surround the CBD. On the other hand, there are settlements with individual single-family houses within low density areas characterized by irrational use of land and insufficient

infrastructure and utilities. This duality was quite typical in all the urban areas. This type pattern of urban growth was attributed to rapid population growth and un-guided or uncontrolled urbanization resulting into urban sprawl following a linear/ribbon pattern and squatter settlements in the most urban centers.

7.1.5 Slum upgrading and redevelopment

Since 2010, Uganda has been able to implement only one (01) Slum Upgrading[13] Project, which is the Kasooli Housing Project located in Tororo Municipality. Kasoli Housing Project is a government low-income housing project which was spearheaded and implemented by the Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development (MoLHUD) from 2011-216 in Kasooli Village, Tororo Municipality in partnership with four (4) other stakeholders including UN-HABITAT, DFCU Bank, Kasooli Housing SACCO and Tororo Municipality. This was a low-income housing project intended to benefit 250 slum dweller households. However, at the completion of the project, only 92 two bed-roomed houses had been constructed due to changes in cost of houses, of which 12 had a shop at a cost of Ugx 31 million and Ugx 40 million respectively.

The major slum upgrading projects undertaken by Government in the past include Namuwongo Upgrading and Low-Cost Housing Project, Masese Womens Self Help Project, Malukhu Integrated Housing Project, and Oli Self Help Project benefiting over 2000 households. This means that the Government of Uganda has implemented five (05) slum upgrading projects since 1987 and most of them were pilot initiatives to be replicated in other slums across the country. Unfortunately, there has been little effort to replicate such projects in Uganda's urban areas given the fact that about 70% of the urban areas are informal, of which 20% are slums.

7.1.6 Housing Challenges in Urban Areas

High Cost of Land was one of the challenges in housing provision where fully serviced plots of land for development were costly to acquire and as such most of the middle- and low-income earners took over marginal lands such as forests, infrastructure reserves, wetlands and large tracts of privately-owned undeveloped public land. The unsanctioned land 'invasions' and 'incursions' are bound to accelerate with rising social polarization and inequality in urban areas. The high costs of land push urban residents into the urban peripheral areas which are the food basket for these urban areas.

Land and property registration and administration in the Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development has been characterized by bureaucracy, red tape, corruption and inefficiencies which in essence has contributed to the high cost of land acquisition in urban areas despite the creation of MZO offices.

The rising cost of building materials such as cement, steel iron bars and iron sheets which account for about 75% of a low-cost house had greatly hindered housing provision. The cost of the building materials has tremendously increased and was expected to continue increasing hence most households preferred to build their own houses with the help of local artisan workers incrementally as and when the funds became available which compromised on the quality of the structure and in some cases such structures were never completed before occupation.

The mortgage financing market remains inaccessible to majority of low-income households. Most commercial banks demand for formal employment and collateral in form of a land title. These requirements excluded most of the urban households because of lack of security of tenure and employment in the informal sector.

[13] Slum upgrading refers to a formal attempt to upgrade informal and unplanned housing settlements especially in urban and peri-urban areas which have typically deteriorated into slums.

Building Guidelines and Regulations were very costly, restrictive and follow a bureaucratic procedure which deters most developers from applying for development permission. It was reported that it takes about 4 months to approve a building plan in Kampala and up to a year in Fort-Portal City. This was a clear manifestation of lack of responsiveness to the social and economic needs of the urban population especially the majority low-income households thereby excluding them from formal house construction.

Central government's delegation of its responsibility in housing provision to the private sector which are profit driven has left many of the urban dwellers without adequate housing. The profit driven private sector provides housing for only those who can afford leaving out the urban poor and most needy who were the majority. It has also failed on the assumed role of an enabler in the provision of serviced land and regularization of the informal settlements.

7.1.7 Recommendations

The Government together with stakeholders should develop and implement an investment plan for adequate and affordable housing in order to facilitate supply of affordable and decent housing through defining its long-term plans for increasing the supply of affordable housing while balancing the need to minimize urban sprawl.

Urban authorities should also enhance their institutional capacity towards housing supply through the preparation of urban physical development plans and detailed plans in partnership with all stakeholders including the major land-lords. This should ensure that adequate land is allocated for development of housing where it's fully serviced. Additionally, urban authorities should streamline the land regularization and registration and make it more affordable to all.

Government and urban authorities should incentivize the private sector in undertaking affordable housing projects to address the housing deficit in supply of social housing in partnership with the private sector; non-profit housing agencies by renting out government subsidized dwelling units. One of such partnerships is for the Government to offer free land in exchange of development of affordable housing units for the low and middle class as well as promotion of rental housing through supporting construction of decent rental housing especially in affordable market segments for all categories of people.

Urban authorities with support from Government should address infrastructural provision in informal settlements and slums and undertake slum upgrading programmes. Urban physical plans need to be developed with incentives to adopt participatory in-situ upgrading of informal settlements or slums so as to regularize informal settlements to help increase the supply of safe, adequate and affordable housing.

Government together with urban authorities should interest themselves into research to explore more innovative low-cost building materials and low construction technology to support supply of more affordable housing. Additionally, capacity of the local artisans should be enhanced in the relevant skills especially in the use of low-cost building technologies and how to ensure quality in housing construction because these are the main labour supply actors in the largely informal housing sector.

Urban authorities should develop regulations with support from Government to facilitate provision of affordable housing, for example, private sector should be required to provide 35% of their newly built homes or housing units truly affordable for the low-income earners. Review of the building regulations and standards should be done in order to accommodate the needs of the majority who are the urban poor. Such areas for revision would include among others the permitted minimum size of a plot, percentage coverage of the plot and setbacks.

In order to increase access to housing finance, the government has introduced a scheme in partnership with the financial institutions of using retirement savings as collateral for accessing housing mortgages and loans to either construct a decent house or purchase a completed house ahead of their retirement depending on the social and economic needs. This is a good practice which should be upscaled.

Chapter Eight

8.0 Urban Areas Competitiveness, Productivity and Local Economic Development

8.1.1 Overview

Urbanization geographically agglomerates both people and economic activity. The performance of national economies largely depends on the performance of urban economies. The global economy is increasingly a function of goods and services produced in or traded among Cities and metropolitan areas. Highly urbanized countries have higher incomes, provide opportunities for investment and employment, boast stronger institutions and are more resilient to adversities of the global economy than those with less urbanized populations. These factors make Cities more economically competitive for investment and strengthen the economies of urban areas with high productivity. It is therefore, important to closely examine the status of urban economies and help them overcome challenges so as to boost the whole nation's economic performance.

A competitive urban area is one that successfully facilitates its business firms and industries to create jobs, raise productivity and increase income of citizens over time (World Bank). Competitiveness of an urban area can also refer to ability of an urban area to produce and market a set of products (goods and services), that represent good value and lower price in relation to comparable products of other urban areas. It is dependent on the presence of good quality infrastructure, communication network, public service effectiveness and efficiency, business rivalry and cooperation, access to natural resources and skills, location in relation to market, risk management, social capital and quality of life of residents (Asian Development Bank).

Productivity of an urban area is the efficiency with which an economy uses available inputs to produce which fundamentally drives economic growth. Productivity is closely related to competitiveness. Therefore, a more competitive economy is likely to grow faster over time, and productivity-based competitiveness sets an economy's level of prosperity.

Local Economic Development (LED) is a strategic planning process emphasizing partnerships between local governments, the business community, civil society and all stakeholders. LED assesses a community's comparative advantage, identifies new or existing market opportunities for businesses, and reduces obstacles to business expansion and creation. Therefore, LED focuses on the region's potential and identifies specifically what local stakeholders can and need to do to ensure that their local community reaches its potential.

8.1.1.1 Competitiveness of Urban Areas in Uganda

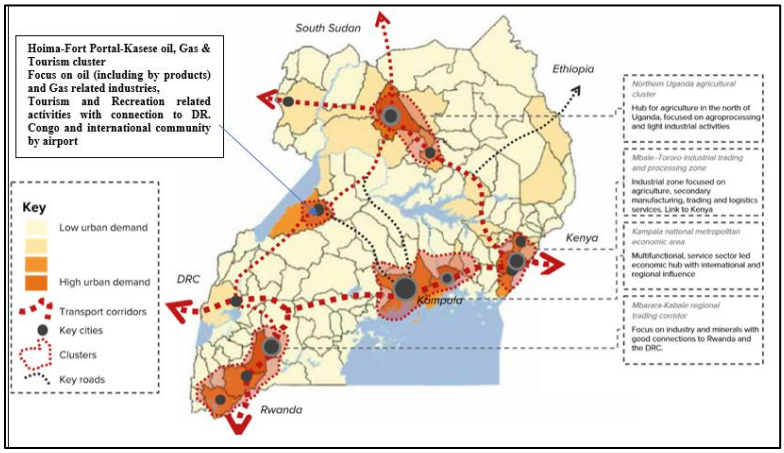
Urban areas in Uganda (2020/2021) were not economically competitive. This was exhibited in their failure to harness agglomeration effects, economies of scale and economic transformation, due to challenges in exploiting most of their comparative opportunity and competitiveness. The country's pseudo urbanization was characterized by high levels of sprawl (Map 3) without the minimum population densities which couldn't support economic growth.

Map 4: The Distribution of Urban Centres in Uganda.
Source; UN – Habitat, Uganda National Urban Profile 2012.

8.1.1.2 Competitiveness of ULGs in Uganda

Uganda was classified into regional clusters of urban growth based on the comparative advantage of the region as indicated in map 4[14]. These clusters are also proposed to encourage urban compaction and densification so as to control urban sprawl, but also enable urban areas to have larger economies of scale and agglomeration. These included: Kampala national metropolitan area, Mbarara-Kabale regional trading corridor, Mbale-Tororo industrial trading and processing zone, and Northern Uganda agricultural cluster.

Central region was the most urbanised area in terms of built-up (map 5). It is home to the Kampala metropolitan urban cluster. Among this region's comparative advantage contributing to its competitiveness was the large population size (38% of the national population) with relatively good road connection to other parts of the country. Other competitive advantages especially due to housing the capital city and its metropolitan area were; distinct primacy in most fields, serving as the centre of administration, services, commerce, finance, education, culture, sport and major government offices and public services. In addition, this area had a large high value-added services sector, the main and most diverse industrial and manufacturing sector. This contributed to increased economies of scale and advantages of agglomeration.



Map 5: Regional Urban Clusters Based on Their Comparative Advantage and Competitiveness.
Source: Government of Uganda Paper and New Climate Economy Partners,2016.

Eastern Region was the most densely urbanized in terms of number of urban centres. The region houses the proposed Mbale-Tororo industrial trading and processing zone urban cluster. The region has 15% of the national population and its main comparative advantage was connecting Uganda to her main gateway port of Mombasa in Kenya which could be exploited to promote trading, logistics services, warehouse and storage facilities and services. Though this region was the main producer of cereals and sweet potatoes with an advantage of management of agro processing industries coupled with mining potential in gold, limestone and phosphates to support manufacturing, these advantages had not been harnessed hence the region's low levels of competitiveness.

Northern Region was the less urbanized (sparsely located centres) region compared to other regions. Northern region accommodated about 21% of the national population. The region's comparative advantage was in the production of cereal crops and sweet potatoes. Urban areas in this region would exploit this advantage by becoming a hub for agricultural processing and promoting export trade to Southern Sudan and the North Eastern part of DR. Congo given the relatively good road connections to those neighbouring countries. However, failure to harness these advantages coupled with low power supply in the region, explains the region's low levels of competitiveness.

Western Region: is relatively an urbanized region especially the southern part of the region. In terms of urban outlook, this region is home to the proposed Mbarara-Kabale regional trading corridor cluster and the Hoima – Fort Portal – Kasese Oil, Gas and Tourism cluster. Western region houses about 26% of the national population and it is located in the Albertine region which is rich in minerals. The north western part has large deposits of oil while the southern has other minerals such as iron ore, mica, tungsten and lime. Urban areas in this region can become big industrial centres by refining and processing these minerals, turn them into

[14] Source: The government of Uganda Paper, "Better Growth, Better Cities; Achieving Uganda's Development Ambition 2016".

products ready for home use and export to Rwanda and DR. Congo. Efforts have been made towards the exploration of oil and gas however other areas are yet to be exploited hence the low competitiveness, agglomeration and economies of scale in the region.

Uganda had 625 ULG all of which function as administrative/commercial centres in their respective regions which implies that these urban areas can exploit the advantage of being administration/commercial centres to attract more investments in these areas and benefit from economies of scale and agglomeration. The scale and form of agglomeration of these urban areas save for Kampala was still low to bring about the desired economic growth in these areas.

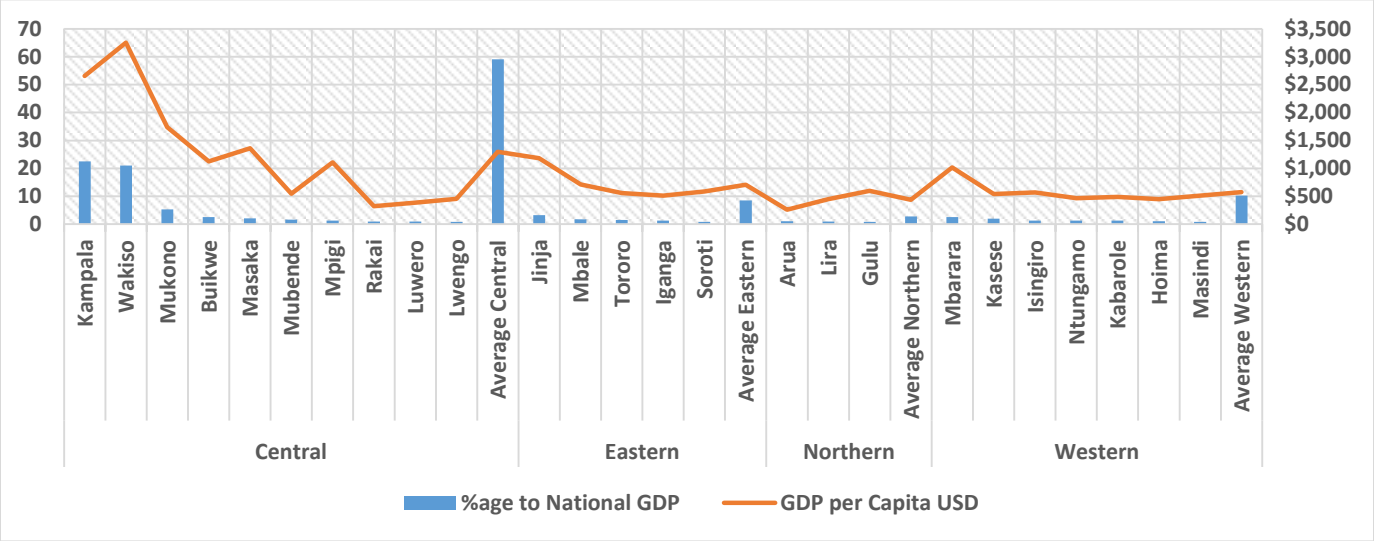
The major challenges to harnessing of competitiveness in urban areas were; creation of urban centres without the minimum densities to foster agglomeration; Limited exploitation of the comparative opportunity and competitiveness in the urban areas; Inadequate integrated connectivity at regional, intercity and intra city levels. The implication of the above challenges is that it limits optimum exploitation of the comparative advantages in the different urban areas and hence limit their competitiveness, decreasing their GDP and their full contribution to economic development and prosperity.

It is recommended that government promotes compaction, densification and connectivity of urban areas, to have large populations in smaller areas. This will reduce cost of services, cost of market access and enable exploitation of economies of scale and agglomeration, hence making urban centres more competitive.

8.1.2 Urban Productivity

The value of concentration in urban areas includes increased productivity and job creation, specifically in services and manufacturing, as well as higher standards of living. Overall, Cities generate productivity and thereby enhance the agglomeration impacts of urbanization.

Figure 24: GDP Contributions and per Capita for the Top Twenty - Five Districts by Region.
Source: Estimating GDP in Uganda, USAID, 2017.



Night light intensity was used to determine GDP and the large GDP figures for top 25 districts can be attributed to the higher value activities which take place in their respective urban centres[15]. Although urban

[15] Determination of urban productivity was based on the first twenty - five districts contributing to about 80% of the national GDP and accommodate the biggest percentage of urban areas due to lack of statistical information. GPD was calculated using the Enhanced Light Intensity model combined with other statistical information (USAID, 2017).

areas are within the top 25 districts that generate 80% of the national GDP, their productivity was still low given that the highest per capita was USD. 2,655 while some urban areas had as low as USD. 261.

At regional level, Central region which was known to be the most urbanized region of the country contributed 59% of the top 80% of national GDP with an average per capita of USD. 1,295 for the considered districts. Kampala contributed the most (23%) to the national GDP with a per capita of USD. 2,655 (Figure 24). The least contributors in central were Luwero and Lwengo contributing slightly below 1% with per capita of USD. 385 and 455 respectively.

Eastern region, known to be experiencing more urban densification contributed 8.5% to the national GDP of the top 80% (Figure 24). The top contributing districts were Jinja and Mbale each contributing 3.2% and 1.7% with a per capita of USD. 1,180 and 712 respectively. The least contributor in the East was Soroti, contributing slightly below 1% with per capita of USD. 586.

Northern region had only three districts among the top twenty – five districts contributing 80% of the national GDP (Figure 24). The region contributed about 2.8% of the top 80% GDP. Arua district contributed about 1% while Lira and Gulu each contributed slightly below 1% to the top 80% of the national GDP with per capita of USD. 261, 441, 599 respectively.

Western region was the least urbanised and contributed about 10% of GDP to the top 80% of the national GDP (Figure 24). The top contributor in the region was Mbarara contributing 2.6% followed by Kasese contributing about 2% with per capita of 1,013 and 540 respectively while Masindi district contributed the least slightly below 1% and per capita of USD. 514.

From the above analysis, it was noted that the northern region had large urban area with very low productivity. This means that urban areas in this region are yet to fully perform their role as engines of growth.

Districts which formerly housed the current eleven Cities contributed about 38% of the 80% from the 25 districts (figure 25). Kampala had the highest at about 23%, followed by Jinja and Mbarara at 3.2% and 2.6% with per capita of USD. 2,655, 1,180 and 1,013 respectively. It can be noted that all the districts which formerly housed the Cities were among the top twenty – five districts which contribute the top 80% of the national GDP. This means that urban areas significantly support economic growth in the country.

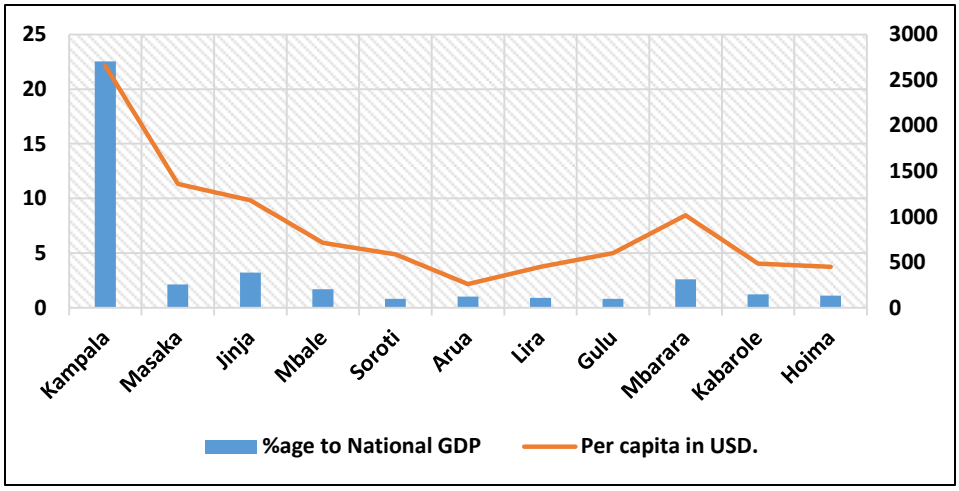


Figure 25: GDP Contributions and per Capita for the Top Twenty - Five Districts Which Formerly Housed Current Cities.
Source: USAID, 2017.

It should be noted that there was unbalanced economic growth skewed to the central region which contributed about 60% to the 80% of the national GDP.

There was also low level of productivity as indicated by the per capita, with only 3 Cities, 5 Municipalities and 17 Town Councils located in districts with GDP per capita above USD. 1,000.

The implication was that development and growth will concentrate in the relatively developed areas straining the limited resources and resulting into diseconomies of scale, slowing growth and development in the other areas. In addition, areas with low growth and development will remain with high incidences of poverty, limited wealth and no prosperity.

In order to increase productivity in urban areas, government should promote balanced growth by strengthening the newly created Cities through: enhancing technical and financial capacities; create one national planning/coordinating development programs/supervision office for urban areas and maintain regional integrated infrastructures. In addition, government should encourage growth based on comparative advantage and economic specialization to avoid competition amongst selves.

8.1.3 Local Economic Development in Urban Areas

This section examines the economic activities in urban areas in the four major sectors of the economy, that is, Agriculture, Trade, Manufacturing and Service. The section further examines the informal sector, labour and poverty in urban areas[16].

In Uganda, 30% of the urban households were engaged in urban agriculture. Cities and Town Councils had 35% of households engaged in urban agriculture while Municipalities had 25% in wholesale and retail trade as the main economic activity. The concentration of households relying on urban agriculture in Cities could partly be attributed to the annexation of new large areas which were still typically rural.

The service sector was the largest sector in Uganda, providing employment to 45% of those employed in urban areas. On average the service sector provided employment to 46% in the Eastern region and 50% in the Northern region as per Figure 26. The sector employed 45% of the working population in Cities and 40% in Municipalities.

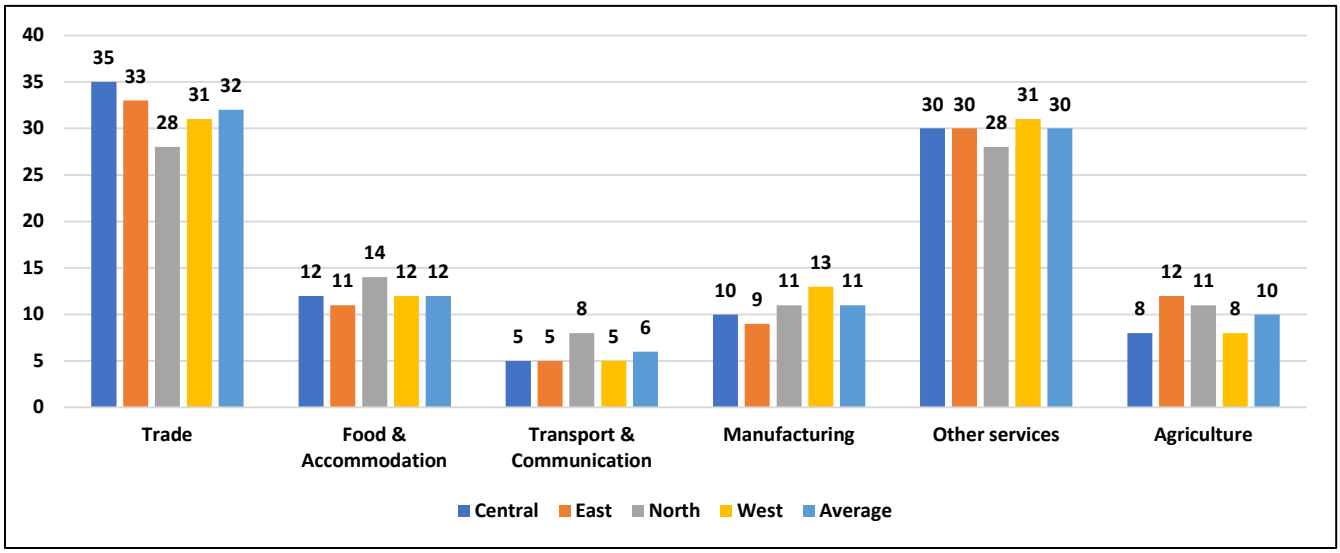
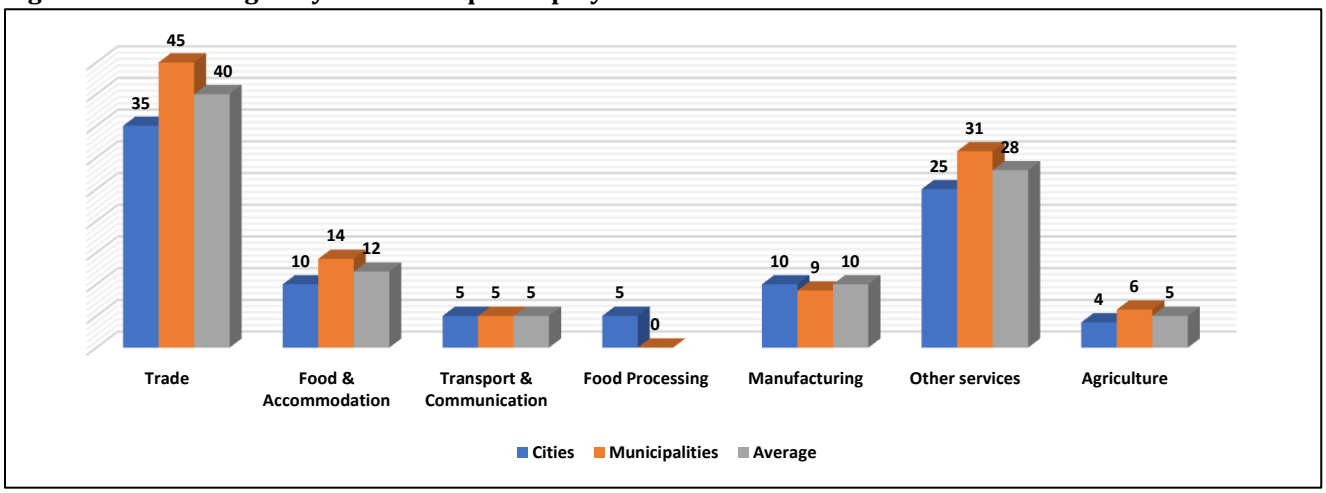


Figure 26: Percentage Urban Employment in Main Economic Activities by Region.

[16] Information provided in this section was based on estimates from the sampled urban councils due to lack of disaggregated data.

Trade was a big sector in urban areas across regions (Figure 27), while at ULG level it employed 35% and 45% in Cities and Municipalities respectively.

Figure 27: Percentage City and Municipal Employment in Main Economic Activities.



Source: UBOS, Census of Business Enterprises.

The manufacturing sector, accounts for about 8.7 % of the GDP and mainly located in urban areas which usually offer infrastructure, utilities and economies of scale. Absence of high value manufactured products (such as production of machines) limits economic transformation and prosperity. Regionally manufacturing provided employment in range of 9% (Eastern) to 13 % (Western) – Figure 28, while in terms of hierarchy, it was 15% in Cites and 9% in Municipalities.

On average, annual turnover for the majority of the businesses (70%) was less than five million shillings. 93% of the businesses had less than 5 employees, 4% of the businesses had 5 to 9 employees while only 2% had 10 or more employees confirming that the majority of business were still small. This implies that these businesses produce low value products and hence many of them fall out of the tax bracket.

Although the urban agricultural sector employs a large number of people, the sector had smaller proportions in terms of people employed to earn. The sector employment ranged between 8% in Central and Western region to 12% in Eastern Region and 11% in Northern region. In terms of ULGs, those employed in urban agriculture were 4% in Cities and 6% in Municipalities.

8.1.4 Regional Urban Economy

The largest sector in regional urban economies was the service sector. On average, the sector provided employment to 48% of those employed as per Figure 31. There were no major percentage differences across regions in employment within the same sector. Manufacturing was more diversified and included more high value products in central region (Figure 30).

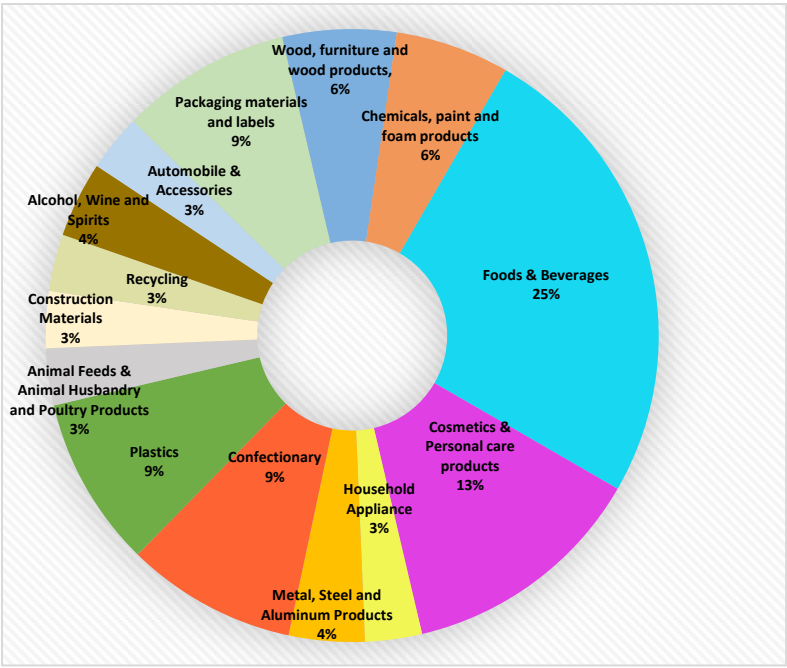


Figure 28: Diversification of manufacturing sector.
Source: Wakiso District Investment Profile, 2018.

In Eastern region, the service sector in urban areas provided employment to 46%, while trade contributed 33% and

manufacturing only 9%. In Northern region the service sector provided a larger proportion of employment at 40%, followed by trade at 28% and manufacturing at 11%. And in Western region, the service sector was the largest sector accounting for 48% employment followed by trade at 31% while manufacturing contributed 13% employment as per Figure 28.

The local urban economies in Central and Eastern regions had more diversified economies than in Northern and Western regions.

At ULG level, the service sector in Cities employed 40%, followed by trade at 35% and manufacturing at 15 % (food processing and other manufacturing) as per figure 24. It can be noted that trade was less in Cities because Cities have a more diverse economy in which to absorb the population. On the other hand, the services sector accounted for 40% employment, followed by trade at 45% and manufacturing at 10% in Municipalities. Trade was a more pronounced employment sector, since municipal economies are not as diversified as Cities, where choice of employment is wider.

8.1.5 Informal Sector in Urban areas

Informal businesses were normally small and medium size characterized by: absence of final accounts, having less than 5 employees and no fixed location. In Uganda, the informal sector contributes over 50% of Uganda's GDP, and employs about 80% of the labour force.

45% of the households in urban areas had an informal enterprise, meaning that almost for every two houses, one of them had an informal enterprise (NHS 2016/17). The informal sector was economically significant in its contribution to employment for the youth. The youth are the largest single age group owning businesses in the informal sector (44%) and the largest single age group employed in the same sector (80%).

8.1.6 Working Population and Unemployment in Urban Areas

The population employed in urban areas was 3 million while the proportion of employed to population was 60%. This implies that urban economies have a higher capacity to generate jobs. The proportion of the working population actively employed was highest in Western region at 76% and lowest in Eastern at 65% as compared to the national average of 69% (Table 32). This means that the economy in Western region had a higher capacity to generate jobs as compared to the rest of the regions. Meanwhile the highest proportion of youth NEET was Northern Region with 15.9% and lowest in Western region at 9% as compared to the national average at 13%. This may partly explain the high unemployment rates in urban areas.

Table 32: Proportion of Working population and Youth Not in Education Employment or Training in Regional Urban Areas

Urban centre	Percentage	
	Working 16 - 64	Youth NEET
Central	71	13.1
Eastern	65	14.5
Northern	67	15.9
Western	76	9
Average	**69**	**13.**

Source: UBOS 2014.

In Cities and Municipalities, the proportion of working age population that was actively employed was the same across all urban hierarchies at 69 % (Table 33) meaning that both Municipalities and Cities had same capacity of generating jobs. However, the proportion of youth NEET was slightly higher in

Municipalities at 13.7% compared to 13% in Cities. This may imply that Municipalities were more affected with youth unemployment.

Table 33: Proportion of Working population and Youth NEET in Cities and Municipalities

Urban centre	Percentage	
	Working 16 - 64	Youth NEET
Cities	69	13
Municipalities	69	13.7
	69	13.3

Source: UBOS 2014.

8.1.7 Poverty in Urban Areas of Uganda

In Uganda the proportion of the population living in poverty increased from 19.7% in 2012/13 to 21.4% in 2016/17 nationally. Over the same period, the increase in poverty was most prominent in the Eastern region than in Northern region which had consistently been the poorest region in the country. According to UNHS 2019/20, between 2018/19 and 2019/20, the rate of poverty fell further from 21.4% to 20.3%, over the same period however, the absolute figure for people living in poverty increased from 8 million to 8.3 million due to covid-19 pandemic.

While poverty rates could not be established for each of the individual urban areas, the UNHS reported that in urban areas, the proportion of population living in poverty increased from 9.5% to 11.7% and the number of poor persons increased from 0.9 million to 1.3 million.

High poverty rates in urban areas were indicated by the high proportions of youth NEET, the proportion ranging from 21% to 7.5% in Cities and 17.3% to 13.7% in the Municipalities, which would imply high rates of unemployment and lack of income and hence poverty. Poverty in urban areas was further indicated by the high proportion of households having subsistence agriculture as their main source of livelihood, where the average proportion was 22% for Cities and 26% for the Municipalities.

Major challenges to LED were; Limited industrialisation with low value products which could not compete favorably on the international market and create enough high value jobs required to boost incomes, economic transformation and prosperity; Large low value service sector products which limits expansion of industrial sector and inclusive growth; Many small-scale enterprises with low turnover; Large proportion of urban population depending on agriculture as main source livelihood; Large informal sector with limited capacity to generate high paying jobs; lack of policy to guide the informal sector; inadequate skills and capital for informal enterprises; High cost of doing business amidst intermittent amenities and working space. One can therefore conclude that there was low quantity and quality of job creation resulting into low incomes and limited transformation of the economy; limited taxable entities leading to poor provision of services.

It is recommended that government transforms the informal sector into viable and sustainable business enterprises by integrating it into plans and policies to provide suitable space for their enterprises; provide extended training in entrepreneurship, extend credit; and encourage cooperation/association and trust; promote densification and connectivity of urban areas to reduce cost of service provision, market access and enable exploitation of economies of scale and agglomeration hence making urban centres more competitive.

8.1.8 Policy direction and recommendation on Local Economic Development

LED is a development process where stakeholders (Local governments, the private sector, civil society, the community and others) are mobilized into partnerships to jointly and collectively engage in identification, mobilization, management and initialization of resources at the local level.

The Uganda National LED Policy is intended to provide a framework for partnerships and promotion of accelerated mobilization and galvanization of social and economic actors to effectively address the economic development challenges in their territorial localities. This can be achieved by; increasing in business support through encouraging local investment centers; Enhancing growth of the private sector investment in Local governments and increasing in locally generated revenue in form of direct taxes and LGs own revenue generating ventures.

This report recommends compaction, densification, exploitation of comparative advantage, inter and intra connectivity urban areas to make local economies more competitive and attract investment. It further recommends support to business sector by providing space to the informal sector while making physical development plans. In addition, it recommends partnerships in training the local population and informal business sector (which could be done with the Civil society organizations). These recommendations could improve local economies by improving household incomes and increasing local governments' revenues as the local economies improve.

Chapter Nine

9.0 Urban Social Development

9.1 Overview of social development issues in urban areas

Social development refers to many of the non-economic processes and outcomes of development, including but not limited to: reduced vulnerability; inclusion; wellbeing; accountability; people-centred approaches; and freedom from violence (World Bank). It is fundamentally concerned with human rights, formal and informal power relations, inequality and possibilities for building greater equality among individuals and groups within societies. It is also linked to Human development which is a process of enlarging people's choices by building human capabilities to lead lives that they value (UNDP, Human development reports). This involves the capability to lead long and healthy lives, to be educated, to access resources, social protection and fair employment. As such, human development is also fundamentally concerned with human rights, including those to life, health, education and wellbeing. This section of the report therefore covers social services, street children, child and maternal health in Uganda's urban areas.

9.2 Social services

Social services are a range of public services intended to provide support and assistance towards particular groups, which commonly include the disadvantaged. This report mainly focused on educational and health services within urban areas.

9.2.1 Educational Services in urban areas of Uganda

Everyone has a right to enjoy access to quality education, without discrimination or exclusion as affirmed in numerous human rights treaties and recognized by governments in international goals including the Education for All (EFA) goals (World Bank). Education must be available; accessible (including to the most marginalized); of acceptable quality, relevant, non-discriminatory and culturally appropriate; and adaptable to suit local context.

9.2.1.1 Ownership of education Facilities

Although access to education is a human right, the situation in Uganda's urban centres is yet to meet this requirement especially for the disadvantaged such as the urban poor. This can partly be attributed to government's policy that allowed unregulated private service providers in the sector. The urban study revealed that on average, government owned education facilities account for 42% of education facilities in urban areas with Cities taking 53% while Municipalities and Town Councils took up 35% and 38% respectively. The Central region recorded the highest number of government owned facilities at 61% while Eastern region had the lowest at 18% (Figure 97). The low figures in government owned facilities point to a big gap in accessibility and usability of education services especially among the urban poor.

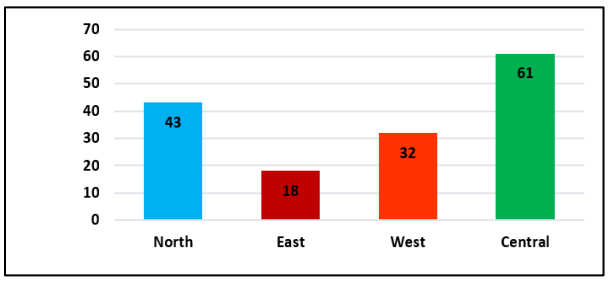


Figure 29: Distribution of Government Education Facilities.

9.2.1.2 Affordability of education Facilities

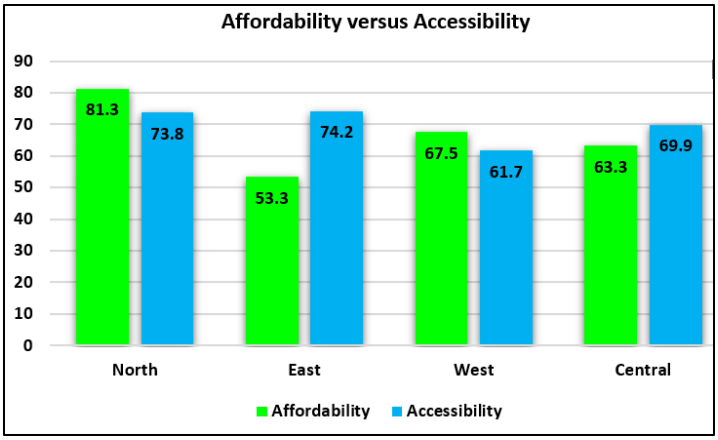
On average about 59.4% of the urban population could afford the cost of education in the available education facilities in 2020/21. Though affordability in Municipalities and Cities was higher at 65%, the situation was quite dire in the Town Councils where only 41.7% of the population could afford the cost of education. At a regional level, the Northern region recorded the highest affordability at 63.3% followed by Eastern region at 60% and Central region was the least with 53.8%. It should be noted that the levels of affordability herein did not necessarily point to the economic capacity of the different households in the various regions but

rather to the varying costs of services in these areas in addition to terms and conditions under which such services are provided.

9.2.1.3 Access to education Facilities

On average only 58.2% of the urban population accessed education services. Cities recorded the highest percentage at 69.2% followed by Municipalities at 46.7% and Town Councils at 58.7%. The Northern region recorded the highest-level of accessibility at 70% while Eastern region had the least at 52% (Figure 30). It was evident that though education facilities were accessible to most of the urban population, many were unable to afford them hence the disparity between accessibility and affordability of education services.

Figure 30: Regional Comparison between affordability and accessibility to education services.



9.2.1.4 Range of education Facilities

Range of service delivery refers to the minimum distance covered to access the service. The urban population on average covered a distance of 2.67kms in order to access education services which was within the recommended standards of 0.5 – 3 kms (NPPS&G 2011). The lowest distances were in Cities, with an average distance of 2kms followed by Town Councils with 2.5kms while Municipalities stand at 3.5kms. At a regional level, Central region had the shortest distance covered at 1.5kms while the Northern (4km), Eastern (3.5km) and Western (2.5km). The Northern and Eastern regions were above the national average of 2.67km and the provisions of the NPPS&G. It should be noted that there was no significant difference between affordability and accessibility across regions except for the Eastern region where a slight difference was noticeable. Based on this indicator therefore, the situation in education services in urban areas was fairly good. The challenge was rather in the quality of service provided in the available education institutions[17].

9.2.2 Health Services

Access to health services is also a human right. The Uganda health policy draws on the right to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health. Integration of human rights in health systems is essential for improvement of public health at the individual and population level (Gruskin, S., Mills, E. J. & Tarantola, D. (2007).

9.2.2.1 Ownership of health services in urban areas of Uganda

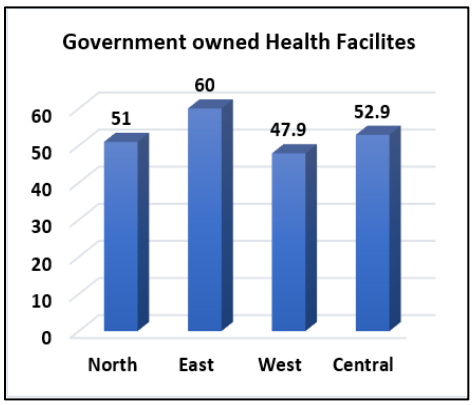


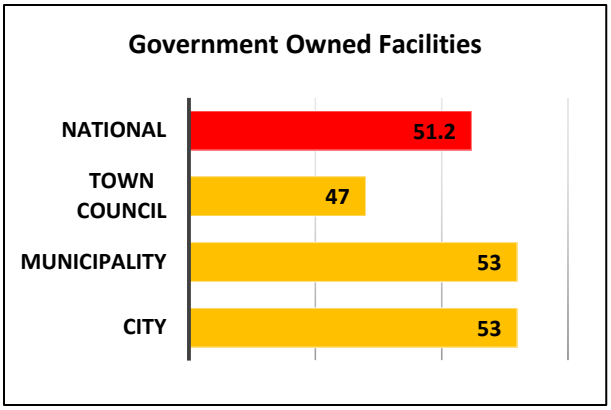
Figure 31:Regional distribution of government owned health facilities.

Provision of health services in urban areas was by both the government and the private sector where on average 51.2% of the health facilities were government owned. The same trend was also noted at the urban council levels where government owned health facilities at City and Municipal Councils were at 53.3% while Town Councils at 47%. This trend was partly due to the health policy where provision of health service was based on administrative hierarchy and as such Cities and Municipalities which are of a higher administrative level had more government owned facilities than Town Councils. At regional level, the Eastern region had the highest

[17] The indicator for threshold for education services was not analysed due to lack of data.

number of government owned health facilities (60%) while the Western region had the least (47%) as indicated in figure 31.

Figure 32: Distribution of government owned health facilities by Urban council.



9.2.2.2 Affordability of health facilities

On average, 69.9% of the urban population could afford the cost of health services in the available health facilities in urban areas. Municipalities recorded the highest level of affordability at 74. 2%, followed by Cities at 70% and Town Councils 61.7% for. At a regional level, the Northern region recorded the highest affordability levels at 81.3%, followed by Western and Central regions at 67.5% and 63.3% respectively while the Eastern region had the least with 53.3%. The affordability of health services herein points more towards the cost of the service (due to subsidies given by NGOs) than the economic capacity of the populace in these regions.

9.2.2.3 Access to health facilities

The national average level of accessibility to health facilities was at 66.2% of the urban population. Accessibility was higher at City level (73%) while Municipalities and Town Councils recorded more or less the same performance at 62.5% and 63.0% respectively. The Northern region recorded the highest-level of accessibility at 87% followed by the Western region at 75%, Eastern at 55% and the Central region at 57.5%. It was evident that though health facilities were accessible to most of the urban population, many were unable to afford them hence the disparity between accessibility and affordability of these services (figure 33).

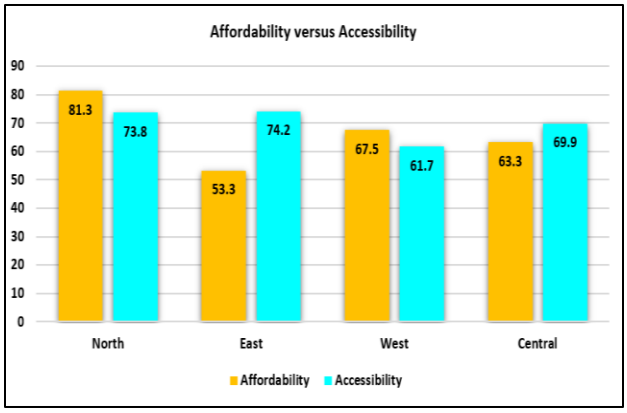


Figure 33; Regional comparison between affordability and accessibility to health facilities.

9.2.2.4 Range of health facilities

Range of service delivery refers to the acceptable minimum distance covered to access the service. People living in urban areas of Uganda, on average covered a distance of 3.9Km in order to access a health facility which was within the recommended standards of 5 kms (NPPS&G, 2011). The population within Cities cover slightly shorter distances at 3.5km compared to 4.1km and 4.38km for Municipalities and Town Councils respectively. At a regional level, Western region had the shortest distance covered at 3.5kms while the Northern (4.5km), Eastern (4.38km) which were above the national average of 3.9km but still within the provisions of the national physical planning standards.

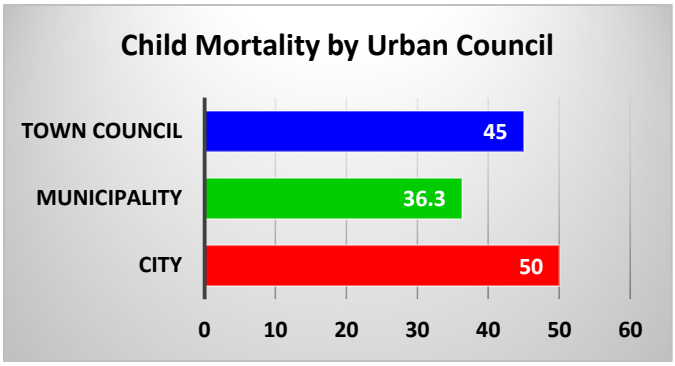
9.2.3 Child and maternal mortality

9.2.3.1 Child mortality

In 2020, child mortality rate for Uganda was at 43.4 deaths per 1,000 live births (United Nations), a 3.12% decline from 2019. In the poverty-stricken areas where most urban poor reside, malnutrition, poor air quality and limited access to healthcare cause the development and dispersion of pneumonia among the population. Children in Uganda are vulnerable and quickly become victims of these illnesses. In line with this, the urban study (2022) revealed that averagely there were 43.8 deaths per 1,000 live deaths in urban areas. Cities recorded the highest mortality rate followed by Town Councils with 50 and 45 deaths per 1,000

live births respectively while the least rate was recorded in Municipal Councils at 36.3 deaths per 1,000 live births (Figure 102).

Figure 34: Comparison of Child mortality by Urban Council.



The relatively higher rate in Cities can be partly attributed to the annexing of vast areas predominantly rural in nature with limited access to health facilities to city boundaries.
At the regional level, the highest mortality rate (above the national average) was recorded in the Eastern region, followed by the Central and Northern regions at 48.3 while the least was recorded in the Western region at 47.5 deaths per 1,000 live births (Figure 34).

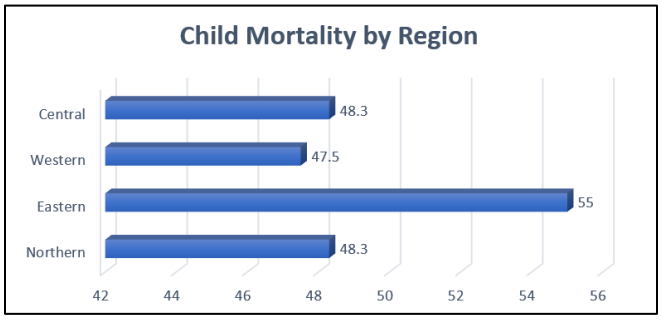
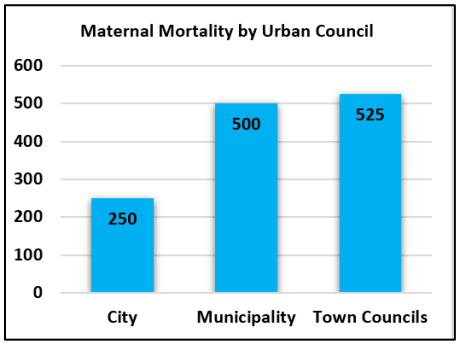


Figure 35: Regional comparison of child mortality.

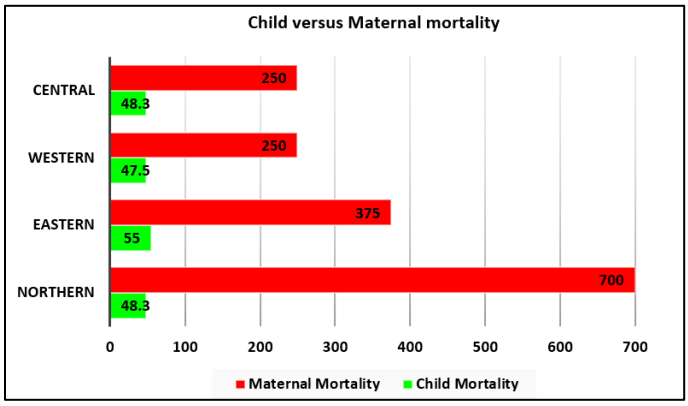
9.2.3.2 Maternal mortality

The maternal mortality ratio (MMR) is defined as the number of maternal deaths during a given time period per 100,000 live births during the same time period. Maternal deaths in ULGs of Uganda were mainly due to hemorrhage, eclampsia (high blood pressure), unsafe abortion, and infections. The maternal mortality rate dropped from 438 deaths per 100,000 births in 2011 to 368 deaths per 100,000 births in 2021 (UBOS,2021). This drop reflects a steady decline, which began from 2000 onwards though this was still far above the global average of 152 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2020.

Figure 36: Maternal mortality by urban council.



The urban sector study (2022) revealed that the national average mortality rate was at 425 deaths per 100,000 births with Town Councils accounting for the highest rate at 525 deaths followed by Municipalities with 500 deaths while Cities had the least with 250 deaths per 100,000 births (Figure 104). The variation in the mortality rates from Town Council to city level can partly be attributed to the limited number of health facilities and the level of services offered at that urban hierarchy as provided for by the health policy.



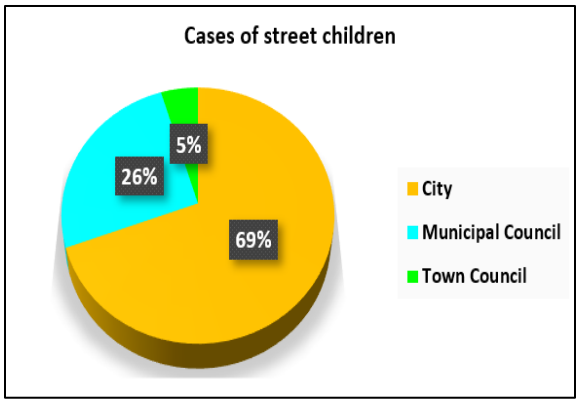
At a regional level, the highest mortality (above the national average) was recorded in the Northern region, followed by the Eastern region at 700 and 375 deaths per 100,000 births respectively while the Western and Central regions recorded the least rates at 250 deaths per 100,000 births. A comparison between child and maternal mortality in urban areas indicated that the Northern and Eastern regions had the highest rates.

Figure 37: comparison of child and maternal mortality by region.

9.2.3.3 Street Children

Uganda had one of the largest populations of young people in the world with over 56% of its 37 million people under the age of 18, and more than 52% under age 15 (Human Rights Watch,2014). Children were also the single largest demographic group living in poverty in Uganda.

The civil society groups who assist street children, local government officials, and police officers of the Child and Family Protection Unit who are tasked to focus on children reported that the number of Ugandan children living on the streets was increasing though the total number of street children was unknown." However, there was an estimated 15,000 orphaned and homeless children aged between 7 and 17 in Kampala city alone (Human Rights Watch,2019).

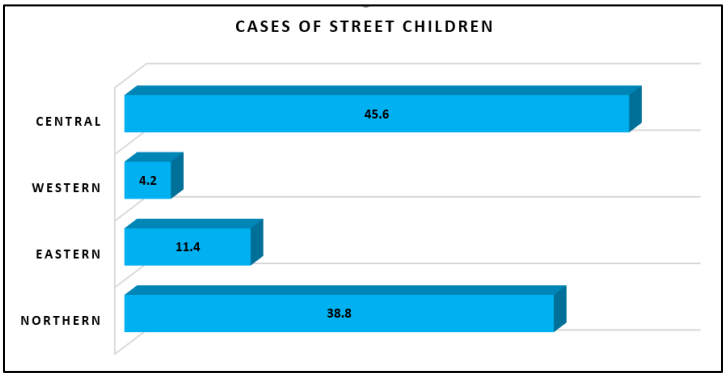


The commonest reasons for the existence of street children included among others: conflicts especially in the north and the northeast for the past thirty years, HIV/AIDS, poverty, domestic violence and neglect.

The urban sector study established that there were more street children within Cities (69.5%) followed by Municipalities at 25.7% while Town Councils had the least at 4.8%. It was further established that the central region shouldered the biggest burden of street children at 45.6% while the western region had the least at 4.2%.

Figure 38: Cases of street children by urban council.

Figure 39: Cases of street children by region.



9.2.3.4 Challenges/risks to the social sector development

Though the mandate of the Social Development Sector is to empower communities to harness their potential through skills development, labour productivity and cultural growth for sustainable and gender responsive development, a number of issues still present a big challenge to the realization of this mandate.

- **Poverty:** About 14.7 million people living above the poverty line are at risk of falling into poverty in the event of shocks such as illness, loss of employment and income, natural and man-made disasters. For instance, whereas 15% of the population moved out of poverty between 2005/6 and 2009/10, 10.5 % fell back into poverty (MFPED, 2014).
- High informalization of the labour market indicates that only a very small proportion of the employed population has access to the benefits usually associated with the formal economy like higher and regular wages, better job security, medical care and social security.
- Unemployment: There were 392,000 labour market entrants annually compared to 130,000 jobs created by the formal sector both in public and private, leaving 260,000 unemployed, which was a great challenge. Unemployment rates are higher among women and youth. The unemployment rate of youth was twice the national average and stands at 18%. Though the unemployment rate was slightly higher in rural areas (10%) than urban areas (8%), this was still too much given the high cost of living in urban areas.
- The high urban growth has negatively impacted on the environment resulting in environmental degradation, which rises from conflicting land users, unsatisfactory waste management practices, destruction of green belts and ecologically fragile ecosystems such as wetlands and hill tops. Many

urban areas remain vulnerable to natural hazards such as drought, floods, earthquakes and landslides.

- The lack of capacity of the local authorities to plan and manage urban growth has led to the growth of slums and informal settlements. These are characterized by poverty and poor living conditions with substandard housing, overcrowding and limited access to services. It has been observed that the economic profile of urban poor shows that 25% of the urban poor are not employed, majority of whom are women and youths who lack adequate skills and education to enable them to find gainful employment.
- The locally generated revenue and Central Government transfer of funds to Urban Local Governments are insufficient compared to the needs for urban services and as such there was a mismatch between the level and quality of services delivered by urban authorities and the needs of the population.
- Given the rapid urbanization compounded with inadequate employment opportunities, a big number of unemployable youths with limited skills and training are contributing to a high crime wave in urban areas. A serious and emerging issue related to urban insecurity was the increasing vulnerability of urban areas to disasters, which are both man-made and natural.

9.2.4 Provision of emergency services.

Emergency services include among others firefighting and ambulance services. These are some of the services devolved to the urban authorities in the second schedule of the LG Act Cap 243. The urban study findings revealed that in many urban authorities (35%), emergency services were provided by the Central Government (CG). This was mostly reported in the Town Councils (47%) and the Municipal Councils (31%). 27% of the ULG reported that emergency services were provided by the private sector while 18% were provided by the ULG (figure 40).

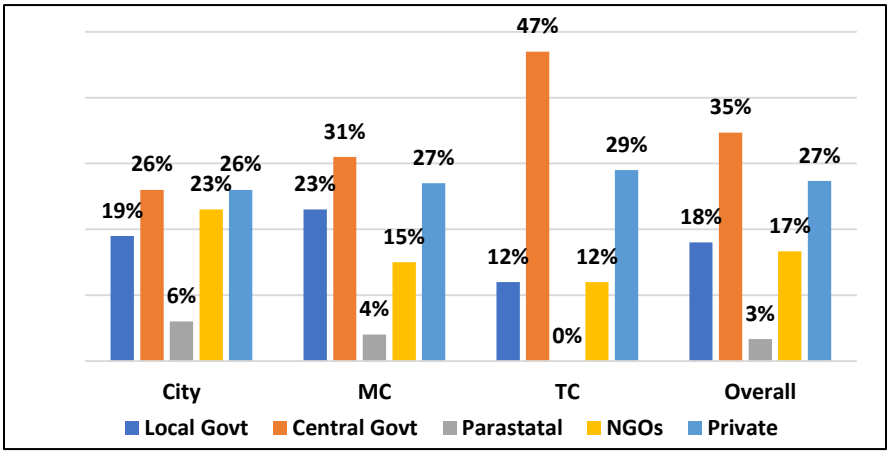


Figure 40: Provision of emergency services in urban authorities.

Local Governments were mainly providing emergency services in Western region (32%) while CG was mainly providing emergency services in Northern and Eastern regions at 41% and 39%) respectively while parastatals were more in the Northern region and NGOs mainly provided emergency services in the Central region (figure 41).

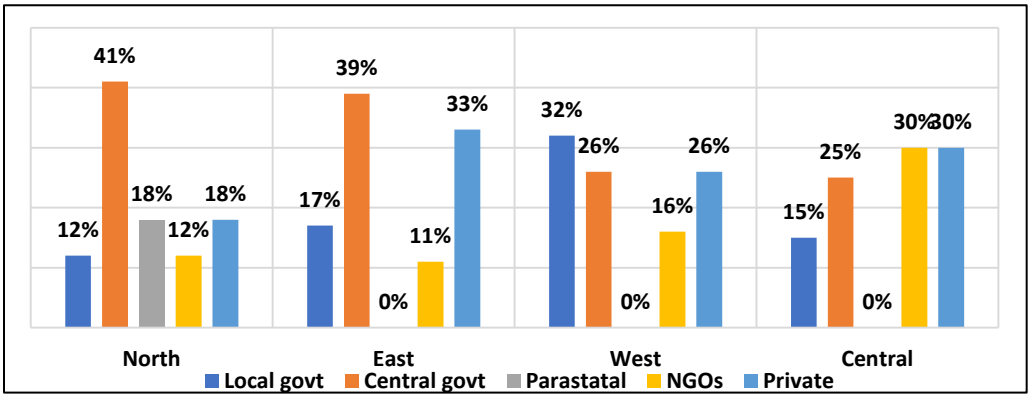


Figure 41: Provision of emergency services to urban authorities in the different regions of Uganda.

Chapter Ten

10.0 Urban infrastructure, transportation and Utilities

10.1 Transport

Urban transport is distinct from rural transport as it highly utilizes non-motorized modes and public transport within the urban and the surrounding areas. All public transport runs on infrastructure, either on roads, rail, air or waterways. The state of urban transport in Uganda is explained in the subsequent four sub-sections namely road infrastructure, public transport, rail transport, inland water transport and air transport systems.

Urban roads infrastructure comprises of arterial routes, collector routes and local access streets. The Roads Act 2019 provides for appointment of road authorities for the development, maintenance, control and management of different classes of public roads. The act further specifies urban authorities as appointed road authorities for the urban roads. The urban study analyzed the state of urban roads focusing at the spatial distribution of roads, quality of existing roads and funding.

10.1.1 Spatial distribution of urban roads.

Road density determines the level of circulation within an area and it is measured by length per unit kilometers of a road per square kilometer. Total road network length density per population on the other hand is used to determine the levels of congestion and it is measured in Kms of Urban roads per population in thousands for a given area. More roads per inhabitant lead to lower congestion levels.

In Uganda's urban areas, road infrastructure was found to be inefficiently spatially allocated as most of the urban areas were under supplied. The urban study established that there was an imbalance between demand and supply of urban roads (2021). Across the four regions, majority of urban areas had low circulation of roads in comparison to their respective physical areas as indicated by the national average road density of 3.7km of road per km^2 of area. The Central region had a higher (5.3) density than the national average as compared to the Western region at only 2.3 (figure 42).

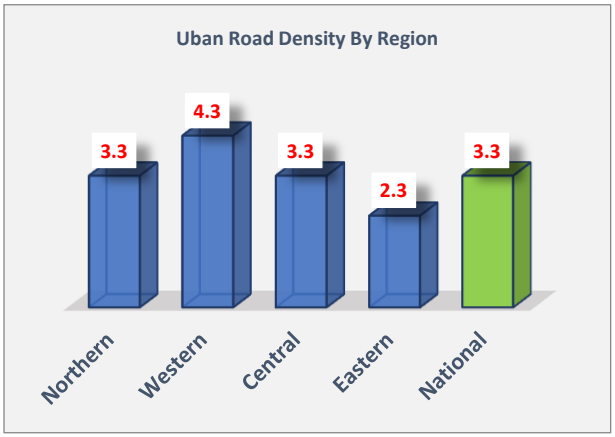
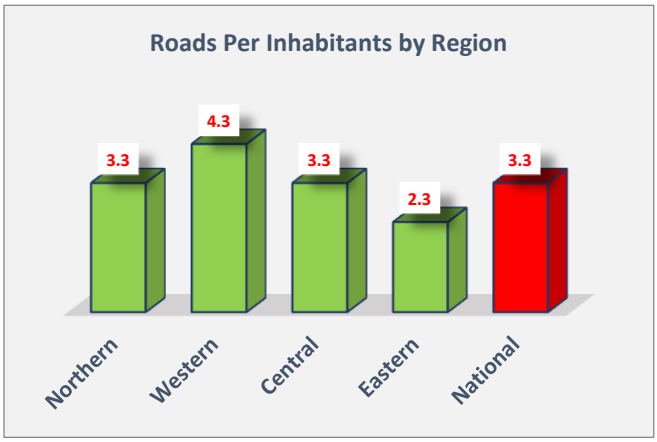


Figure 42: Circulation of Roads by Region.
Source: Urban Study, 2022.



In terms of the total road network length per population, the findings indicated that across all the four regions, urban areas had less roads per inhabitant with a national average of 3.3km per inhabitant and this was expected to cause higher congestion levels in the future in light of the expected population increase. The Western region had a bigger road length per inhabitant at 4.3km than the national at 3.3km, while Eastern region had the least at 2.3km (figure 43).

Figure 43: Road kilometrage per 1,000 persons by region.
Source: Urban Study, 2022.

At city level, it was established that amongst the 11 Cities, Kampala had relatively small physical area compared to the other newly created Cities but had a higher road density implying that Kampala had a high road circulation. All newly created Cities comprised of bigger physical areas (hitherto these were new Cities created after space expansion that included unplanned and undeveloped lands) with very low circulation of roads (figure 44).

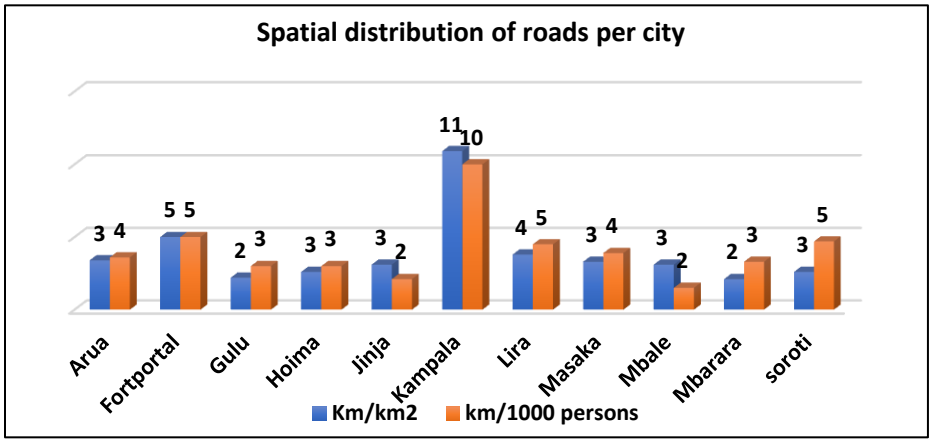


Figure 44: Spatial comparison on circulation/distribution of roads per City.
Source: Urban Study, 2022.

Kampala had a higher rate of roads per inhabitants but its congestion levels were far worse than the rest of the Cities due to the fact that its population was almost equal to that of the rest of 10 new Cities. Therefore, there was need to increase road coverage in all Cities.

Municipalities with bigger physical areas had low road densities which meant that they had low circulation of roads whereas those with small physical areas had high road densities thus a high road circulation (figure 45). Municipalities expected to have high circulation of roads (due to small physical area), the roads per inhabitant was below average as was the case with Iganga with one of the smallest physical areas. This could be partly attributed to the high population within Iganga MC.

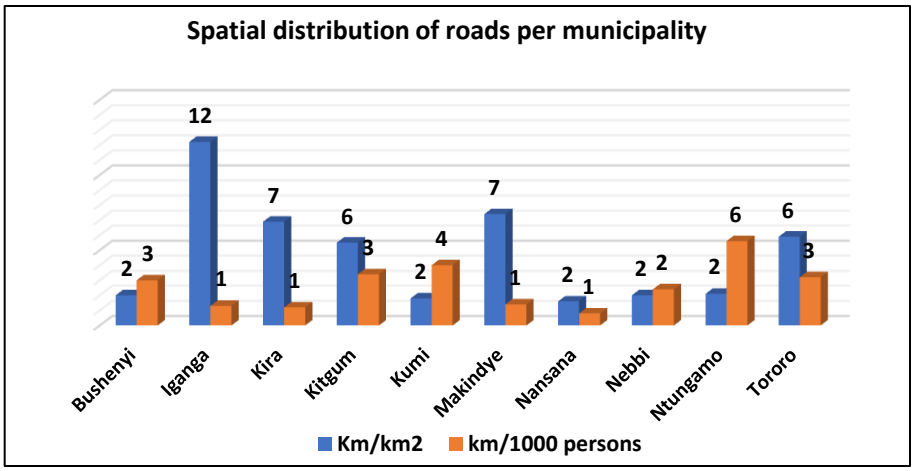


Figure 45: Spatial circulation/distribution of roads in Municipalities.
Source: Urban Study, 2022.

Town Councils with bigger physical areas (Kamwenge & Dokolo) had very low road densities thus low circulation of roads whereas those with small physical areas (Buwenge) had high road densities and therefore high road circulation (figure 46).

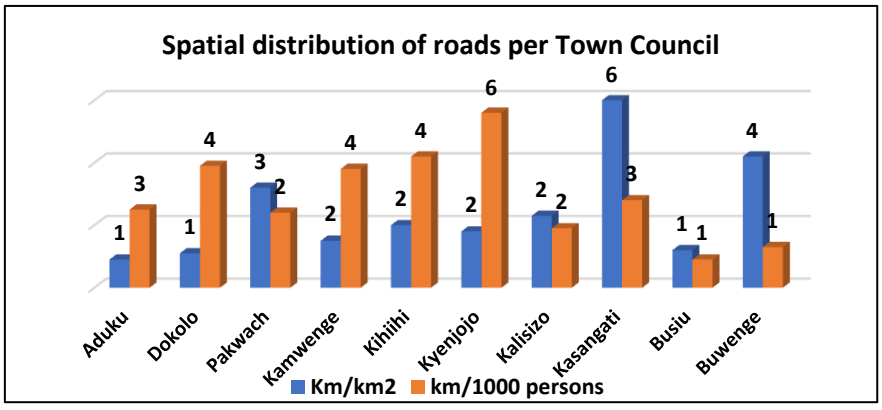


Figure 46: Spatial circulation /distribution of roads in Town Councils.
Source: Urban Study, 2022.

Town Councils expected to have high circulation of roads like Buwenge (due to small physical area and road density) had roads per inhabitant below average. This calls for increased efforts in the provision and supply of more roads in these urban areas.

Overall, the above findings indicate the available road network was inadequate to meet the demands of the urban areas. This presents a great need for the expansion of the road network to meet the expected future growth in travel demand in the urban areas.

10.1.2 Key issues / challenges in the management of urban roads.

- Lack of complete road units for infrastructure development.
- Majority of urban areas lacked PDPs and DPDPs to guide infrastructural development.
- Inadequate funding for the implementation of planned infrastructure (surveying, demarcating and opening of new roads). The Road Fund given to ULGs by CG only covers maintenance costs (which was still inadequate) and yet the roads need to be upgraded to better surfaces.
- High compensation costs which make it difficult and costly to acquire land for investment and public infrastructure. This is in addition to the complex processes of acquiring such land on communal land under customary tenure.

10.1.3 Recommendations.

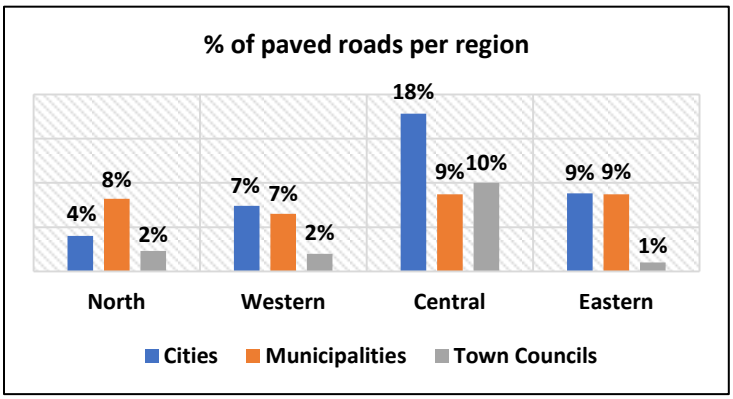
- Acquisition of road equipment by urban authorities with support from central government.
- Urban areas have unique challenges which should be considered when allocating resources from centre.
- Prioritize physical planning of all urban areas to facilitate improved circulation network in these areas.
- MLHUD should provide financial support to Urban LGs to prepare and implement PDPs and DPDPs.

10.1.4 Quality of urban roads.

The quality of road service can be defined as capability of service to satisfy the potential or real needs of road users. Needs of road users go beyond both traffic conditions and travel time, thus including safety, comfort and additional services like environment. Quality of a road is dependent on the road geometric characteristics (alignment, profile and cross section). The urban study focused on road cross section and the main road section. The geometric characteristics of concern were road surface conditions, Road width, facilities for non-motorized facilities, drainage and street lighting among others.

10.1.4.1 Road Surface condition and reserve width in urban areas.

Figure 47: Percentage of Paved Roads by region.
Source: Urban Study 2022.



The urban study established that urban road accounted for 7% (10,108Km) of the entire country's road network and paved urban roads accounted for only 5.6% (570.8Km) of the entire country's urban roads (Works and Transport Sector Plan 2015-2020). It was further established that there was a slight improvement across all regions in the percentage of paved roads in comparison to the 5.6% national average of paved urban roads (figure 47). Majority of urban authorities reported that they did not have the required funds to pave one kilometer of a standard road.[18] However, Cities had registered significant improvement in coverage of paved roads with 6 out of the 11 Cities having coverage above the overall national coverage (5.6%). This could partly be attributed to support given to Cities through the USMID program. Paved roads in Cities were below 10%

[18]According to the Third National Development Plan (NDP III) 2020/21- 2024/25), upgrading of road to paved standard with bitumen surface treatment was UGX 3.1 billion per kilometer.

save for Kampala, Mbarara, Mbale and Jinja (figure 48); mainly concentrated within CBDs which explains why some were below 5.6% and where efforts were made to pave roads linking their CBDs to other suburban areas, the percentage of paved roads was above 5.6%.

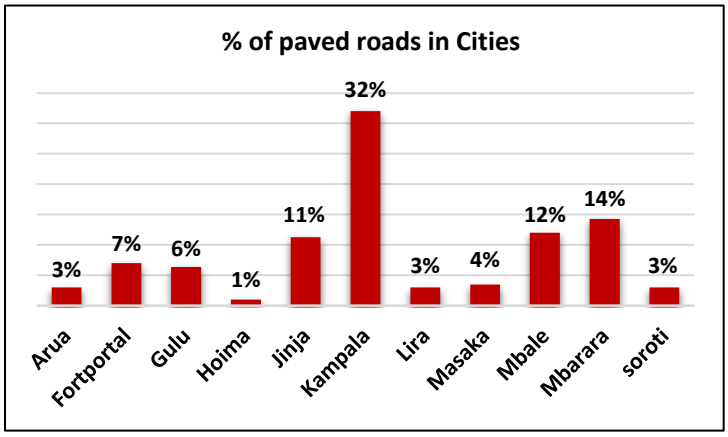


Figure 48: Percentage of Paved Roads in Cities.
Source: Urban study 2022.

Study findings (figure 49 below) revealed that the average paved road coverage for Municipalities was 8.3% which was above the national average of 5.6%. Kumi, Nansana and Ntungamo were way below the national average with only 3% coverage as compare to Makindye Ssabagabo, Tororo, Kitgum and Bushenyi which were way above the national average (figure 49).

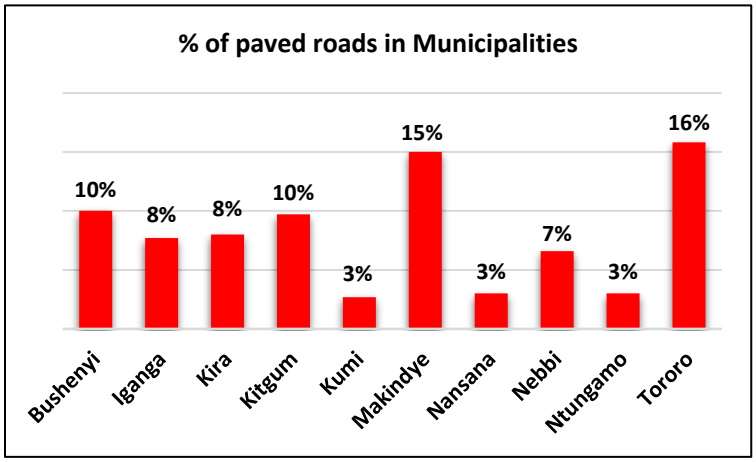


Figure 49: Percentage of paved roads in Municipalities.
Source: urban study 2022.

The average paved road coverage for Town Councils was 1.8% far below the overall national coverage (5.6%). Town Councils could not afford to pave their roads due to inadequate funding. The only available paved roads within these areas were highways under UNRA that traverse through these towns.

Overall, there was lack of safer, faster, comfortable, convenient, economical and environmentally friendly movement of people and goods and this was due to the poor state of road surfaces in all urban areas. Attainment of the Vision 2040 target of improving average paved road density of 100 Km per 1000 Sq. km by 2040 shall only be achieved by committing adequate finance resource allocation towards road network improvement.

Road reserve width in urban areas.

Road reserves are required in order to accommodate the ultimate planned roadway, including all cross-sectional elements and to enhance the safety, operation and appearance of the roads. The urban study found out that all urban areas lacked adequate road reserve widths for space expansion in order to accommodate the ultimate planned roadway for road development projects. It should be noted that the study could not ably quantify and analyze the road reserve widths within the different levels of urban councils due to lack of disaggregated data.

The major challenges with road reserves were; Land tenure policy (where land belongs to people) makes it expensive to acquire adequate road reserves given the high compensation costs, negative attitudes of the people and the lengthy process of acquisition especially on customary land; Development was ahead of planning which creates poor road alignments resulting from encroachment on reserves, need for demolition of existing developments and raises resistance from the populace.

10.1.4.2 Recommendations

- The Government of Uganda should work to achieve the Vision 2040 target of 100 Km per 1000 Sq. km average paved road density for all urban areas.
- Formulate a financing strategy for future road infrastructural development for all urban areas.
- Promote low-cost road sealing technology in all urban areas.
- Prioritize planning ahead of development to secure the required road reserve widths in all urban centres. Efforts should also be made to implement the said plans within a defined time period.

10.1.5 Non-Motorized transport facilities

Non-motorized transport involves walking, carrying and cycling (NMT policy 2012). One of the objectives of the policy is to: increase the recognition of walking and cycling in transport, planning, design and infrastructure provision. It was established that there were limited efforts made in the provision of NMT facilities in the available transport system. In addition, a special accessibility problem existed in all urban areas of Uganda for people with mobility impacting disabilities as the various transport facilities did not meet their special mobility needs. Ownership and use of bicycles were used as one of the indicators to determine the need for NMT facilities.

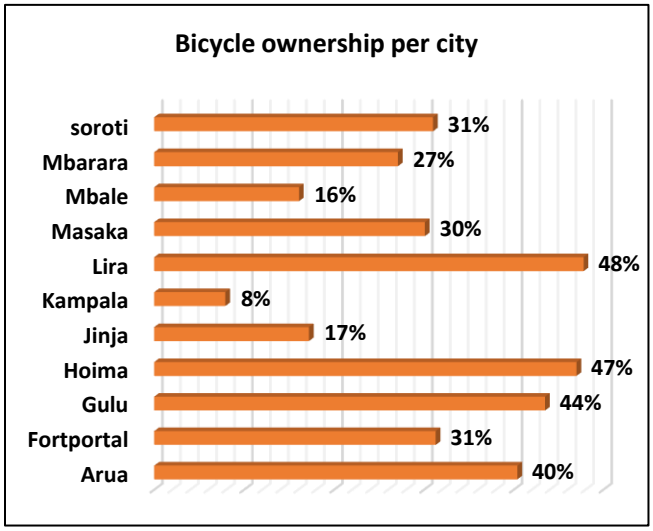
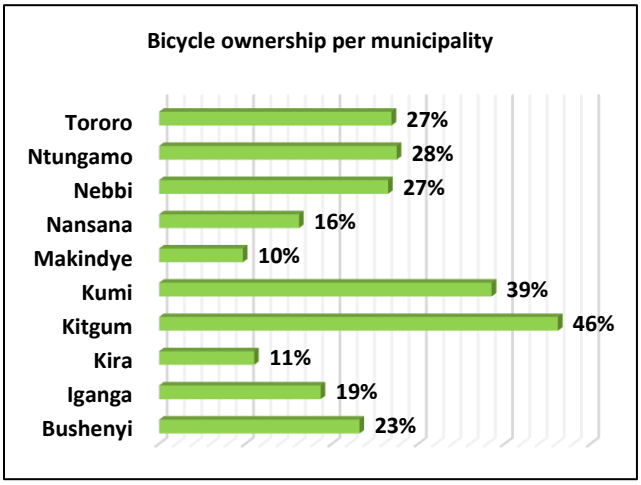


Figure 50: Bicycle Ownership per City.
Source: UBOS 2014.

The urban study investigated NMT because streets are multi modal and must provide multi modal transport to all users. Majority of road users in Uganda were travelling using NMT; mainly by walking and cycling (Works and Transport Sector Plan 2020). However, the use of bicycles was on the rise since they were not only used for personal travel, but also to carry goods & promote good health.



All Cities lacked NMT facilities within the road reserve widths (ROW) rendering pedestrians and cyclists susceptible to road accidents. In Cities where motorized speeds and volumes were high, bicycle ownership was on the decline and the reverse was also true (figure 51).

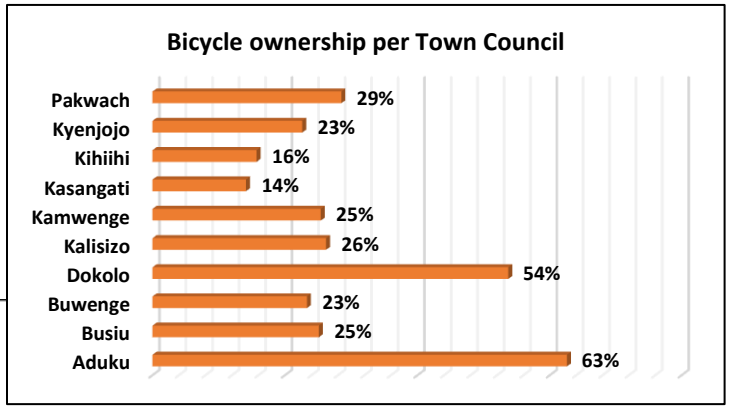
It was further established that bicycle ownership was also on the rise in Municipalities and Town Councils. Majority of the Municipal Councils & Town Councils equally lacked NMT facilities within the right of way.

Figure 51: Bicycle Ownership per Municipality.
Source: UBOS 2014.

Figure 52: Bicycle Ownership per Town Council.

Source: UBOS 2014.

Though the vast majority of road users in Uganda were travelling using non-motorized transport, the current transport infrastructure did not provide facilities for pedestrians and cyclists in



all urban areas in Uganda. As a result, the share of NMT users on road fatalities was the highest in urban areas of Uganda, and the absolute number was increasing every year. Absence of adequate road reserves had made it difficult for urban areas to adopt new geometric design standards for their roads that include the necessary width for separated and paved walkways/cycleways along their streets. Urban areas should therefore, adopt the universal design principles that recognize walking and cycling in transport, planning, design and infrastructure provision.

10.1.6 Street lighting

The study recognizes that introduction of adequate street lighting helps reduce night-time accidents and is an established accident prevention measure in urban areas. Streetlighting provision in all urban areas of Uganda was very poor save for a few urban centres that received specific funding for construction of new roads with streetlighting as a component.

All Cities save for Jinja, had very low coverage of streetlighting (figure 53). Street lighting was a component in design & implementation of new road construction projects and its delivery was entirely dependent on availability of funds committed to new road projects thus, there were no standalone projects funded specifically to provide street lights. Areas with access to funds for new road projects were better placed to benefit than those with lack of access.

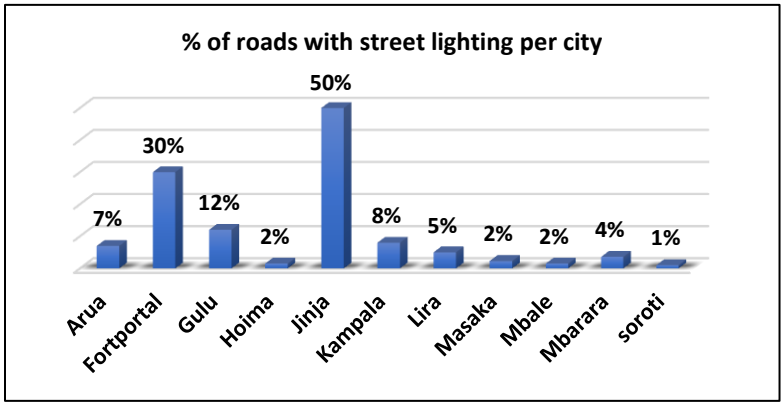
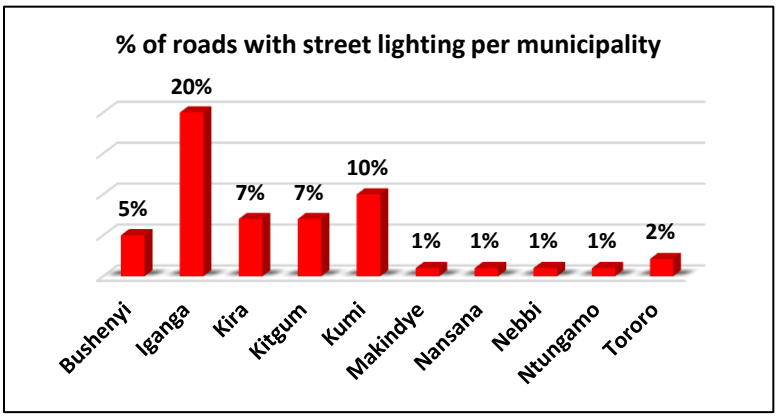


Figure 53: Percentage of roads with street lighting er City.
Source: Urban study, 2022.

Similarly, majority of MCs and all TCs did not have streetlighting due to limited funds (figure 54). Municipalities with newly constructed paved roads, either with assistance from UNRA, World Bank and other donor agencies had better coverage than those not supported.

Figure 54: Percentage of roads with street lighting per Municipality
Source: Urban study 2022



Where street lighting existed, vandalism by people trying to generate an income through selling accessories, electric wires and copper cables was also a major challenge. Street Lighting has benefits other than accident prevention and can often be justified as a general amenity with an associated reduction in night-time crime and an improvement in personal security. However, the absence of these street lights increases opportunity for high crime rate in urban areas of Uganda today.

It is therefore, necessary for central government to support standalone projects funded specifically to provide street lights. Also, with support from central governments, urban authorities should give priority to street lighting by allocating funds to have uniformly lit areas. Urban councils should also promote PPPs so as to attract external support in this venture.

10.1.7 Urban roads funding and expenditure.

Urban authorities relied on central government transfers and external sources for road funding in FY 2020 / 2021. External funding grew from 20% in 2015/16 to 44% in 2018/19 (ACODE,2020). High dependence on external funding in supporting Uganda's roads infrastructure was a big challenge in ensuring sustainability because external funding was usually unpredictable and could adversely affect road infrastructure developments. Reliance on external funding was not a viable long-term strategy for construction and maintenance of the road networks.

The Road Sector budget allocated funds to urban authorities through Uganda Road Fund, an agency under the Works and Transport Sector. There are other MDAs (MLU&UD, MoLG, Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities) involved in financing infrastructure provision. The budget allocations to the Road Sector increased from UGX 2,897.6 billion in 2015/16 to UGX 4,140.5 billion in 2018/19 (ACODE,2020). LGs were allocated a meagre 1% of the total sector budget even though 80% (85,261 km) of the total road network (of 107,020 Km) in Uganda were District, Urban Community Access Roads (DUCAR) under the LGs' jurisdiction. The limited DUCAR funding led to little or no road maintenance thus wastage of resources and deterioration of the roads. Improving urban roads to provide all-weather access requires a judicious review of the planning, budgeting, the technologies available, as well as, institutional set up to improve such roads.

The road maintenance financing gap was 74% and what had been given could only meet about 26% of the infrastructural needs. Persistent failure to adequately maintain the road infrastructure created a backlog of public roads that had not been maintained over a long period of time despite statutory or approved increase in the budget allocation into the development of the Roads Sub-sector. Instead, priority had been given to construction of new roads.

Urban authorities under USMID spent 30% of their overall road infrastructure funds on O&M (operation and maintenance) of roads and balances were committed to road infrastructural developments. The rest of the Municipalities and Town Councils outside USMID program spent more than 90% of their overall road infrastructure funds on O&M and none on capital projects. This means that urban roads infrastructural development in most of the urban areas in Uganda had stagnated due to underfunding.

It is therefore recommended that urban authorities be given a capital development fund to support infrastructure development. Given the big percentage of DUCAR roads, the funds allocations to ULGs should be increased to at least 30% to take care of O&M.

10.1.8 Public transport

Public transport (also known as public transportation, public transit, mass transit or simply transit) refers to a system of transport for passengers by group travel systems available for use by the general public. The provider of the above-mentioned services may be either the urban authority or privately-owned enterprises.

There was no public transport system in Uganda which has given birth to an individualized approach to public transport, resulting into the current challenge presented by taxis and boda-bodas on our roads (motorcycle taxis) in the country supported by long distance buses from Kampala to upcountry Cities.

The level of service of public transport specifically urban public transport was still wanting, with no timetables, no fixed fares or fare structure, no formal stops, no terminals and no fixed routes. This resulted into long travel times and a high and irregular fares. Lack of cooperation among operators or among routes means that passengers had to pay separately for each boarding of a taxi or a Boda-boda, making public transport unaffordable to many; especially the urban poor.

A functional bus system is an essential element of both intercity and intra-city public transport system. Bus lane, bus ways, bus stops, bus terminals and depots are the critical infrastructure components of a bus-based transit system. There was therefore, need to restructure public transport system in urban areas of Uganda.

Therefore, there was need for government to formulate public transport policy to address all emerging issues; fast track the implementation of Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) and Light Rail Transit (LRT); re-organize public transport and move towards franchised bus routes operated by formal companies with an integrated fare system.

10.1.9 Urban Rail Transport

I was noted that the meter gauge rail (MGR) network was 1,266Km of which about 315Km was operational (Works and transport sector development plan - 2015-2020). The rest of the rail network was closed largely due to dilapidation and vandalization. The current railway system mainly offers freight services and with a very limited passenger service in Kampala. The major challenges faced by the rail sub-sector included, poor and aging infrastructure, inadequate funding, encroachment on reserves, legal and policy framework which were not conducive for rail-sector growth. In order to revamp the railway sector, there was need to fast track the implementation of SGR Project that was planned to provide: 75% cargo/Freight Services, and 25% Passenger Services and Intercity Passenger Services especially linking the regional Cities.

10.1.10 Urban Inland water transport

Inland Water Transport in Uganda has been under developed over the years leading to deterioration of ferry systems, docking and landing sites and passenger transportation. Navigable lakes included Lake Victoria, Kyoga and Albert in addition to also minor transport operations on Lakes Edward, George, Bunyonyi and Bisina. Urban areas which shared territory with navigable lakes, their potential sites suitable for inland water transport services were not developed.

With the recent enactment of Inland Water Transport Act (2021), and with support from central government, donor agencies and public private partnership, urban areas should fast track the development of inland waterways to tap into the potential for water transport services in and across urban areas.

10.1.11 Urban Air Transport

The Civil Aviation Authority manages air transport using one International Airport and thirteen (13) other national aerodromes in Arua, Gulu, Jinja, Kasese, Kidepo, Kisoro, Lira, Masindi, Mbarara, Moroto, Pakuba, Soroti and Tororo among others. The sector was also supported by other aerodromes are either privately owned or under the local authorities.

With the exception of Entebbe international airport, public aerodromes that existed in urban areas were underutilized (less than 1%) especially by the local urban population. This was partly attributed to the high costs levied to use the service. The key challenges faced by air transport sub-sector included; limited land for expansion, lack of a strong home-based airline, high price of aviation fuel in the country and heavy burden of maintaining non-commercial services at upcountry airports.

With the re-birth of Uganda airlines as a national carrier, home based air routes linking to various aerodromes in urban areas should be revitalized for tourism development in urban sector and support infrastructure improvement at all aerodromes to acceptable standards.

10.2 Urban utilities provision

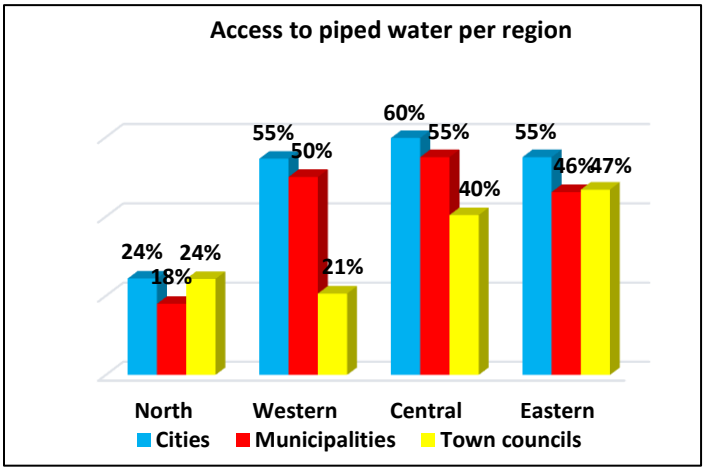
The state of urban utilities provision in Uganda is explained in the subsequent four sub-sections namely water supply, sanitation, electricity supply and, information and communication technology.

10.2.1 Urban Water Supply.

Uganda's urban water supply can be grouped in two major categories viz: large towns managed by the National Water and Sewerage Corporation (NWSC) and small towns managed by the Directorate of Water Development (DWD) -Ministry of water and Environment in conjunction with District and Urban Authorities. The National Water and Sewerage Corporation (NWSC) operates and provides water and sewerage services in

Uganda to 240 towns and rural growth centers assigned to it (urban centers with populations of 5,000 and more). This report looked at access to safe piped water in urban areas of Uganda. In this report, piped water is defined as tap water from the distribution lines of a piped water supply station.[19]

The national average access to piped water was at 41.3% in all urban areas. NWSC coverage in urban centres as of June 2021 stood at 258 urban centres which was only 41.3% of the total urban areas within the country and as a result, urban population living in poverty pay as much as 22% of their income to access water from water vendors. In the 258 urban centres, water pipe network was expanded by 68%, from an average of 1,273 Km per annum in the period (2015 - 2018) to 2,135 km in the FY 2019/20. The major challenges to expansion of water coverage in urban areas included: inadequate water and sanitation coverage in some areas due to limited network coverage; inadequate infrastructure to meet the growing urban population needs; inadequate financing for infrastructure upgrade and expansion; unplanned settlements causing difficulties in laying of water supply pipes; Climate Change and its adverse effects on water sources and installations especially during droughts and prolonged rains; environmental degradation and deterioration of raw water quality which increases treatment and consumption costs.

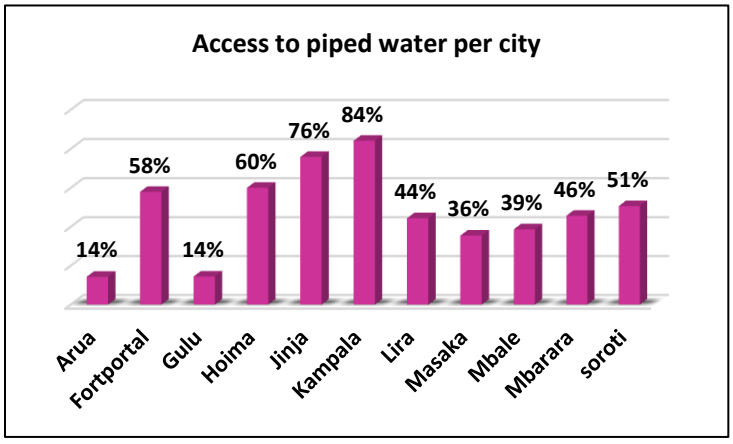


At the regional scale, urban areas in the northern region had the lowest (22%) access to piped water while Central region had the highest at 51.6% (Figure 55). Unreliable and intermittent power supply in northern region affected water production coupled with climate change effects that led to low yields of both underground and surface water resources. Other regions other than the central which registered above average, were still struggling due to lack of adequate resources by service providers to meet the growing demand.

Figure 55: Regional situation on access to piped water supply.
Source: UBOS 2014.

Safe water coverage in large towns (Cities) stood at 76% (MWE, 2020). The was low coverage in the newly created Cities and this could be partly be attributed to the annexation of rural areas with no piped water.

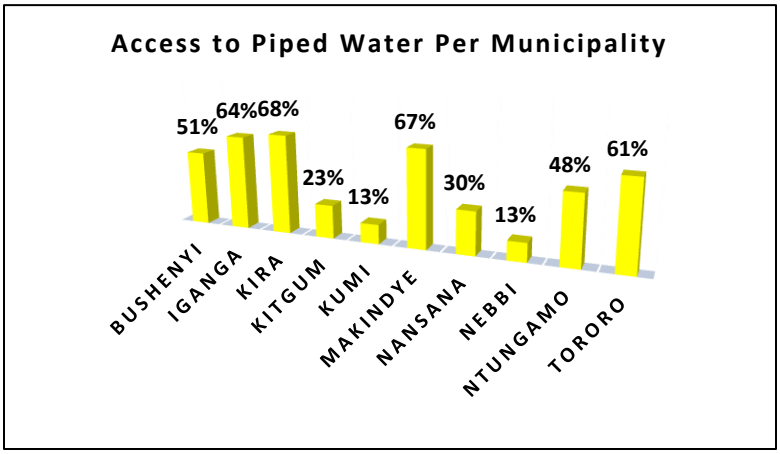
Figure 56: Level of access to piped water in Cities.
Source: UBOS 2014.



On average, water access at city level was at 78% with Arua and Gulu way below average (14%) while Jinja, Kampala, Hoima, Fort Portal and Soroti were above average (figure 56). By law a city is equivalent to a district, but Cities do not benefit from the Water grant like districts do to cover up gaps left by NWSC yet they are highly populated compared to districts which are rural in nature. Private operators and non-government organizations were providing water services to

[19] Data collected for Cities was representative of only former Municipalities which majorly form these Cities and excluded the other annexed areas. There were inconsistencies in data reported by urban authorities and urban utility service providers. Service providers were giving data for service areas which included areas outside the boundaries of the specific urban area.

supplement NWSC but on limited scale. There was therefore an imbalance between demand and supply of water services in the Cities of Uganda.



At Municipal level, the average access to piped water was 43.8% with Kitgum, Kumi, Nansana and Nebbi below average while Tororo, Makindye Ssabagabo, Kira, Iganga and Bushenyi were above average (Figure 57).

Figure 57: Access to piped water in Municipalities.
Source: UBOS 2014.

At Town Council level, the average access was 31% with Dokolo, Kamwenge, Hihiihi and Kyenjojo below average, while Busiu, Buwenge, Kalisizo, Kasangati and Packwach were above average (Figure 58).

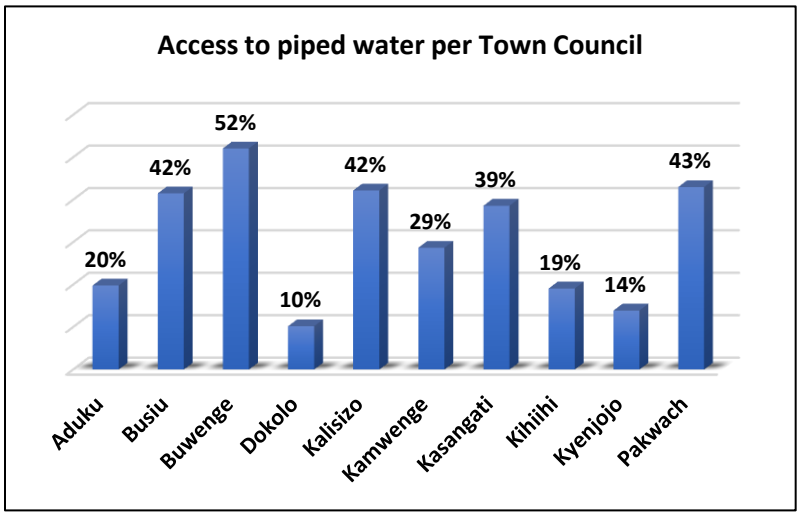


Figure 58: Access to piped water in Town Councils.
Source: UBOS 2014.

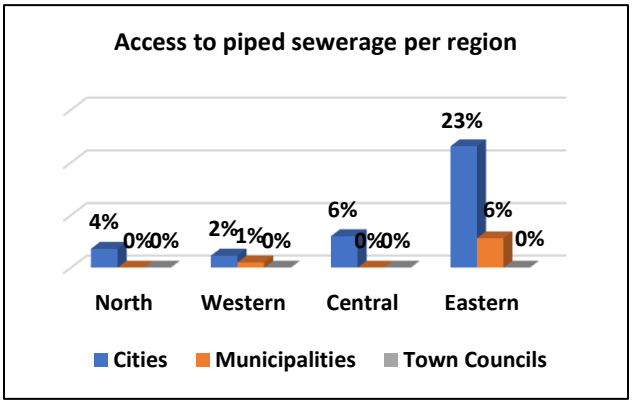
There was not only a noticeable imbalance between supply and demand of clean and safe water, but also there was limited coverage and high consumption costs.

It was therefore necessary to improve the situation by: increasing funding of the sector, improving sanitation to lower the cost of water production; construct, operate and maintain piped water supply systems in small towns and other urban areas outside NWSC jurisdiction countrywide; provision of adequate electricity supply and connection of all areas of Northern Uganda to national power grid network; enforcing protection of both underground and surface water sources by all stakeholders to reduce pollution, depletion and poor water quality and increase awareness on sanitation and its impact on safe water.

10.2.2 Urban Sanitation

Sanitation refers to a system of collection, transport, treatment and disposal or reuse of human excreta, domestic wastewater and associated hygiene promotion. The study found out that the average access to improved sanitation in urban areas was at 36.3%, with over 12.6% practicing open defecation. This low level of access was not only attributed to inaccessible settlements but also the costly process to establish and maintain the sanitation infrastructure both at individual and urban council level.

From a regional perspective, the study confirmed that across all regions of Uganda, all large towns had inadequate household access to piped sewerage services (3.5%). The Eastern region had a relatively higher access at 9.7% (Mbale and Jinja coverage) compared to all other regions at 1.4% (figure 59). Citizens were relying on on-site sanitation facilities. Waste water generated from domestic sewage and industrial effluents was not collected and treated which was the primary causes of poor water quality and pollution of both ground and surface water sources.



The average number of households with no sanitation facility was at 3.5% with the Northern having the highest at 6.7% followed by Easter 5.3%, Western and Central at 1% (figure 59).

Figure 59: Access to piped sewerage per region.
source: urban study 2022.

At city level, the average coverage of piped sewerage service was at 9.02%. Apart from Jinja (60%), the rest of the Cities were below average. The average number of households with no toilet facility at city level was at 3%. Gulu, Arua, Lira, Mbale and Soroti were worse off. In Uganda piped sewerage in large towns stood at 6% (MWE 2020). On-site sewage collections were most popular in these Cities. The study identified Jinja city as better off in providing piped sewerage services and the rest of the Cities were very poor in the provision of the service.

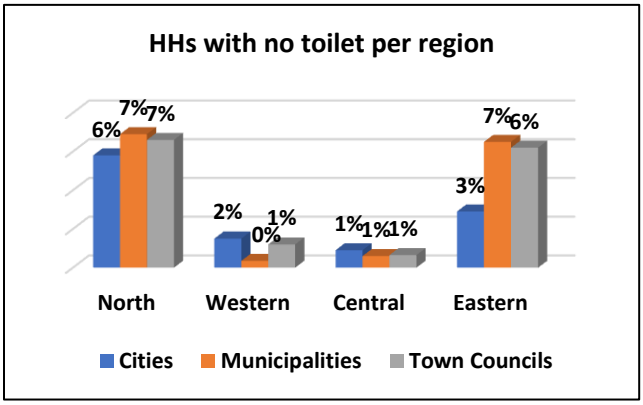


Figure 60; Households with no toilets per region.
source: UBOS 2014.

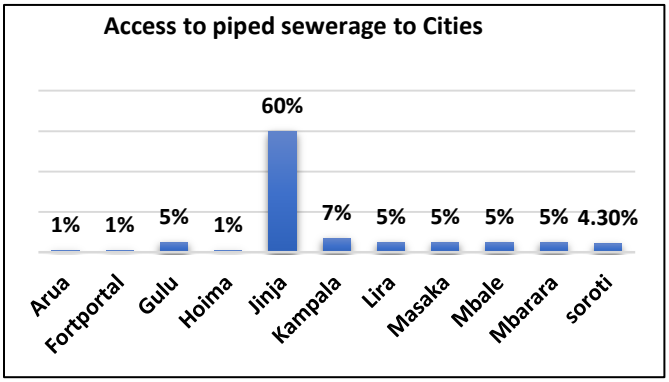
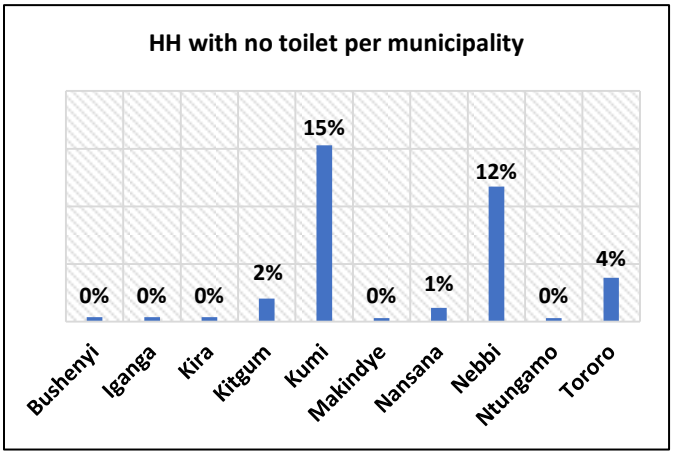


Figure 62: Households with no toilet facilities in Cities
Source: UBOS 2014



Further analysis on the proportion of households with no toilet facilities as shown in figure 61 (UBOS 2014) revealed that a substantial proportion of household in Cities were still lacking toilet facilities. This was mainly due to unplanned settlement patterns which lead to difficulties in providing toilet facilities, urban poverty and weak institutional and management framework for enforcement of existing laws.

Figure 61: Access to piped sewerage per city
source: urban study 2020

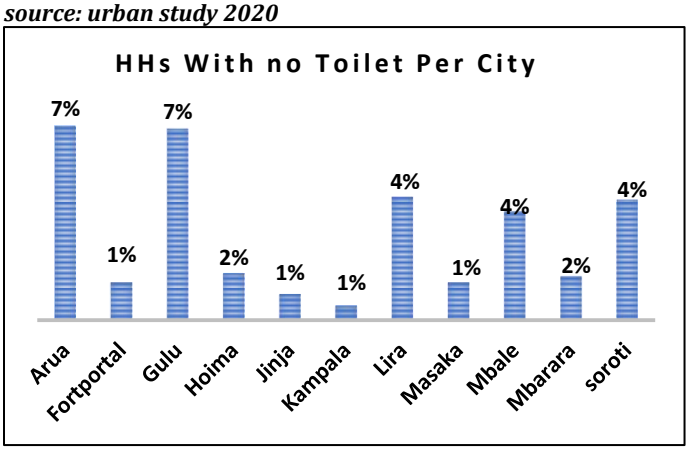


Figure 63: Households with no toilet in Municipalities.
Source: Urban study 2022.

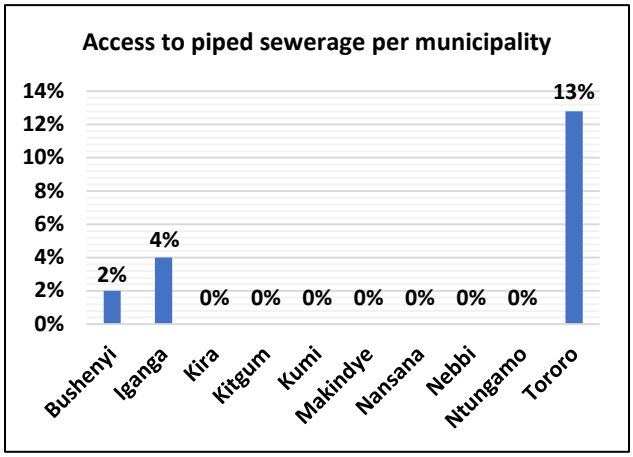
At Municipal level, the average coverage of piped sewerage service was at 1.9%. Tororo, Bushenyi and Iganga were slightly better off than the others which

had none at all (figure 62). Majority of Municipalities completely lacked piped sewerage services and those with facilities, had small treatment plants and waste stabilization ponds owned and operated by government and some private institutions namely; universities, hospitals, stadiums, and housing estates. As an alternative, the population only relied on on-site sanitation systems.
On the other hand, an average of 3.4% of the households had no sanitation facility with Kumi and Nebbi worse off (figure 63). With exception of Municipalities in Northern Uganda, toilet coverage in other Municipalities was high.

The urban study further revealed that none of the Town Councils had a piped sewerage service. some of the household in all Town Councils lacked toilet facilities (3.8%). Busiu, Dokolo and Pakwach were worse off with 11%, 9% and 8% respectively (figure 64).

Figure 64: Access to piped sewerage in Municipalities.

Source: UBOS 2014.



The major challenges limiting good sanitation in urban areas included; urban areas do not benefit from the sanitation grants like districts yet they were highly populated compared to districts which were rural in nature; urban poverty where households could not afford sewer connection fees and/or construction of individual facilities and absence of the sewer network in these areas.

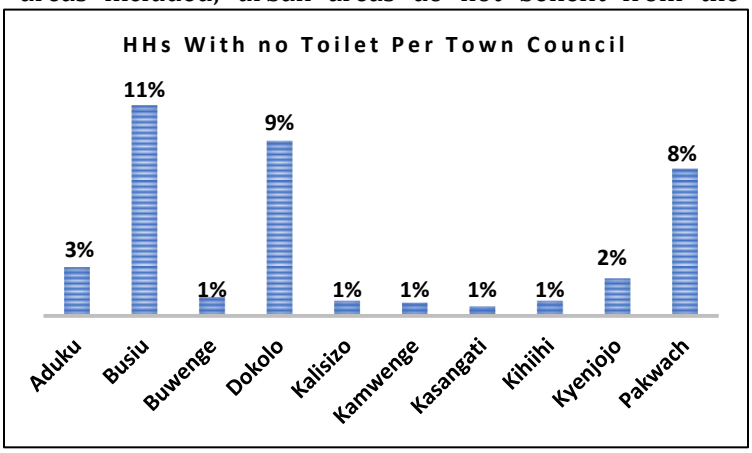


Figure 65: Households with no toilet facilities in Town Councils
Source: UBOS 2014

Given the currents situation in Ugandans' towns, a lot needs to be done to meet the set standards of the Global Agenda 2030 and Uganda Vision 2040. In lieu of this, it is recommended that, government formulates a financial strategy for sewerage services in urban areas; upscale sewerage services through infrastructure development in all urban areas; extend the sanitation grant to all urban areas to extend sewerage services where NWSC cannot reach; explore and adopt alternative and affordable technologies in sewerage management such as use of liquified gas toilets and lined pit latrines; create awareness on sanitation requirements at household level and enforce them.

10.2.3 Urban Electricity Supply.

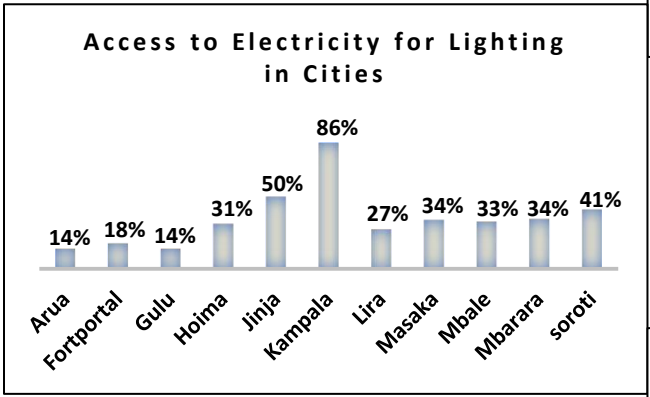
Uganda Electricity Distribution Company Limited (UEDCL) is mandated to distribute electricity in urban areas of Uganda. This made off-grid stations concessional to a private operator; Umeme Ltd for 20 years in 2005 to distribute; enhance new connections; reduce losses and improve the quality of service. The study focused on the share of the urban population using electricity for mainly lighting.

From a broader perspective, access to electricity in Uganda was reported at 42.07% in 2020, (World Bank) as opposed to 2014 at 35.9% (UBOS 2014). At regional level, urban areas in Central had an average access of 56.7%, followed by Eastern with 36.7%, Western with 31.3% while Northern

region had 18.7%. The major causes were; lack of access to the national electricity grid, high power tariffs and high connection fees.

Figure 66: Access to electricity for lighting per region.
Source: UBOS 2014.

At city level, the average access to electricity was at 38.2% with Kampala (86%) and Jinja (50%) Cities above average while Arua and Gulu had the least at 14%. Averagely the connection rate within Cities stood at 34.7% which was quite low for such level of urban development.



Municipalities were Kumi and Nebbi (below 16%).

Figure 68: Access to electricity for lighting in Municipalities.
Source: UBOS 2014.

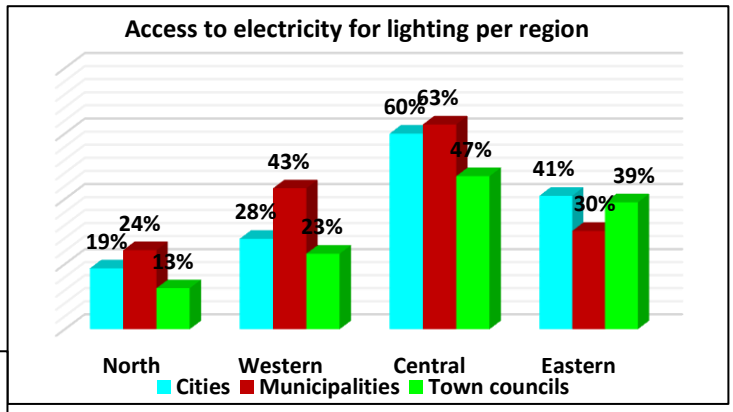
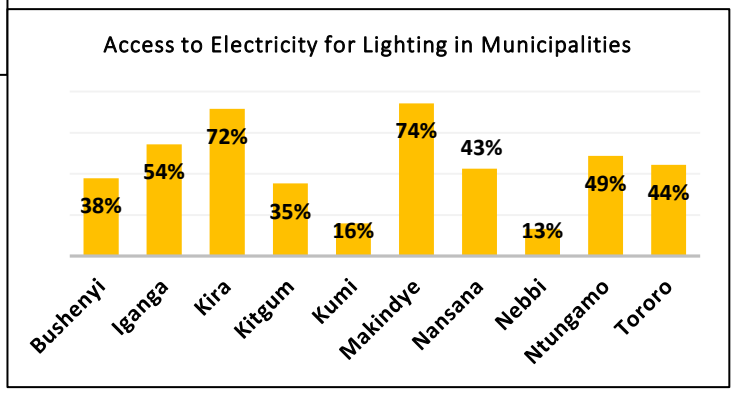
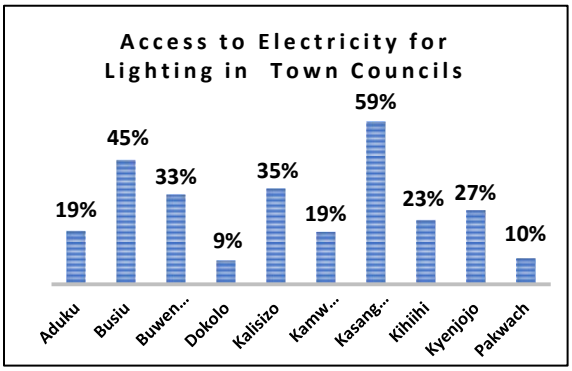


Figure 67: Access to electricity for lighting in Cities.
Source: UBOS 2014.

The situation in Municipalities was slightly better than that of Cities with an average of 43.8% (Figure 67). The study further revealed that the worst performing



Findings further indicated that the total average connection rate for Town Council was 27.9% far below the national average (42%). The least connection rate was observed in Dokolo and Packwach at less than 12% while Kasangati and Busiu recorded the highest at 59% and 45% respectively (Figure 78). The challenges associated with this poor access to power included; limited network coverage and access especially in northern region; low-capacity infrastructure not coping-up with the electricity distribution requirements; lack of sufficient demand to consume generated electricity; limited expansion and maintenance of distribution infrastructure; high investment costs; and use of alternative energy sources posing great competition to urban electricity supply.



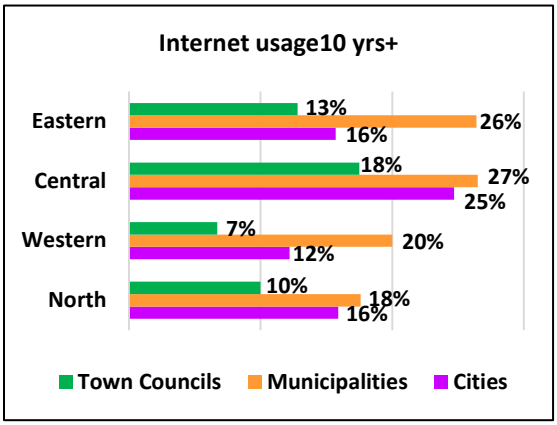
In general, the above situation shows that access to electricity for lighting in Uganda's urban areas was still poor and this means a lot needs to be done to avert the situation. Appropriate actions would include; building new transmission lines to evacuate power and accelerate urban electrification programs with affordable connection and tariff policies to increase accessibility.

Figure 69: Access to electricity for lighting in Town Councils.
Source: UBOS 2014.

10.2.4 Urban Information and Communication Technology (ICT).

Figure 70: State of internet usage (10yrs +) in urban areas by region.

Source: UBOS data 2014.



Information and Communication Technology (ICT) infrastructure includes all those assets which enable the exchange of information between two or more parties, and it incorporates all telephone, mobile and internet technologies as well as television and radio transmission. Telephone and optical fiber networks in Uganda are managed by state and private owned utilities (NITA-U and MTN, Airtel among others). NITA-U's mandate is to coordinate, promote and monitor the development of Information Technology (IT), e-Government implementation and information security in Uganda.[20]

Although ICT was a national priority, generally its usage was still very low to bring about meaningful development in the urban areas of Uganda. However, there was increased access and usage of ICT equipment and devices. Despite this increase, it was noted that internet usage was still at 17.4% within Uganda's urban areas. Findings further indicated that, at regional level urban areas in the Central region had the highest percentage of population above 10 years that used the internet services (23.3%), followed by Eastern region (18.3%), Northern (14.7%) while the Western region was the lowest with (13.2%). It was also noted that across all regions, Cities had a relatively higher percentage coverage (24%) as compared to Town Councils and Municipalities with 17.3% and 22.8% respectively.

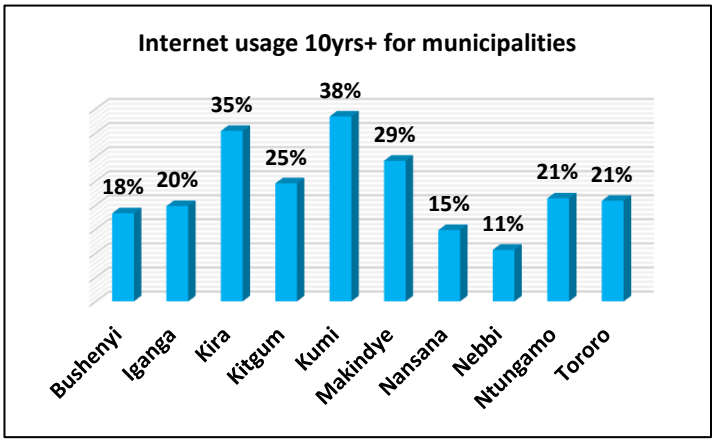


Figure 71: internet usage 10 years for Municipalities

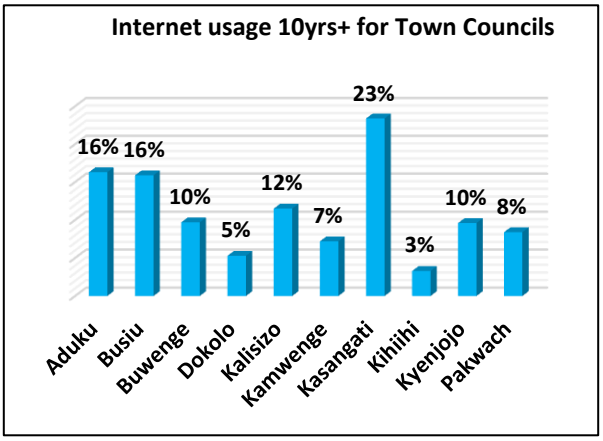
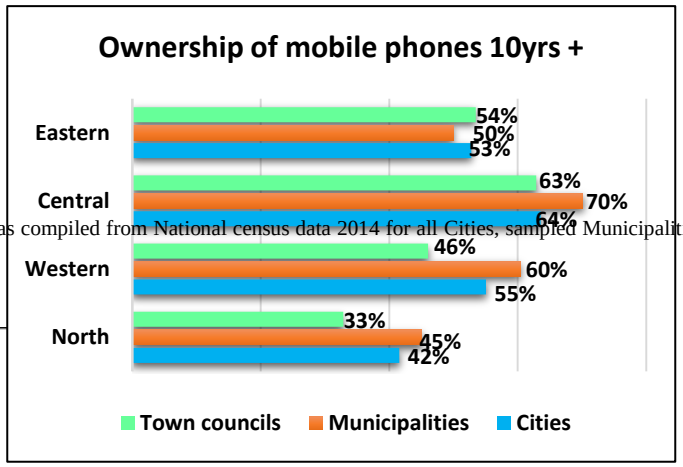


Figure 72: Internet usage (10yrs +) in Town Councils

Use of mobile phones was significantly increasing across all regions. Central region recorded the highest with 65.6%, followed by Western 53.6%, Eastern with 52.3% while Northern region had 45%. Other than the Northern region, the rest of the regions were either equal or above the national average of 52.9%. At urban levels, Municipalities recorded the highest with 56.3% followed by Cities with 53.5% and Town Councils with 49%. There was a



[20] There was no data available for internet service providers. Reliable data was compiled from National census data 2014 for all Cities, sampled Municipalities and Town Councils.

noticeable disparity between ownership of a device (52.9%) and usage of internet services (17.4%) as indicated in figures 83 and 840. This implies that either many users do not have smart phones or the cost of internet services was high for majority of the urban population to afford.

Figure 73: State of ownership of mobile phones (10yrs +) in urban areas by region.
Source: UBOS 2014.

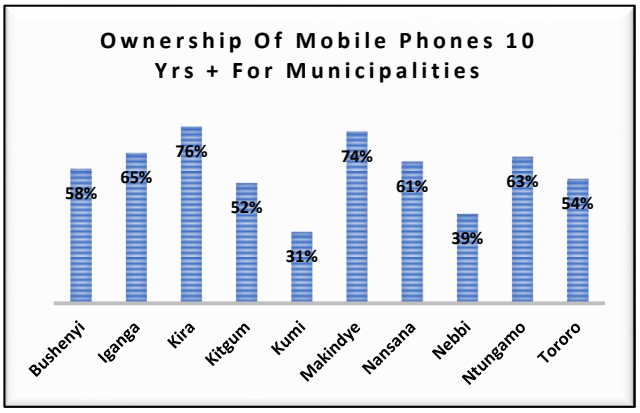


Figure 74: Ownership of mobile phones (10yrs +) in MCs.
Source; UBOS 2014.

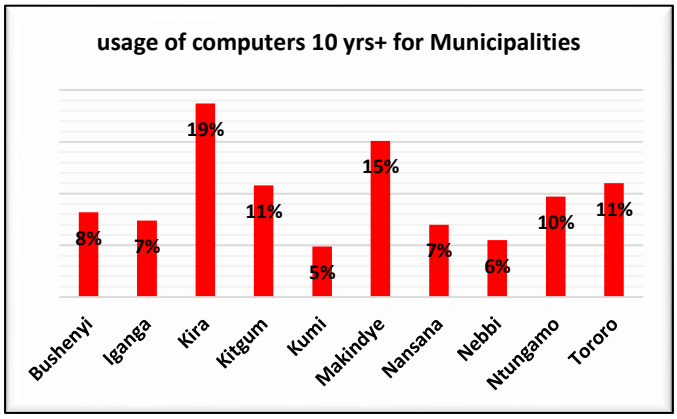
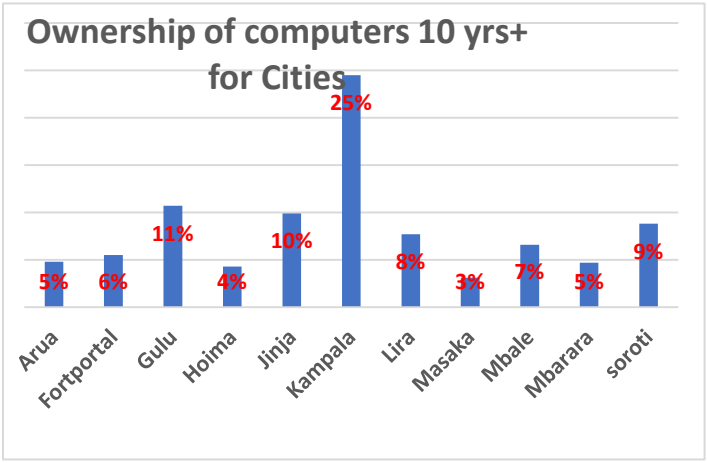
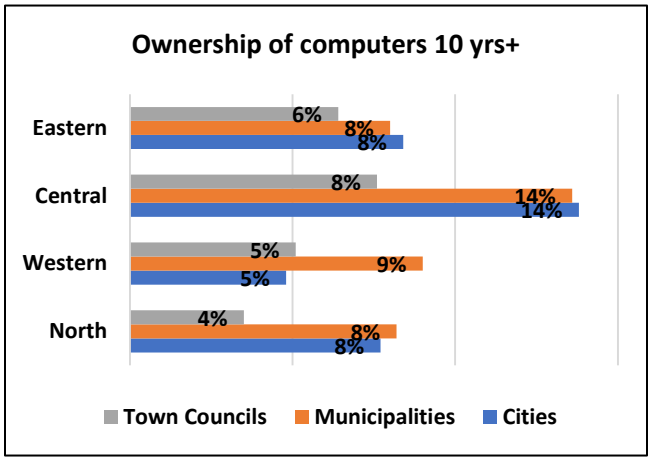


Figure 75: Computer usage (10yrs +) in MCs.
Source; UBOS 2014.

Findings further indicated that with the exception of Kampala, all other Cities use of ICT equipment and devices was slightly on the rise but use of internet was still low. The major contributing factors to this status could be attributed to; inadequate infrastructure and probably due to limited public awareness and knowledge. Low access to computer reduces productivity and low internet usage disables urban populations to progress in almost all spheres of life.

Figure 76: Ownership of computers (10yrs +) for Cities.
Source: UBOS 2014.





Ownership of computers in Uganda's urban areas was also significantly very low across all regions with a national average of 8.1%. Central region recorded the highest with 12%, followed by Eastern 7.3% while Western and Northern recorded 6.3% and 6.7% respectively. Other than the Central region, the rest of the regions were below the national average. At urban levels, Municipalities recorded the highest with 9.8% followed by Cities with 8.8% and Town Councils with 5.8%.

Figure 77: State of ownership of computers (10yrs +) in urban areas by region.
Source: UBOS 2014.

There were more people with phones than those with computers. This was partly due to the cost of purchasing these devices and as such it was cheaper to buy a phone than a computer. It could also be due to the advent of

smart phones which perform the same functions as computers to a greater extent, many prefer a phone to a computer as a way of cutting cost but also versatility issues coming in.

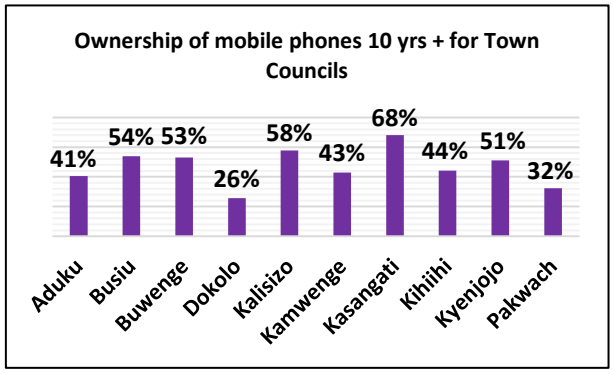


Figure 78: Ownership of mobile phones (10yrs +) in Town Councils.

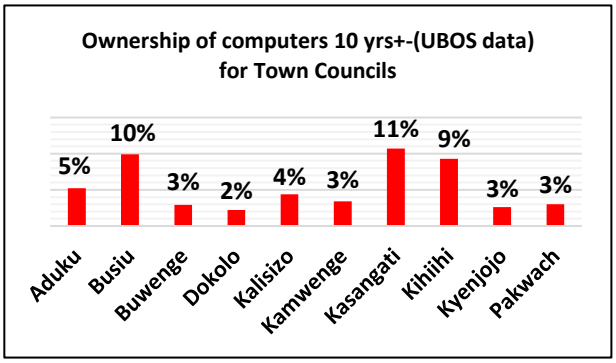


Figure 79: Ownership of computers (10yrs +) in Town Councils.

Chapter Eleven

11.0 Urban Local Government Financing

11.1 Overview

Financing urban local governments is important for economic development. Article 77 of The Local Government Act gives Local governments the right and obligation to formulate, approve and execute their budgets and plans provided the budgets are balanced. Article 79 provides for financial autonomy of urban councils over their financial and planning matters. The act also provides for powers of urban councils to raise income through: taxes, grants and borrowing. This section of the report looks at revenue generation, local revenue performance and contribution to the budget, challenges, implications and recommendations.

11.2 Performance of the local revenue sources.

The urban study investigated the status of the different local revenue sources and found out that the main source of local revenue in most urban authorities (24%) was property tax, followed by planning fees (23%), business licenses and local service tax all contributing 12%. The least collections were in hotel tax. Property taxes were mainly collected by Cities (30%) followed by Municipalities (27%). On the other hand, planning fees were mainly collected by TCs (28%) followed by Municipalities (25%). Similarly, TCs majorly collected dominated market dues collection at 18%.

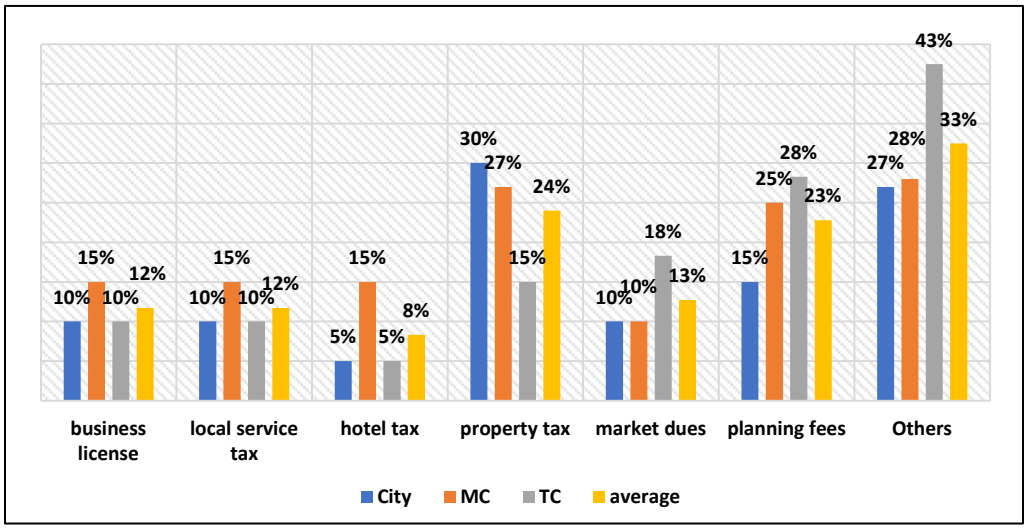
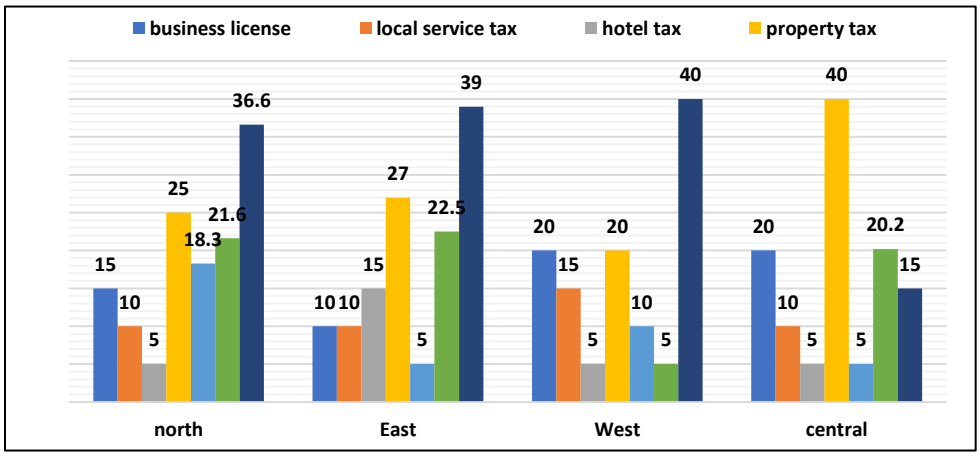


Figure 80; Performance of local revenue collections from the different revenue sources.

At the regional level, the major source of local revenue for Central region was property taxes (40%) while the Western, Eastern and Northern regions mostly collected other taxes at 40%, 39% and 36.6% respectively (figure 80).

Figure 81: Collections from local revenue sources disaggregated by regions.



11.2.1 Contribution of local revenue to the total budget.

The National Public Finance Management Reform Strategy (July 2018 - June 2023), set a National target for Local Government (LG) own source revenue as a percentage of the total budget for urban councils at 30%. The contribution of local revenue to the total budget of many urban authorities in Uganda (35%) was between 0 to 10%, followed by 16% whose

contribution was between 11% to 12%. In most of the Cities (36%) and Municipalities (70%) the contribution of local revenue to the total budget was between 0 to 10 while most of the TCs (50%), local revenue contributed between 31 to 40% of the total budget which was a better result compared to other ULGs (figure 81). On the other hand, the relatively poor performance of Cities was partially attributed to the huge budget allocation mainly resulting from the USMID program allocations which benefits all the Cities.

Overall, only Town Councils (29%) had attained the required local revenue contribution to the total budget. The relatively better performance among the TCs could be partially attributed to the revenue sharing arrangement where TCs do not share their local revenue with the districts as it was the case with Cities and Municipalities who share it with lower councils. Figure 35 below, presents the contribution of the local revenue to the total budget.

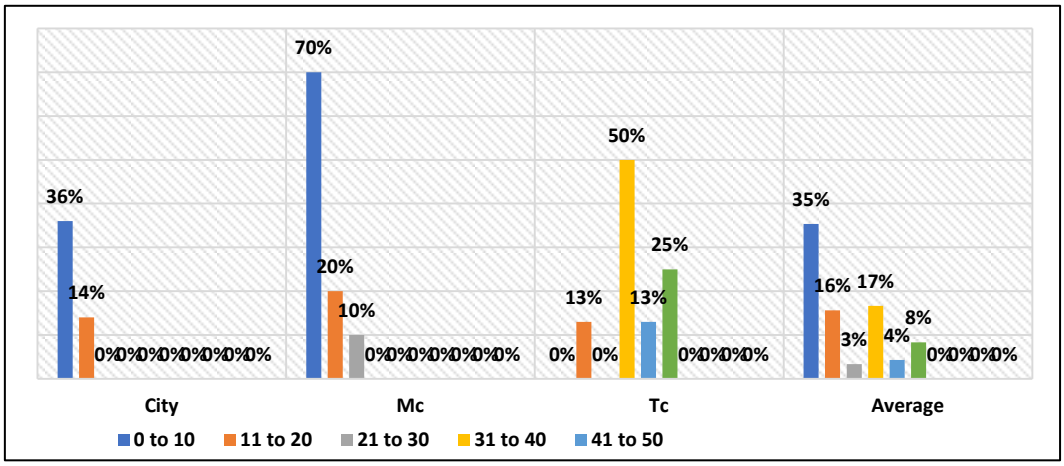
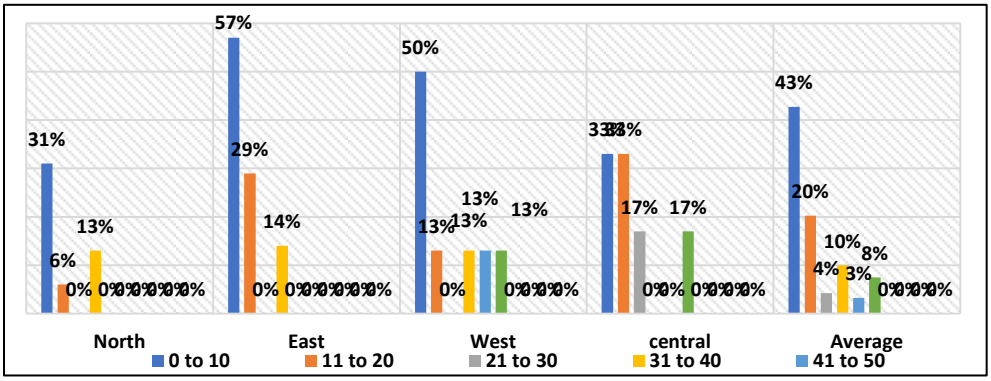


Figure 82: Local revenue contribution to the total budget, disaggregated by the level of government.

In the Central region, there was a substantial number of urban authorities (17%) whose local revenue contribution to the total budget was between 51% to 60%. On the other hand, urban authorities in the Northern and Eastern regions had local revenue contribution to the total budget of between 31% to 40% (Figure 82).

Figure 83: Local revenue contribution to the total budget, disaggregated by regions.



11.2.1.1 Challenges.

There were several challenges hampering effective local revenue collections and the key reported by urban authorities included:

a) Inadequate support to LG on local revenue enhancement as more emphasis was on taxation to generate more revenue;
b) Lack of updated and automated tax payers' registers;
c) Efforts to enhance OSR systems had been hampered by technical implementation problems, capacity bottlenecks, budget constraints and vested interests in the status-quo by landowning elites and tax collectors, who have been able to undermine fundamental changes to OSR systems. A lack of progress in OSR reform has, in turn, also compromised the ULGs' ability to access external sources of funding.
d) Limited awareness and application of the legal framework by the revenue management and collection staff;
e) Absence of policies to manage the large and high informal sector e.g., bodaboda, road side markets and vendors as contributors to the tax base;
f) Little coverage of the integrated Revenue Administration System (IRAS). IRAS was only deployed in 8 Cities and 4 Municipal Councils (Gulu, Fort Portal, Hoima, Mbarara, Arua, Soroti and Mbale Cities,

Makindye Ssabagabo, Entebbe, Nansana Municipal Councils; ELoG revenue in divisions of Jinja and Kira MC.

g) Using OSR systems in an effective and efficient manner remains a challenge for many local governments. Local OSR systems were found to be economically distortionary, costly to administer, coercive, and corrupt.

The ULGs in Uganda were still heavily dependent on Central Government transfers (80%) however, most of the Central Government transfers to the ULG were earmarked implying that LGs were left with very little discretion in use of the transfer to implement their priorities. The performance of Town Councils in local revenue generation was comparatively better (37%) than other urban authorities.

The local revenue generation and management therefore, remained poor in FY 2020/2021 at an average of 20% in all urban councils. This may be attributed to the effects of COVID 19 which affected many businesses and actual collections, lack of capacity to generate adequate revenue by the ULGs, urban poverty and administrative constraints to mobilize the revenue potentials in all ULGs.

11.2.1.2 Best practices/ Success Stories:

Makindye Ssabagabo MC had established an Alternative Resource Mobilization committee which writes proposals for funding from both local and international and successfully won a 35 million Euro funding for the 5years starting 2022.

Local Government Commission supported ULG in implementing Integrated Revenue Management and Administration System-IRAS. Qualitative inquiries from Nansana Municipal Council revealed that the introduction and use of IRAS improved tax collections, transparency and accountability through various engagements with tax payers.

11.2.1.3 Recommendations

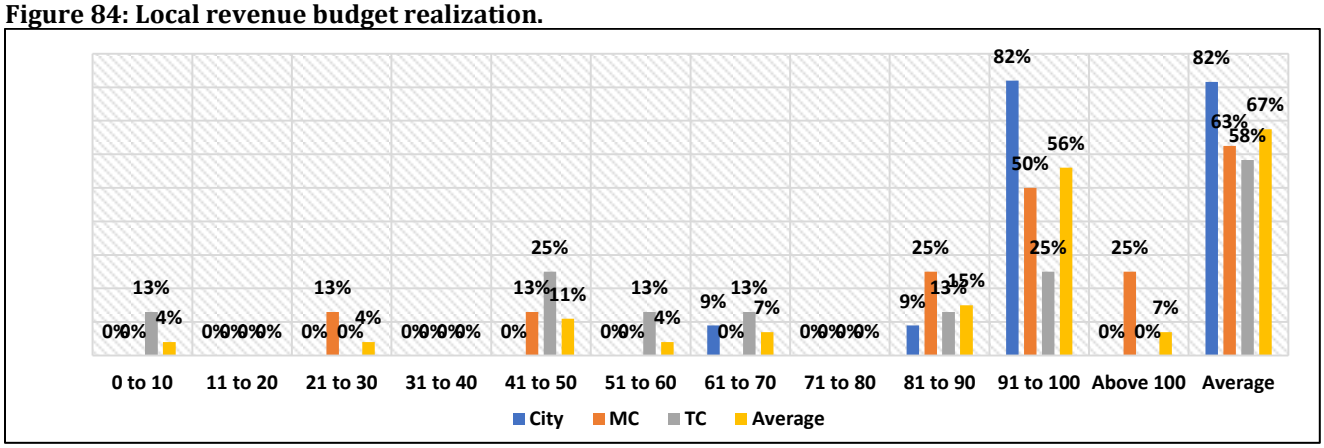
a) Local Government Finance Commission (LGFC) should fast-track the roll out of IRAS to all Cities and Municipal Councils to help improve local revenue collection, management and accountability.
b) Technological innovation, such as using GIS to geo-locate properties and create up to date digitized land and property records, can be used to overcome property identification problems. Land-based finance can also be improved through simplified valuation methods.
c) There is urgent need to strengthen the collaboration among the stakeholders in the management and administration of Own Source Revenue (Central Government, LGs, CSOs, Government agencies in LGs).
d) The government policy on centralizing revenue collection should be revised to allow ULGs to have more control of their collected funds.
e) Central government should devise ways of supporting urban centers to generate more local revenue for example through supporting the urban authorities in formulation and implementation of local revenue enhancement plans and facilitation of the revenue collection units in the urban authorities.
f) There is a need to harmonize local revenue collection in the urban authorities through the decentralization of revenue collection in taxi and bus parks to the respective ULGs as one of the major sources of revenues.
g) There is need to refine the local revenue laws, specifically, the Trading License Act to cater for improvement in the business.

11.2.2 Local Revenue Budget realization

Local revenue mobilization is an important aspect of local revenue collection as it directly informs the status of implementation of planned activities. The urban study found out that on average urban authorities were collecting 67.5% of the budgeted local revenue. The best realization was observed in Cities (81.6%) followed by Municipalities (62.5%) while Town Councils realized the least at 58.3% (figure 37).

Most of the urban authorities (56%) were collecting between 91% to 100% of the planned local revenue with Cities collecting 82% of the budgeted local revenue. On the other hand, only 25% of the TCs were collecting between 91% to 100% of the budgeted local revenue. It was also noted that 4% of the urban authorities were collecting below 10% of the budgeted local revenue.

Figure 84: Local revenue budget realization.



Urban authorities in the Central region had better local revenue realization (95%), followed by Western region with 75%. On the other hand, ULGs in the Northern and Eastern regions realized only 57% of their budget (figure 85).

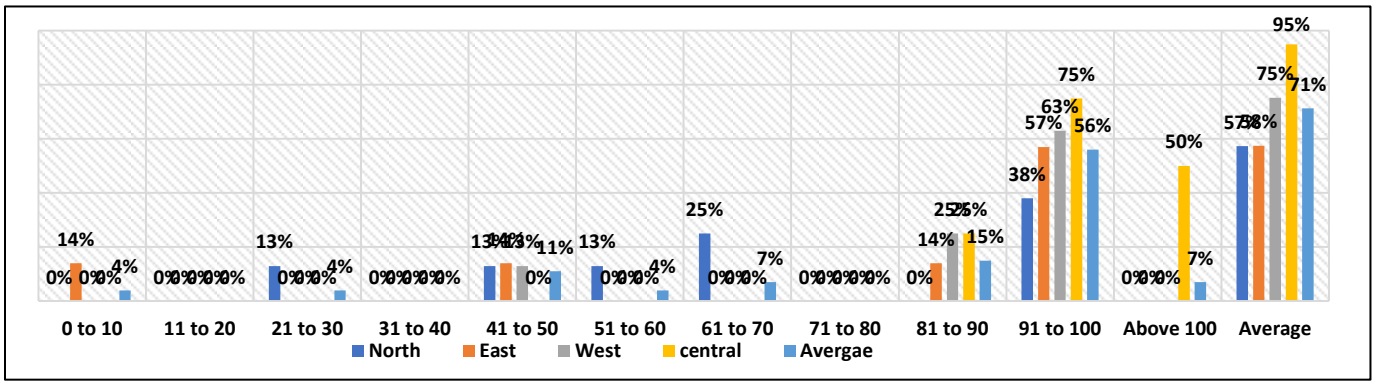


Figure 85; Local revenue budget realization disaggregated by regions.

ULGs especially Town Councils had capacity gaps in developing realistic budgets and revenue collection and management process. It was evidently hard to collect revenue from the high yielding tax sources such as property rates due to the extensive process and financial resources to facilitate the process which most TCs did not have.

The unrealistic budgeting and poor local revenue collection practices affected the overall budget implementation and effective service delivery to the communities because many of the planned activities could not be implemented. There was need therefore, to support ULGs in realistic budgeting to ensure accurate forecast of their local revenue resource abilities.

11.2.3 Human Resource in Urban Local Governments.

Human resource plays a key role in the governance and management of ULGs. There are legal provisions that spell out the structure and mandates of management of human resource in ULGs. The introduction of the separate personnel system reinforced the decentralization of human resource management function and provided councils direct control over their staff.

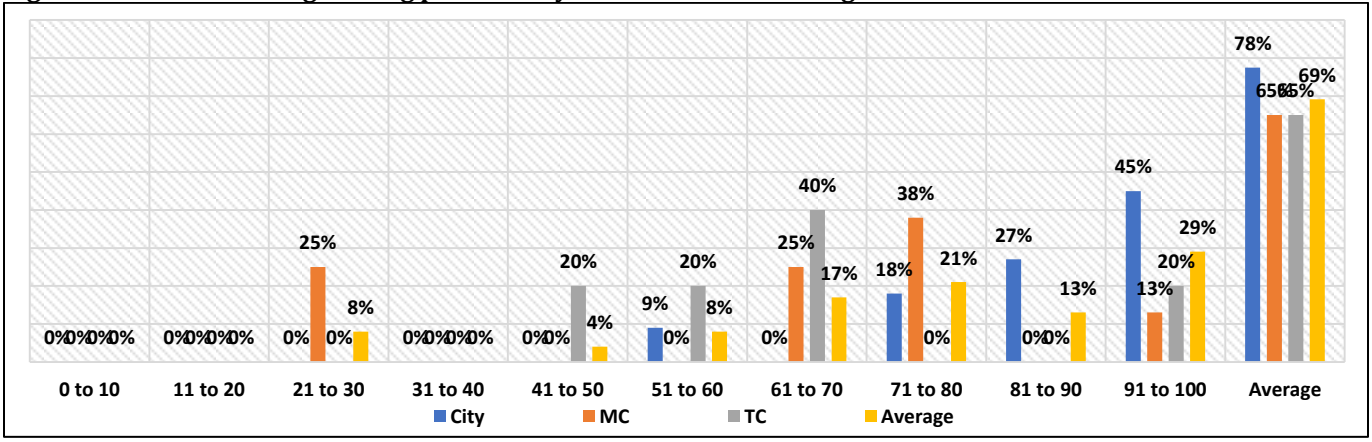
11.2.3.1 Staffing status in the urban LGs.

At the time of writing this report, Cities had no customized approved structure to guide recruitment of staff in the financial year 2020/2021 and as such all had not yet appointed the City Service Commission to fill the vacant posts. The Cities staff structure had been approved by MoPS, for the heads of department positions.

In all Cities except for the Town Clerks who are appointed by MoLG, all the staff were in acting capacity. The existing staff structure especially in the Municipal Councils was not commensurate to the work load, leading to multitasking which reduced efficiency. Town Councils were the most affected by the glaring lack of staff. The inadequate level of staffing was exacerbated by high turnover especially in Municipal Councils.

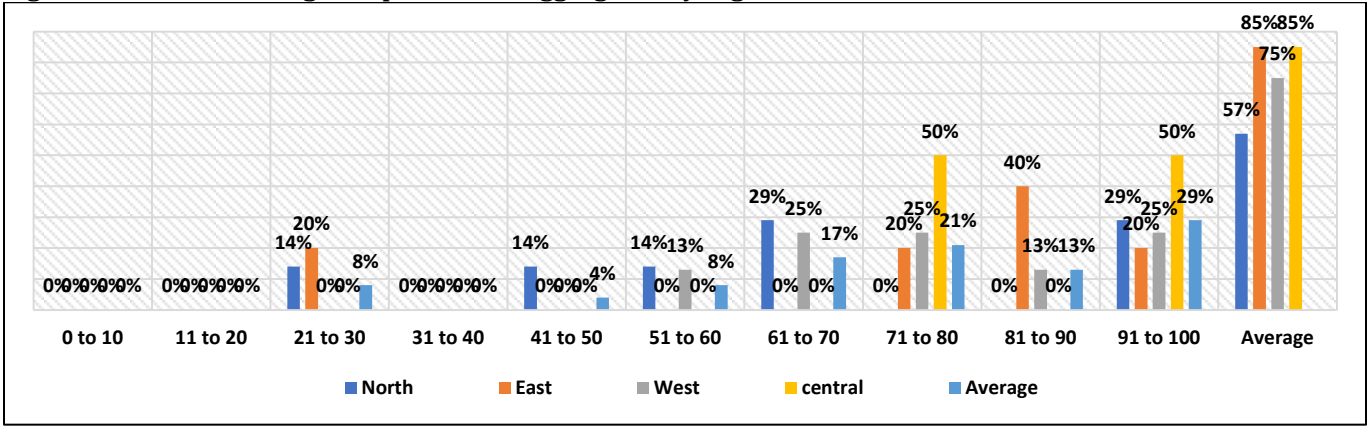
Overall, 69.2% of the staffing positions within the urban authorities were filled, the Cities had comparatively filled up more staffing positions (77%) compared to TCs and MCs (65%). It was also established that 25% of the MC had only filled between 21 to 30% of the staff positions while 20% of the TCs had only filled between 41 to 50% (figure 86). This greatly affected the ability of these councils to deliver services.

Figure 86: Status of filling staffing positions by the different levels of government.



Urban authorities in Central and Eastern regions had more staff positions filled (85%) compared to urban authorities from Northern regions had the least staff positions filled (57%) as illustrated in figure 87.

Figure 87: Status of filling staff position disaggregated by regions.



It should be noted that the inadequacies in staffing available in the ULGs affected the efficiency and effectiveness of the ULGs in delivery of services. The wage bill in many urban LGs was low hence affecting their ability to recruit sufficient staff as was the case in mostly the Municipal and Town Councils.

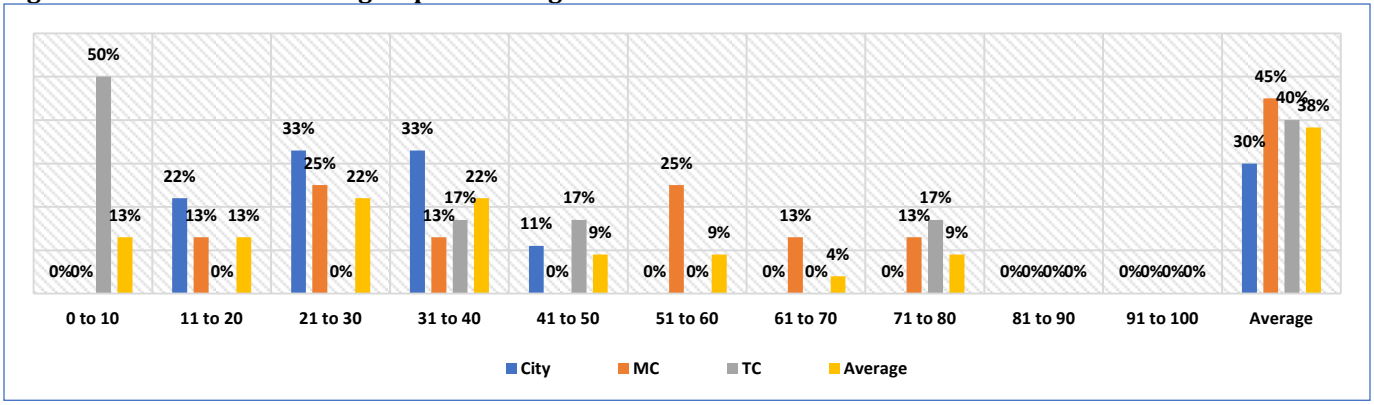
11.2.3.2 Recommendation:

a) ULGs should provide incentives in their budgets to attract and retain staff by providing a top up allowance for some selected key positions as an incentive for working in a hard-to-reach areas.
b) ULGs should also introduce reward and sanctions for good and poor performance implemented through the Reward and Sanction Committees.
c) The terms and conditions of service for the ULG civil servants need to be reviewed and improved to attract and retain staff;
d) Local Government structures need to be reviewed in order to promote career progression and balance the workload;
e) Staff in ULG need to be equipped with the required tools and facilities to improve performance;
f) Central Government needs to increase on the wage bill provided to ULGs to enable them fill in the key posts, facilitate this process, ensure timely submission of their staffing requirements to MoPS.

11.2.4 Recurrent expenditures – wages

The urban study found out that overall, urban authorities were spending 38% of their budgets on wages. MCs were comparatively spending more on wages (45%) than other urban LGs while TCs were spending the least on wages (30%) as illustrated in figure 88.

Figure 88: Percent of the budget spent on wages.



It was observed that more than half of the MCs (51%) spent more than 50% of their budgets on the wages which was not a good public finance management practice. Furthermore, 17% and 13% of the TCs and MCs respectively were spent between 71 to 80% of their budgets on wages. This left very little money available for development and other operational costs which stifled service delivery. One could conclude that these urban local governments were not functional or do not serve their purpose.

ULGs in Eastern region comparatively spent more of their budgets on wages (50%) followed by Northern region (30%) while those in the Central region spent the least (18%) on wages yet the ULGs in the North had the least filled staff positions (figure 89).

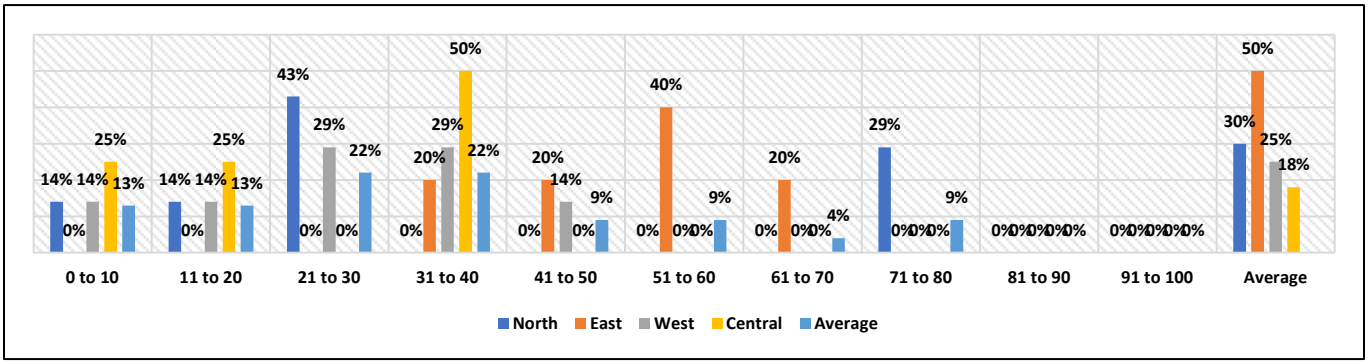
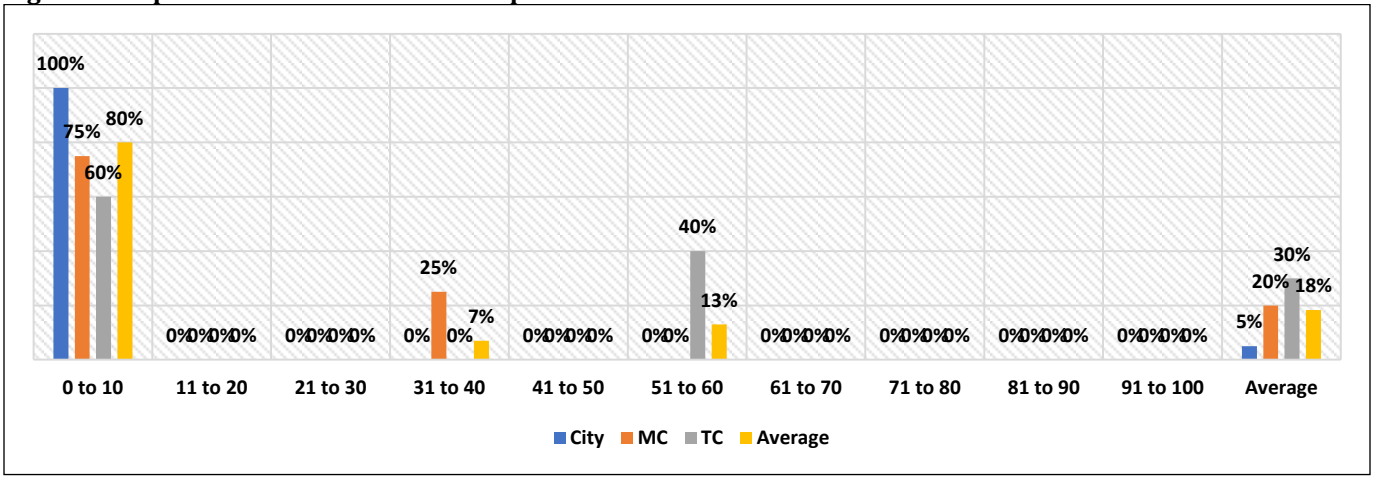


Figure 89: Average ULG expenditure on wage disaggregated by regions

11.2.5 Recurrent expenditures – Operation and maintenance

On average, the ULGs spent 18% of their budget on O&M. TC were spent more on O&M (30%) compared to other ULGs while the least expenditures on O&M were observed among the Cities (figure 90).

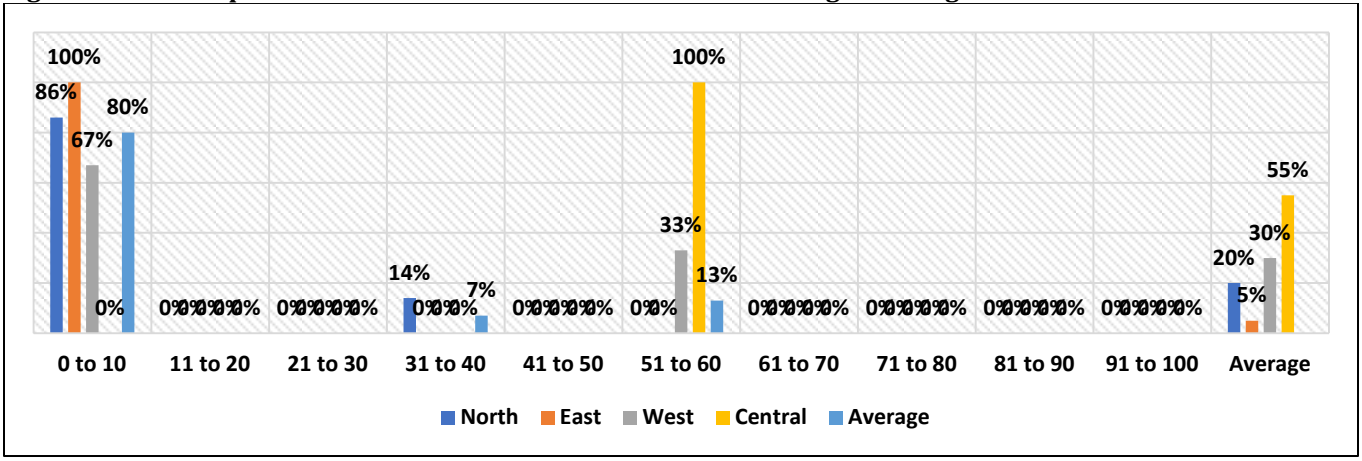
Figure 90: Operation and maintenance expenditures in urban authorities.



It was observed that all Cities, 75% of the MCs and 60% of the TCs spent less than 10% of their budget on O&M. It was further revealed that 40% of the TC spent more than 50% of their budgets on O&M and this was attributed to the dominance of the road fund that finances maintenance of the roads compared to other development grants sent to the TCs.

ULGs in the Central region comparatively spent more on O&M (55%) than other regions. The least expenditure on O&M was observed in Eastern region (5%) which was too low as shown in the figure 91.

Figure 91: O&M expenditure in urban authorities in the different regions of Uganda.



It was further noted that all urban authorities in Central region spent between 51 to 60% of their total budget on O&M while a few ULGs in the Western region (33%) spent between 51 to 60% of their budget on O&M and only 14% of the ULGs in the Northern region spent between 31 to 40% of their budget on O&M.

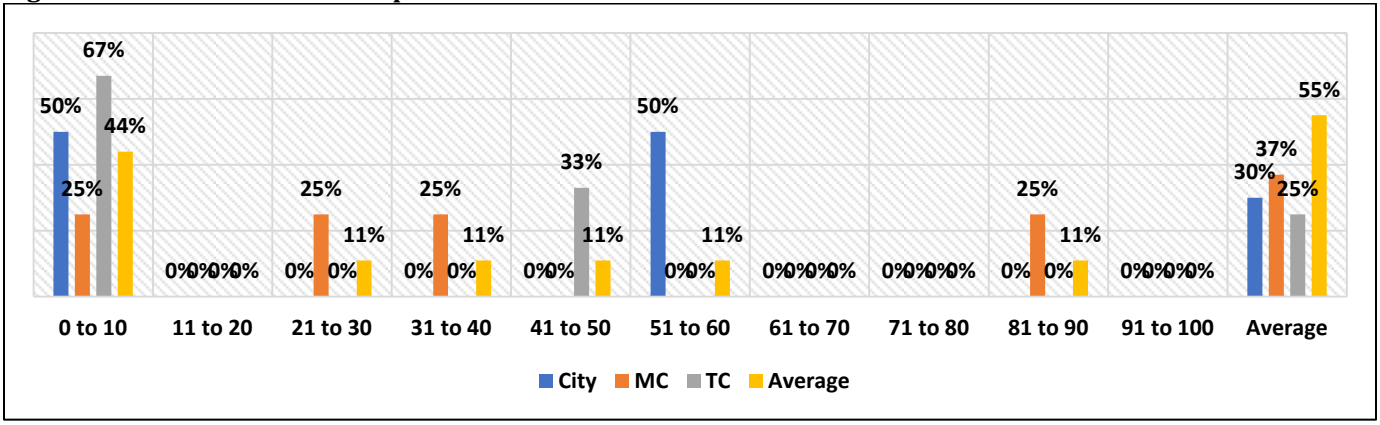
The urban authorities faced a number of challenges in the operation of O&M which included among others; the high demand and performance of new facilities without adequate maintenance of old facilities; limited resources for undertaking O&M especially in Cities and some Municipal Councils and the poor attitude of some communities coupled with limited awareness on O&M by the various stakeholders.

It is highly recommended that; urban local governments should have a comprehensive plan for O&M, effectively involving all stakeholders especially user committees / communities at all stages of implementation with adequate and timely feedback. They should also formulate ordinances/by-laws related to O&M to ensure sustainability.

11.2.6 Contracted recurrent expenditure ratio

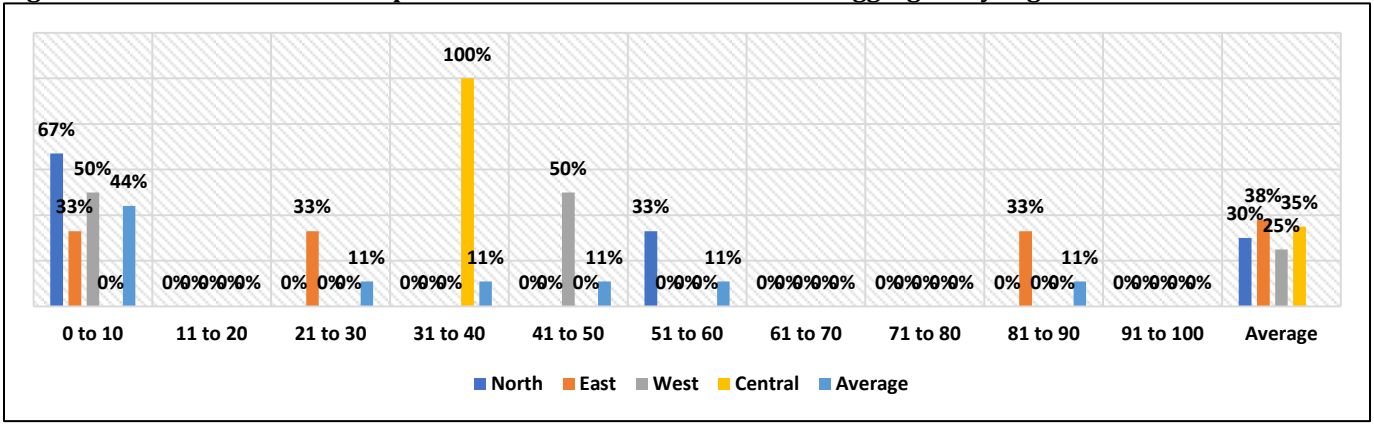
Urban authorities averagely spent 55% of their budget on contracted recurrent expenses. MCs comparatively spent more on contracted recurrent expenditures (37%) while the TCs spent the least on recurrent expenses (25%) as illustrated in figure 92.

Figure 92: Urban authorities' expenditure on contracted services.



ULGs in the Eastern region spent most on contracted expenses (38%) closely followed by ULGs in the Central region (30%) while ULGs in the Western region spent the least on the contracted services (25%) as illustrated in figure 93.

Figure 93: Urban authorities' expenditure on contracted services disaggregate by regions.



The recurrent expenditure on wages and contracts in urban councils was at 93% leaving development expenditure at 7%. This was below the recommended minimum of 10%. Given this status, many of the urban councils could only carryout little or no capital investment which inhibited their growth and development.

Chapter Twelve

12.0 Urban safety and Security

12.1.1 Overview

Although Cities represent the promise of opportunities for people from all walks of life, at the same time they are the places where crime and violence are concentrated, stemming from factors such as inequality, unemployment, inadequate access to essential services, social exclusion and overcrowding. Urban safety is therefore a key component for realizing livable, productive, inclusive and sustainable urban areas and hence MUST be prioritized.

Urban areas being the engines of development need to be inclusive, safe and resilient with emphasis on public space and participatory governance. Urban safety and security focus on three main perspectives i.e., crime and violence; insecurity of tenure and forced eviction; natural and human-made disasters. Insecurity in urban areas is primarily driven by socio-economic factors which affects the psycho-social well-being and physical safety of citizens and has a negative impact on the productivity of the urban environments. Urban safety and security are therefore, recognized globally as a key ingredient for urban development.

12.1.2 Urban Safety and Security in Uganda

The rapid urbanization in Uganda which is characterized by increasing levels of urban insecurity stemming from inadequate employment opportunities, is where a large number of unemployable youths are contributing to high crime rates in urban areas. 34% of people in Uganda have encountered crime in the last four years *(Hill Publications-Uganda, 2020)* with major cases resulting from theft, burglary, robbery and damage to property. 43.9% of crimes in Uganda were reported in urban areas *(Uganda Police Report on Crime, 2020).* The Uganda crime rate and statistics for 2018 indicated an annual rate of 8.5% and a 10.52% per 100,000 populations.

In Uganda, there are more cases of crime and safety reported in urban areas than rural areas. Urban safety and security were challenged by a number of factors which include but not limited to:

- The increased number of people in the urban areas has caused increased demand for service provision with limited budgeting and financing which frustrates the growing population and as a result forced to indulge crime to survive.
- Urban authorities find it difficult to identify the new entrants into their areas of jurisdiction, and in most cases are not registered which gives room to operate without control since they can't be easily identified.
- Unplanned urbanization has also resulted into increasing vulnerability of urban areas to disaster and increased eviction due to demand for land for expansion and infrastructure development. this results into forced evictions and increase homelessness.
- The limited urban infrastructure such as street lighting systems and poor access in terms of the road network, makes it difficult to monitor criminal incidences. For instance, poorly lit and inaccessible streets have turned into hot spots for criminal hideouts.
- Susceptibility of the youth to urban insecurity/crime was due to limited access to land, low-income levels and limited survival skills. These have driven most of the urban population into unplanned informal settlements/slums which are overcrowded and have become more vulnerable hubs for urban insecurity.
- Convergence of several risk factors; such as poverty, unemployment, income inequality, intergenerational transmission of violence as reflected in the continuous witnessing of parental abuse during childhood, rapid urbanization, size and density of urban areas, poor urban planning, their design and management played a critical role in facilitating opportunities for crime.

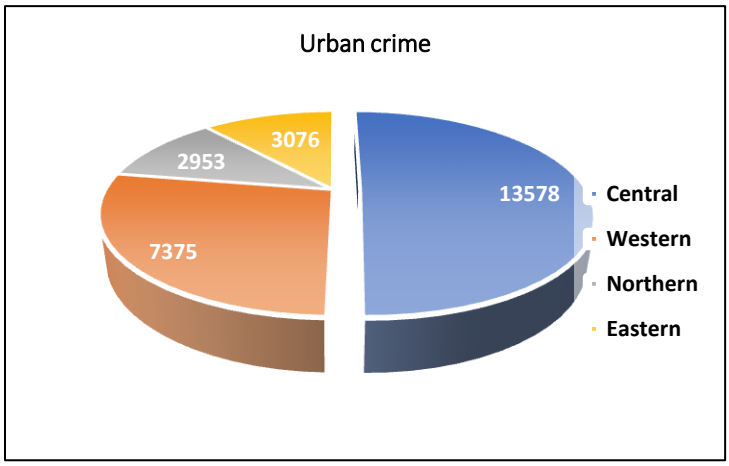
12.1.3 Urban Crime and Violence;

Crime rate is defined as the incidence of crime per 100,000 people (UBOS Abstract 2020). Urban crime and violence are characterized by a number of multi-dimensional effects on both an individual and the country at large. Common crimes in and around urban areas in Uganda include but not limited to;

a). Property crime/theft: By the end of the year 2020, 41,950 cases of theft had been registered in Cities and towns across the country and major theft cases reported included those for mobile phones, motor vehicles, motor cycles, burglary and house break-ins. For instance, places such as Golf Course, Boma grounds, Akashanyarazi, Kijungu and Kisenyi were among some of the dark spots for criminals in Mbarara City, which have contributed to the high crime rates (*Uganda Police Force* Annual *crime report, 2020).*

There was no specifically segregated data documented on urban safety and security in Uganda. However, the regional analysis of criminal theft by the Uganda Police indicated that there were more cases of theft registered in the Central region (13,578), followed by the Western region (7,375), Eastern region (3,076) while the Northern region had the least (2,953) cases registered during the year 2020 (figure 89). Major Cities in the regions highlighted with extreme theft figures included Kampala and Masaka cities with 8,538 and 2,428 respectively, Mbarara city (677), Mbale city (707), Arua city (721). Other cases of high urban theft were recorded in Mpigi, Mukono, Kira, Nakasongola, Yumbe, Kyenjojo, Kamuli and Kiruhura among others.

Figure 94: Regional Analysis of Urban crime (theft).
Source: Uganda Police Force (UPF), 2020.



b). **Sexual harassment, and domestic violence takes place in urban areas with women and children as the most vulnerable populations.** More women (63.43%) experienced physical violence than men (36.57%), while more women (84.3%) experienced sexual harassment than men (16.54%) in the urban areas (UBOS 2018). The Uganda Police documented a 16.1% general increase in deaths due to domestic violence in 2020. There were more cases of domestic violence reported in Kampala, followed by Soroti and Gulu cities.

c). **Urban terrorism is currently the defining component of urban wars especially in this 21st century.** Kampala was the only city so far that has recently experienced terror activity particularly bombings in different parts of the city and its suburbs. The effect of terrorism however has a greater incidence of devastation in not only its area of occurrence but also other surrounding towns.

d). **Homicide rates** are high in urban areas where public security providers show a low presence, and these are mainly caused by land wrangles, people taking the law into their hands, family misunderstandings, crimes of passion and business rivalry among others. The 2018 police report indicated that Mbarara city had the highest murder cases in the Western region (138) i.e., on average 3 people were being killed on a weekly basis which implied high levels of homicides.

f). **Corruption** was another form of crime against public order, the abuse of public power for personal gains, and has a growing threat to human security where it plays a significant role in urban development, planning, management, and programme design and policy. In urban areas, corruption was also closely linked to urban poverty, unemployment, income inequality, the pattern of public investment that benefits citizens' quality of life, levels of judicial independence, independence of civil servants, and the strength of democratic institutions.

g). **Interpersonal violence** such as child abuse, family disintegration and poverty contribute to the growing numbers of street children and homeless families (8.8% of the urban population). In the absence of any form of formal assistance, many street children and other homeless populations turn to crime as a survival strategy and eventually become easy targets for membership of youth gangs. For instance, the criminal gangs that have made it a habit to terrorize areas of Katete, Biharwe, Kyapotani, Muyenga, and Nyakaizi in Kakoba division in Mbarara city, are as a result of the so many street kids and street men in the city. In addition to house break-ins and petty theft, they also rape and defile women and girls within the area. The urban indicators showed that there was a growing number of homeless populations in urban areas with the Western region dominating (14.4%), followed by Central (3.5%). The Eastern and Northern regions were both registered at 1% respectively (figure 95).

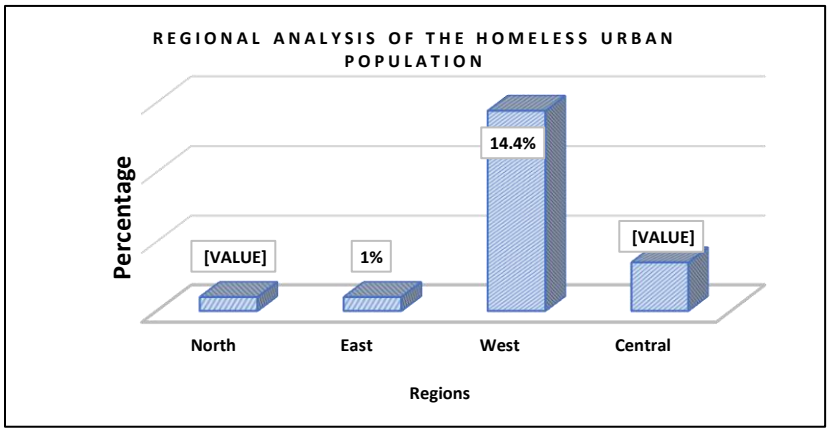


Figure 95: Regional analysis of the homeless urban population, as a threat to urban safety and security in Uganda.
Source: Urban Study 2022.

h). **Illicit drug trafficking and use** leading to drug addiction fuels crime and violence, increases policing and healthcare costs, disintegrates families and generally diminishes the quality of life. It was a major profit generator for organized crime groups especially among the vulnerable youth who often plough their profits into the purchase and subsequent marketing of illegal weapons and engage in trafficking people.

The Government, through the Ministry of Internal Affairs (specifically the Uganda Police Force), has made commendable progress in enhancing urban safety and security. Initiatives embarked upon have directly and indirectly contributed towards improving urban safety and security. The 2020, UPF Annual Crime, Traffic and Safety Report denotes that there has been a general downward trend in the number of crimes reported in the last three years across the country, and this has been generally attributed to the deliberate efforts put in place to tackle crime by the Uganda Police Force (UPF).

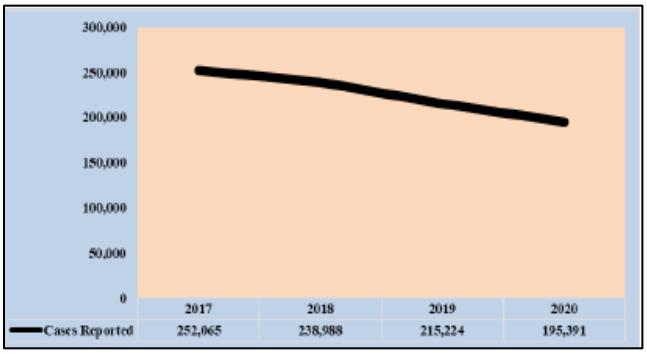


Figure 96: Annual crime trend 2017 – 2020
Source; UPF 2020

12.1.4 Recommendations for improving urban safety and security in urban areas;

- Development and implementation of national and local urban safety action plans;
- Strengthening the capacities of urban authorities to address urban safety issues and reduce delinquency and insecurity;
- promoting holistic crime prevention approaches implemented in collaboration with central and local urban authorities, the criminal justice system, the private sector and civil society;
- Developing tools and documentation to support local initiatives on urban crime prevention and management;
- Safety audits conducted in key locations within the Cities/Municipal/town level;
- Develop and launch a concept of a Safer Spaces and Streets Campaign across ULGs as a strategy for creating awareness on crime prevention;
- Establishment of a local coordinating safety and security team and office across all urban councils;
- During urban planning and design integrated principles of safety, convenience and sustainability.

12.1.5 Tenure Security and Forced Evictions

Security of tenure is defined as 'the right of all individuals and groups to effective protection by the state against forced evictions. This is one of the major challenges affecting almost thousands of the urban poor in most of the urban centres in Uganda today. The complex tenure system coupled with the land law was creating a big challenge in urban management in Uganda today. Many Cities and towns in Uganda are characterized by a rising scale of insecurity of tenure since land ownership was not guaranteed for the growing number of the urban poor. As a result, majority of this population was forced into vulnerable urban settlements which are tenure insecure and at a risk of forceful evictions.

Currently Municipalities dominate with highest percentage of slums (21.6%) followed by Cities (20%) and Town Councils with 18.3%. Due to the ever-increasing land values within urban areas, affordable land has become increasingly scarce, and housing solutions are increasingly left to market forces with an estimated 900,000 substandard housing units at the verge of destruction. This increases the predisposition of the urban slum dwellers to the risk of displacement/evictions.

As the country urbanizes with more Cities created, forced evictions have become part and parcel of the urban expansion cropping from the need for more infrastructure developments, urban beautification and general town clean up among other factors.

Plate 13.: Minister Judith Nabakooba speaking to victims of eviction in Kakiika, Bugashe and Katojo Wards in Mbarara city.

Plate 14: "An empowered community fights eviction" Residents of Kimaka, a slum in Jinja City saved by the Jinja CDF from being evicted by a Developer.

As a way of improving tenure security in our urban areas focus should be put in the following ingredients; Strengthen and build capacity of urban managers to implement the National Slum Upgrading Strategy and action plan, as well as regularization of the processes which should be rolled out across the entire urban realm within the country; Strengthen land titling and legalization processes, and this should be rolled out across the entire urban hierarchy; Strengthen the land administration and registration processes as stipulated in the National Land Policy; Urban councils should prioritize tenure insecurity as an indicator of vulnerability to urban growth and development; NGOs and CSOs should be strengthened and supported in the implementation of housing programs that are in line with security of tenure; Urban authorities should be supported to prioritize the implementation of social housing programs for low-income urban dwellers; Strengthen capacity of the MLHUD to implement the provisions of the National Housing policy on Improving security of tenure in human settlements;

12.1.6 Natural and Human-Made Disasters

The growing frequency of natural and human-made disasters is another threat to urban safety and security. The impact of disaster tends to be particularly severe in urban settlements, due to high population densities, complex infrastructure and often location in vulnerable environmentally sensitive areas. This was in addition to unregulated building standards and land use planning strategies by the urban authorities.

The commonest and most significant incidences of natural disasters in urban areas in Uganda was flooding caused by increased variability in rainfalls that are more frequent and extreme. As a result, infrastructure like housing was destroyed, roads washed off, culverts and bridges destroyed, drainage systems washed away and generally the urban water supply systems got contaminated affecting the livelihoods, housing and health

of the urban residents. Such incidences had been commonly registered in the slum settlements around Kampala including the metropolitan area, and Kasese Municipality leading to overwhelming restoration costs, stemming from poor urban planning, inadequate drainage systems, poor solid waste management systems, encroachment on environmentally sensitive areas, among others in such settlements.

Most of the informal settlements in Kampala and other Cities/towns in Uganda were characterized by limited piped water supply as majority of the urban slum dwellers relied more on natural springs, boreholes and wells. In the event of extreme rainfall these became more vulnerable to contamination due to flooding coupled with poor sanitary facilities leading to unsafe water consumption. For instance, residents of Mulago II in Kamwokya, a Kampala suburb, were living in fear of flooding due to blocked drainages, poor waste disposal and hygiene whenever it rained.

Plate 15: Flooding in Bwaise III and Mulago II, Kampala after a heavy down pour.

Human-made disasters such as deliberate pollution of water bodies and air through industrial activities also significantly affected the safety and security of the urban environment. The rapid population and urbanization growth within the country had translated into an increase in waste generation with limited capacities of the urban authorities to effectively manage it.

Rapid urban growth coupled with increasing demographics and economic activities pushes the urban population to settle in disaster prone areas. Rapid expansion of urban corridors reconfigured risk profiles at national, regional and local urban council levels. This expansion without the requisite management capacities further increased the rate of vulnerability to disasters. The over exploitation of natural resources generated hazards to the natural environment. These include deforestation and slope instability which encourage landslides and flash flooding as is the case with urban areas like; Fort Portal, Mbale, Kasese, Kisoro and Moroto. The absence of enforcement of building and land-use planning regulations and standards makes unsafe construction and land-use practices to flourish, generating greater vulnerability.

12.1.6.1 Challenges faced by urban areas in addressing effects of natural and human-made disasters

- There were gaps in data compilation and management on natural disasters;
- Lack of climate resilience in a city's development vision; limited understanding of the hazards, vulnerabilities, and resulting risks;
- Lack of coordination between administrative and sectoral levels of urban management;
- Inadequate implementation and financial capacities; and
- Poor connection between climate adaptation and risk management efforts and Cities' development visions and strategies.

12.1.6.2 Recommendations

- Detailed mapping and assessment of all risks/disasters within the urban areas should be prioritized by urban managers.
- Develop integrated land-use planning and urban designs that are backed up by updated data and technological innovation to serve as an effective instrument that urban managers can employ to reduce disaster risks.

- There is need to improve risk, hazard and vulnerability assessment and monitoring capacity through increased investment and policy formulation.
- Urban managers should be encouraged and strengthened to implement the guidelines for mainstreaming climate change and disaster risk reduction in urban planning.
- Through policy and regulatory framework, there is need for a clearly defined legislative and budgetary framework for reconstruction activities within the urban councils.
- Strengthen urban disaster resilience through technical capacity building of all urban managers to minimize the incidence and impacts of disasters, and to undertake recovery and reconstruction activities once disasters occur.
- Strengthen the enforcement of building control measures and regulations.
- Installation of early warning systems and database management of the past disaster occurrences. These should rolled-out from national to local urban governments.

12.1.7 Traffic Accidents/Unsafe Mobility

Ugandan Cities and towns are characterized with high concentration of vehicles and commercial motorcyclists, transport infrastructure and dense urban populations, which makes these Cities and towns the main locus of traffic accidents. These involve road-based motorized and non-motorized vehicles of various capacities. They pose a serious threat to the safety and well-being of urban residents on a daily basis by generating economically and socially unsustainable outcomes, hence the need to review traffic accidents as a key hazard threatening the safety and security of urban inhabitants.

Currently, the country experiences a road traffic death incidence of about 28.9 persons per 100,000 populations, which was even higher than the African region average of 24.1 persons per 100,000 populations and the global average of 18.0 per 100,000 populations. Uganda was therefore among the top-ranking countries for road traffic accidents along with South Africa (31.9) and Nigeria -33.7 *(National Library of Medicine, 2017).* The urban road networks in the country are typically dense, highly frequented with diverse / mixed-up means of transport and often undergo rapid changes. This makes it challenging for urban authorities to provide safety for all road users.

The urban study findings indicated that Uganda's urban road infrastructure was generally unsafe, as most of the roads were single carriageway without a median, many with steep shoulders and with few opportunities for overtaking, resulting in many head-on collisions. Save for the recently improved roads under the USMID project in the new Cities and Municipalities such as Gulu, Lira, Mbale and 19 others, most roads lacked facilities for non-motorized users, and portrayed inadequate land-use planning, with numerous examples of unsafe accesses to the major highways.

It was further noted urban councils did not actually conduct regular road safety audits to identify and determine the safety precautions on these roads, and this was partly attributed to lack of appropriately qualified and experienced substantive engineers as provided for in their staffing structures. This reflects a scenario that road safety was not given utmost consideration and quite often was taken to be of secondary importance by those designing new road projects or those maintaining the roads. As a result, there was an urgent need for technical assistance in road safety aspects grounded by a policy reform.

The vulnerability of urban areas to traffic accidents was mainly attributed the uncontrolled and unplanned urban growths characterized with rapid urbanization and the consequent explosion of motorized vehicles, unplanned settlements and human populations that greatly threaten road safety. This was in addition to the poor transport management systems, which mainly focus on planning for cars rather than people. In Kampala city, high accident rates among pedestrians were related to dense populations and walking as a main form of transport, as many people are exposed to traffic hazards.

12.1.7.1 Strategies for minimizing urban traffic accidents;

- Improve road transport management systems by providing traffic management interventions, off street parking facilities and instituting road safety measures;
- Implementation of paved walkways, pedestrian fly-overs that are separated from motorized traffic;
- Promote cycling and walking as sustainable means of transport to reduce vehicular traffic in Cities and towns;
- Establish and implement a road crush data base/ system to improve the implementation of road safety audits and assessments to address the safety of vulnerable road users;
- Enforce and manage the stipulated road hierarchy and other associated standards and guidelines

12.1.8 Initiatives towards improving urban safety and security

Safety and public security are inter-related, and are a pre-requisite to stable and sustainable development. They have to be dealt with appropriately in order to enhance the quality of life of urban dwellers.

Policy direction on urban safety and security has been provided under the following policies: the National Vision 2040, the National Urban Policy (2017) and the National Land Policy. There are also some initiatives that have had an indirect contribution towards improving urban safety and security being spearheaded by the MLHUD, with support from development partners like DANIDA and the World Bank. Since the mid-1990s to-date, the Ministry has implemented a number of projects towards improving urban safety and security as summarized below:

- Slum upgrading initiatives in urban areas including; Masese, Malukhu, Arua, Mpumudde, Namuwongo, Arua, Jinja, Mbale, Mbarara, Kabale, Kisenyi I, Kisenyi II and Kisenyi III in Kampala.
- The Local Government Management and Service Delivery (LGMSD) Program which provides modest investment and capacity-building resources to local governments to improve the capacity and institutional performance and providing resources to invest in local infrastructure development.
- Uganda Support to Municipal Infrastructure Development (USMID) designed to support the special urban needs for infrastructure improvement with support throughout the implementation by a World Bank and International Development Agency (IDA).

Chapter Thirteen

13.0 Urban Refugees in Uganda

13.1 overview

Migration is at the core of urbanization, and while today, Cities are home to 54% of the world's population, by the middle of this century (2050) this number is expected to rise to 66%. This was a result of natural population growth and migration flows as Cities are places where migrants hope to find better lives and employment opportunities. They are the first point of entry for most migrants seeking work and shelter, and it is in Cities where these migrants will attempt to integrate into existing settlements and realize their aspirations for a better life. Other factors include natural and man-made disasters, fleeing violence and persecution or hoping for more dignified lives. By the end of 2020, there were 82.4 million forcibly displaced people with 26.4 million of these being refugees, worldwide. 39% of these are hosted by 5 countries across the world with Uganda hosting 1.4 million (UNHCR 2020).

13.2 Demographic characteristics of Urban Refugees in Uganda

Uganda had over 500,000 urban refugees spread across urban areas majorly in the four regions of Central, West Nile, Mid-South West and South Western. Over 80,000 (6%) of these live in the central region, particularly Kampala, scattered among low-income informal settlements in areas such as Makindye Division, Kampala Central, Rubaga Division, Nakawa, Kawempe Division and Makerere. 64% of these reside in the urban areas of the West Nile Region including Lamwo, Moyo, Yumbe, Arua and Adjumani, while the remaining 30% were in the refugee settlements of Bweyale, Rwamwanja, Nakivale in Mid and South Western regions' urban councils of Kiryandongo, Kahunge - Kataryebwa and Isingiro respectively**.** Majority of these were women and children (64%), while 61% of these were aged below 20 years, and only 4% were above 60 years.

In some regions like the West Nile and the South Western region, the urban refugee population covered almost over 23% of the regional population (*Koboko, Arua, Nebbi*) while in the Mid-western and Southern regions, the refugee population in the urban council of Bweyale covers over 20% of the entire district population, and 18% in Isingiro (Nakivale) respectively. The growing refugee population in these urban hosting areas therefore had created enormous pressure on service delivery to both the local communities and the refugees. The demand was not matched with the required resource allocation to the hosting ULGs.

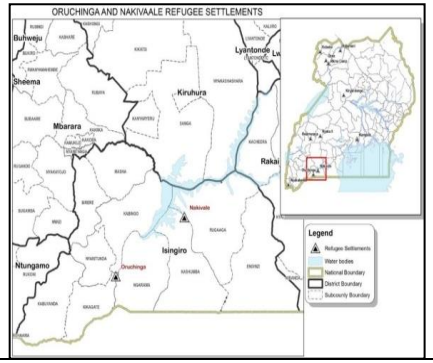
13.3 Factors for Refugee migration to urban areas

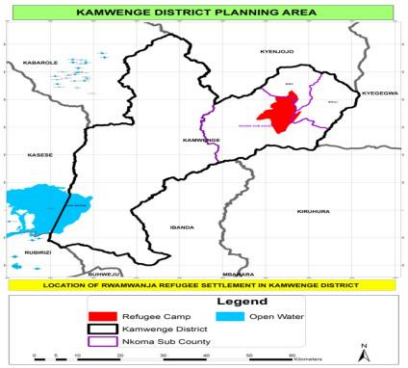
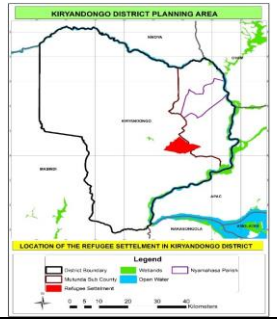
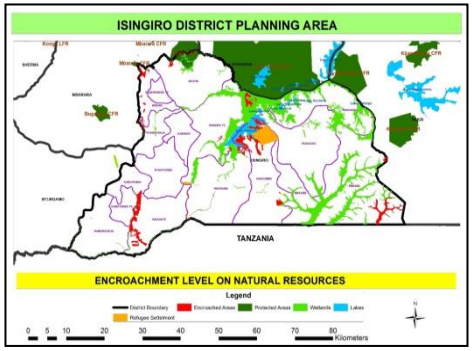
Majority of the refugees in Uganda were attracted to urban areas mainly due to existing opportunities there in such as trade, better services and the need to explore and utilize their skills to better their living standards. The prevailing poverty and poor living conditions in the refugee hosting communities forced many of them to find their way into the regional Cities/towns and other urban areas in search for better services. There was high poverty prevalence among refugees across all regions in the country where close to 70% were living below the national poverty standard. The regional comparisons indicated higher poverty levels in the West Nile region (74%) followed by South-Western and Mid-Western regions (60% and 59%) respectively.

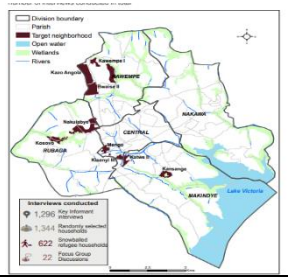
Other factors included the country's favorable refugee policies that provide and respect refugee rights in addition to the alignment of humanitarian response to key government sectoral priorities and policies under the different line MDAs. It was because of such initiatives that many of these refugees tend to leave their settlements and move to more urbanized areas within and outside their regions in search for better services.

13.4 Influence of urban refugees on the hosting communities

Urban refugees may be a burden to the local host communities but also a blessing in disguise, as they also tend to contribute to the local economy through different interventions that are accorded to them and by their own efforts. For instance, in some regions/towns they a great potential for skilled labor force, those engaged in self-sufficient activities not only contribute to the local revenue of the host urban community but also offer employment opportunities to the host urban community households, among others. The table below therefore highlights some cases of how these urban refugees' impact on the host urban communities;

Region/urban refuge settlement	Positive Impacts	Negative Impacts
South Western Region (Nakivale-Isingiro TC) Located in Isingiro Town Council hosting over 57,168 of the refugee population in the entire district (18%) and covering an area of 182km^2. It's the largest refugee settlement in the South Western region. *Major activities engaged in by refugees;* ❖ *Mainly subsistence agricultural farming.* ❖ *Livestock farming* in areas of *Masha, Ruborogota and Bukanga.* ❖ *Fishing activities on Lake Nakivale and Oruchinga.* ***Location of Nakivale Refuge settlement in Isingiro Town Council*** 	❖ Increased development funding to the refugee hosting district and urban council of Isingiro by UNHCR, government and the World Bank led to improvement in service delivery in areas of education and health. ❖ The presence of refugees resulted into the fast growth of trading centres around the refugee settlements which stimulated urbanization of the entire Town Council and the district at large. ❖ Increased food production led to food security within the refugee settlements and host communities. ❖ Self-employed refugees contributed greatly to the local economy of Isingiro Town Council. For instance, In Nakivale Refugee settlement, 35% of the refugees run their own business, which are a great source of revenue for the ULG. ***A bus company owned by a Somali Refugee in Nakivale refugee settlement- Isingiro Town Council*** 	❖ Environmental degradation resulting from tree cutting and clearing ecologically sensitive areas for cultivation, construction materials and energy source. ❖ Increased pressure on the few existing natural resources such as forest reserves and wetlands leading to climate change issues such as heavy rains, drought, prolonged dry spells among others. ❖ Proliferation of unplanned structures and development of slums within the refugee hosting Town Council. ❖ Poor Solid waste management which affects the sanitation conditions within the urban areas. ❖ Non- payment of rental dues for hired land by the refugees leading to conflicts of land ownership between the refugees and host communities ❖ The unclear boundaries of the refugee settlements result into encroachment on land for host communities creating tension amongst them. ❖ Increased traffic movement which has impacted negatively on the poor road network especially during the rainy season.
South Western (Rwamwanja in Nkoma - Kataryebwa TC) Has a refugee population of 78,102 (51% female 49% male) covering 15% of the total district population with area coverage of 77ha which is about 70% of the total area in the Town Council. *Major activities engaged in by refugees;* ❖ Mainly engaged in agricultural production, with 56% in farming, 18% in poultry, 5% in goat rearing while the rest are in gainful employment activities such as retail businesses among others.	❖ There was an increase in real income spillover to the local economy of the host urban council, resulting from the monthly cash allowances received by the refugees and in the long-run led to improvement in the living standards of the urban host and refugee population. ❖ The local host communities in Isingiro benefited from the integrated services provided by government and other humanitarian agencies to	

Region/urban refuge settlement	Positive Impacts	Negative Impacts
Location of the Refugee settlement area in Nkoma - Kataryebwa TC  **Mid-Western Region (Bweyale– TC)** Has a refugee population of 74,398 covering 27.74% of the total district population (268,188). The settlement is majorly in Bweyale Town Council, but also extending to Mutanda Sub County, covering an area of 42.5km^2. *Major activities engaged in by refugees;* ❖ Mainly engaged in subsistence agricultural production. ❖ Small scale businesses activities such as carpentry, food stuff selling, restaurants among others in areas such as Mulokonyi and Magamaga ***Location of Bweyale Refugee settlement in Bweyale Town Council***  **West Nile Region (Adjumani and Lamwo TCs)** There are no specific refugee settlements in Adjumani and Lamwo TCs, however there are urban refugees who just	refugees such as access to education and health for the children of the host communities within Nakivale refugee settlement. ❖ There is enhanced Socio-cultural exchanges and cohesion, from which skills and opportunities are shared between the locals and the urban refugees in these communities. ***One of the shops owned by a Somali Refugee in Kisenyi-Kampala*** 	***Level of encroachment on natural resources in Isingiro TC and other surrounding areas***  ❖ Prevalence of high HIV/AIDS rates among the refugees spreading to the host communities. ❖ High cost of living due to increased demand for local consumer products by refugees as they hold more money compared to the local host communities. ***One of the informal settlements hosting refugees in Kampala City (Kisenyi)*** 

Region/urban refuge settlement	Positive Impacts	Negative Impacts
migrate into these towns from the surrounding areas/refugee settlements within the districts, which hosts over 241,059 refugees on 66km^2 and 60,274 refugees on 15.67 km^2 respectively. Most of these migrate from the surrounding refugee settlements of; Nyumanzi, Maaji I, Maaji II, Pagirinya, Elema, Baratuku, Agojo, Baroli, Olua I, Oulua II, Ayilo I, Ayilo II Alere, Mungula I, Mungula II, Oliji and Palabek from Lamwo district. *Major activities engaged in by refugees;* ❖ *Mainly engaged in small scale retail businesses as a survival means.*		
Central Region (Kampala) Hosts almost 100,000 (6%) of the refugee population in Uganda, spread across refugee hosting neighborhoods such as Bwaise II, Kazo-Angola and Kosovo, Katwe II, Kansanga, Mengo, Nakulabye, Kawempe I and Kisenyi III. Majority are of Somali origin. It was difficult to estimate the area coverage of the refugee settlements because these were scattered across different settlements within the city suburbs. ***Location of the urban refugee settlements in the central region*** 		

Source: Ministry of Lands Housing and Urban Development-Physical Development Framework for Isingiro, Kamwenge, Lamwo, Kiryandongo and Adjumani Districts)

13.5 General Recommendations

- Urban authorities should be strengthened and encouraged to redesign their areas to practice inclusive urban planning and financing to ensure organized integration of refugees into the local communities.
- Government/urban authorities should consider undertaking land banking and land consolidation as options for availing adequate land for refugee settlements;
- Urban refugee hosting authorities should be supported with adequate programs and projects for enhancing local economic development;
- Urban refugee hosting communities should be prioritized in the allocation of national resources to support establishment of adequate functional social and economic infrastructure aimed at improving the quality-of-service provision and delivery to both the refugees and their host communities;
- Plan refugee settlements to be able to accommodate a bigger population of refugees in these settlements on relatively smaller parcels of land;
- Urban refugee hosting authorities should be supported with environmental programs and projects that allow for restoration of the natural environment and buffering of all other ecological zones soa as to reduce on encroachment and depletion of natural resources;
- There is need to conduct a mapping and assessment exercise on the national, regional, territorial, city and neighborhood level data on the current and projected population movements, including their impact on the functionality of urban systems and for economic, social and environmental development;
- Urban authorities in refugee hosting communities should be encouraged and supported to benchmark on the good practices for solid waste management at both local and international levels to deal with the challenge of solid waste as a result of the growing populations by both refugees and indigenous migrants;

Chapter Fourteen

14.0 Tourism, Culture and Heritage

14.1 Overview

The UNWTO defines urban tourism as a type of tourism activity which takes place in an urban space with its inherent attributes characterized by non-agricultural based economy. Urban tourism therefore may include but not limited to site seeing, visiting museums and art galleries, landscapes, attending theatres, concerts and special events, and traditional culture and heritage for leisure purposes. Urban areas therefore are an integral part of the contemporary activities that increase tourism and attract people. They offer a broad and heterogeneous range of cultural, architectural, technological, social and natural experiences and products for leisure and business. Hence, they are centers of control, interaction, creativity and enjoyment. The urban tourism and heritage sector provide numerous opportunities for both the public and private sector.

Uganda is one of the top tourism destinations in Africa with diverse components of tourism attractions ranging from wildlife, natural resources and cultural diversities, which gives many visitors a feel to experience Africa at its finest.

14.2 Current structure of the Urban Tourism sector in Uganda

The urban tourism sector is public led but majorly private sector driven with a number of private tourism providers being the main actors in the tourism value chain. These play a key role in mainly providing services for tourists such as transport, accommodation, catering, leisure activities, guided tours and basically entertainment. They manage the biggest section of marketing the destinations, establish partnerships with agencies in the source markets, acquire end customers, coordinate the booking process and finally implement the trip itself.

There are currently over 400 tour operators in Uganda, of which 80% are licensed members of the Association of Uganda Tour Operators (AUTO) mainly based in major urban centers/cities across the country. Majority of these are however small and medium-sized companies with local owners, and sometimes with foreign investors who enable them to benefit from access to capital, expertise and links to international markets. The private sector is divided into associations, including the following: Uganda Hotel Owners Association (UHOA), Association of Uganda Tour Operators (AUTO), The Ugandan Association of Travel Agents (TUGATA), Uganda Safari Guides Association (USAGA) and Uganda Community Tourism Association (UCOTA).

The above professional associations are, all members of an umbrella association called the Uganda Tourism Association (UTA), whose key role is to represent the tourism industry to the government and international organizations with a united voice, help with designing strategic interventions and then carry out lobbying and advocacy to assert the interests of the sector.

The public sector on the other hand through Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities (MTWA) undertakes policy formulation, strategic planning and coordination, while its agencies i.e., the Uganda Tourism Board (UTB) is the point of contact for product development, destination marketing, quality assurance as well as tourism research and investment. The Uganda Wildlife

Authority (UWA) is responsible for conserving and sustainably managing Uganda's protected areas and wildlife populations. The responsibility of skills development on the other hand is scattered and fragmented across different institutions in government and majorly private sector with institutions such as the Hotel and Tourism Training Institute (HTTI), Uganda Wildlife Training Institute (UWTI) among others.
At a local urban Government level, tourism management is at its infancy stage, and the MTWA is represented at this level through district/City Tourism Officers, and regional tourism destination clusters managed by both the public and private stakeholders jointly.

The Uganda Investment Authority (UIA) comes in as a key contact for foreign and local investors and entrepreneurs as a semi-autonomous government authority and agency for promoting investment which works in partnership with the private sector to drive national economic growth and development. The two sectors (private and public) through their sector associations and agencies enter into partnerships with international organizations, foreign associations and institutions and other partners which provide expert knowledge or other forms of support for the tourism sector.
The challenge with the above structure however is the lack of a clear focus and direction specific to the urban tourism environment, given that the sector lacks a focused strategy and action plan which coordinates activities at that level. Hence there is need to devise a mechanism for mainstreaming the urban component across the entire realm of structures or at regional or local cluster level, without duplicating responsibilities.

14.3 Contribution of urban tourism and cultural conservation to Uganda's economy

Tourism is one of the fastest growing service sectors for the socio-economic transformation of Uganda and the urban sector in particular. With careful planning and commitment of resources, the sector has a potential to greatly contribute to the strengthening of the fundamentals of the economy to enable the country harness her abundant opportunities. The significant contribution of tourism to the local urban economy was manifested in the following;

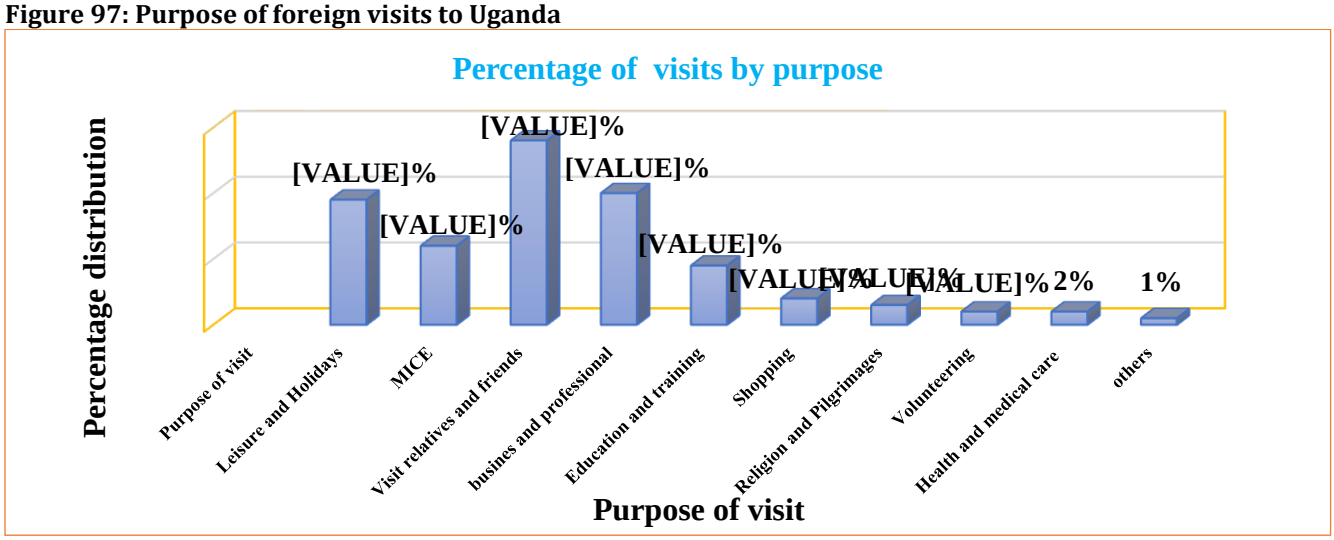
- ***Increase in Gross Domestic Product;*** In 2018/2019 the sector generally contributed a 7.75% increase to GDP, however this dropped down to 2.5% in 2020/2021 with the influence of the COVID'19 pandemics. The challenge however is that there was no documented evidence of the sector specific contribution to the urban economy.
- ***Widens the tax base of local urban economies:*** The direct outcome of increasing tourist visits is a widened tax base and tax receipts.
- ***Cultural and environmental preservation and conservation;*** Tourism in form of culture and heritage justifies the need for preservation of customs and other traditional cultural expressions, whilst also acting to conserve the natural environment by placing a higher economic value on its preservation.

14.4 Key findings on status of the urban tourism sector in Uganda

Over 1 million non-residents are attracted to Uganda each year for different reasons and about a half of these stay overnight in some of the cities and other urban segments of the country, thereby making a significant contribution to the urban regions of the country's local economy through their expenditure patterns on different products and services. Different visitors/tourists therefore visit the country for different purposes and according to the UBOS (2020) statistics,

28% of these come to visit friends and relatives, 20% are attracted for business and professional purposes, 19% attracted specifically for leisure and holiday purposes, and in addition to the 12% that visit for the MICE (Meetings, interventions, Conferences and Education), 3% of the tourists come for pilgrimage and religious purposes (figure 97).

Figure 97: Purpose of foreign visits to Uganda

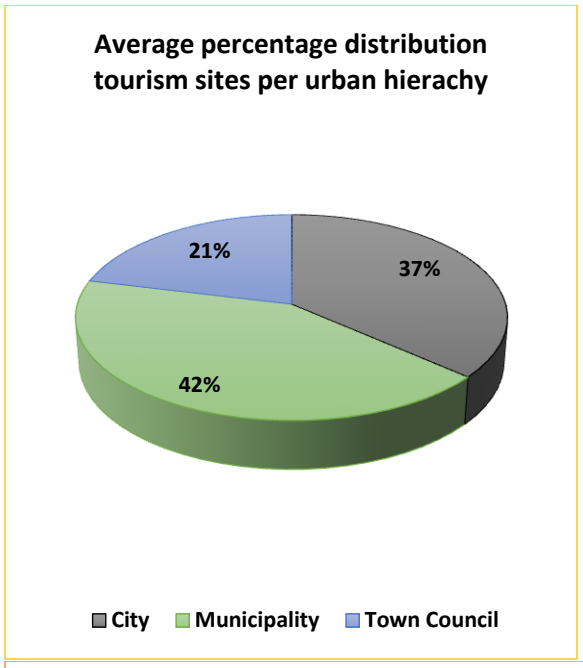


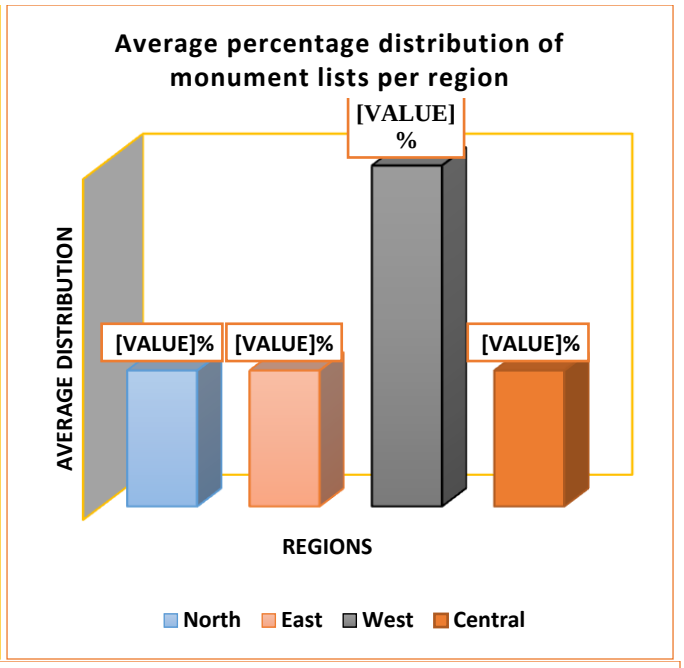
Source: ***Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2020***

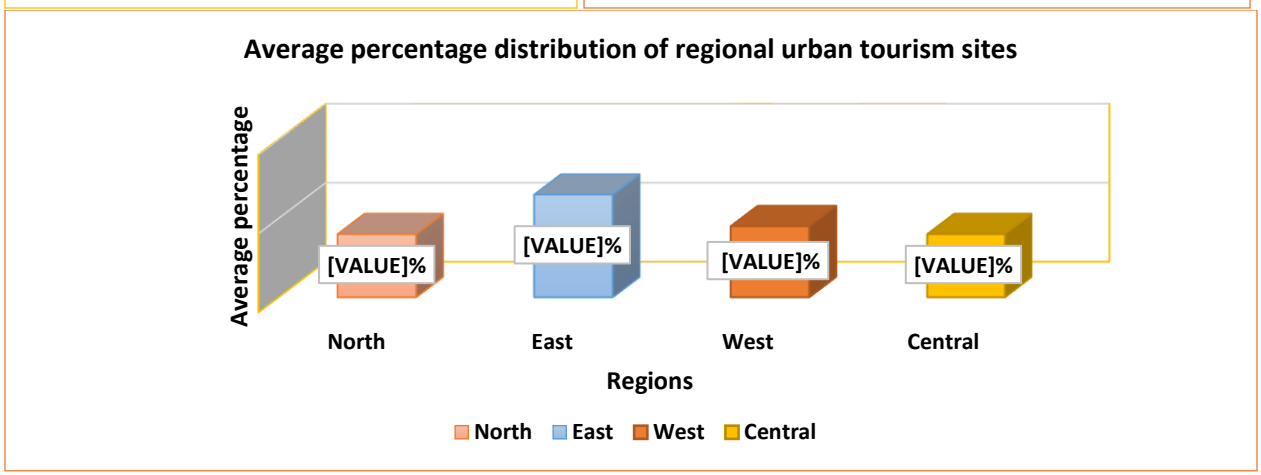
Majority of these activities actually take place within the urban precincts of the country. The above statistics are an indication that the sector is growing significantly, the challenge however is that Uganda's tourism sector, especially for urban still lags behind in terms of its regional competitiveness on the tourism market share when compared with its regional neighborhoods of Rwanda, Kenya and Tanzania. Yet with its huge diversity of nature, culture and tourism growth dynamism, it could offer ideal conditions for a strong urban tourism environment. This therefore calls for sustainable tourism sector planning and development through establishing a professional, regulated tourism sector that helps in creating jobs, increasing foreign currency income, improves urban livelihoods while preserving the natural and cultural urban resources.

14.5 Regional distribution of some of the major urban tourism sites and other urban recreation/enhancements identified during the survey

It was noted that Uganda is blessed with a blend of most scenic cities/towns with urban-based beautiful sceneries, cultures and other urban enhancements. City Tourism sites; this is an important aspect of urban tourism that reflects how nature rightfully blends with modernity. From the survey findings it was noted that there were more tourism sites in Municipalities (42%) followed by Cities (37%) and then Town Councils (21%). In terms of regional analysis, the Western region dominates the list of monuments and heritage sites at an average of 25% followed by the rest of the regions analyzed at an average of 10% respectively. However, there are more tourism sites in the Eastern region (13%) followed by the Western region at 9% and then the Northern and Central regions with the least at 8% respectively. The chart below indicates the regional representation of urban tourism attractions in Uganda.







Source: ***Field Survey findings***

From the above analysis, the regions which had the greatest potential of attracting tourists from the niche markets and which could help diversify Uganda's urban tourism offer are the East (North East and South East) and the Western (Rwenzori region/South western) regions. Jinja and Mountain Elgon are well placed to provide the starting point from the Eastern circuit, while the Rwenzori region already attracts a considerable number of tourists through Fort Portal and Kasese as the starting point of the western region circuit, as they offer a great potential for new business growth for the local urban inhabitants. However, in all regions the urban communities must offer cultural experiences that appeal to the growing demands of adventure travelers across the world to a greater understanding of the local urban lifestyle. This is because urban tourism is currently and globally one of the re-emerging leisure activities that are increasingly consuming urban spaces, more than any other economic activity.

14.6 Urban Tourism attractions established from the sampled urban councils in Uganda

Potential urban tourism attraction and heritage sites in Cities, Municipalities and Towns in Uganda include;

Urban council	Urban enhancement	Specific items
CENTRAL REGION		
Kampala Capital City	Tourism attractions and activities	Kabaka's lake, Kabaka's Palace, Independence monument, Bahai temple, Uganda museum, Namirembe cathedral, Old Kampala National Mosque, Namugongo Martyrs Shrine, The Royal Mile (Lubiri palace and Bulange parliament), Kasubi royal tombs, National theatre and craft village, Ndere cultural Centre, Nakasero Market, Rubaga Catholic Cathedral, Lake Victioria, Uganda Parliament, the first parliament of Uganda (LEGCO), Makerere University Ivory Tower, Golf course, Nakivubo War Memorial Stadium, Owino Market, Prime time venues and hotels
		
		Plate 16: Some of the tourism attractions in Kampala; The Independence monument, Bahai Temple, Kabaka's Place and Kabaka' Lake
Masaka City	Monument list	Administrative structures at Saza headquarters.
	Tourism attractions	Agricultural tourism; Demostration farms for coffee, and banana, Burial grounds for prominent personalities (Bishop Ddungu, Father Ngobya Burial site), Nabugabo sand beach, Conferences tourism, Hotels, Rare birds for example Snowbills, Statunga, 1st Catholic Church villa Maria. Ramzar City signed convention to protect wetlands of Nakaiba and Nabajuzi wetlands.
Makindye ssabagabo MC	Monument list	Mirimu Hill, Lusiiti cultural site, Kaazi Scout camping site.
	Tourism attractions	Bulingugwe Island, Busabala Landing site, Nakabugo Landing site, Lusiiti cultural site, Mirimu Hill, Kaazi National Scouts Camping and training center, Lake Victoria.
Kira MC	Monument list	Banda Palace
	Tourism attractions	Namboole football stadium, Namugongo martyrs shrine, Kabakas palace;
		
		Plate 17: Some of the tourism attractions in Kira Municipality; Namugongo

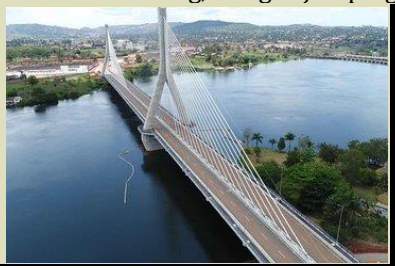
	Martyrs shrine and Kabaka's old Palace:	
EASTERN REGION		
Jinja City	Green space	Hajji tarmac open space
	Monument list	Busoga square, Mahatma Ghandi, Speke Monument
	Land scaped areas	Mpumudde hill, Masese hill, Musima, Igenge
	Tourism attractions and activities	Annual agricultural trade show, Source of the Nile development area, Samuka hill, Civil training school, Leisure parks, Uganda Crested Crane hotel and tourism training institution, Research and landscape education tourism, Itanda falls, Bujagali falls, Ssezibwa falls, Victoria Nile, Nile reptile park, White water rafting, Fishing on the Nile, Kayaking and Canoeing, Horseback riding, Bungee jumping, Nalubaale dam, Jinja bridge.  
Mbale City	Green space	Mbale clock tower at the city Centre connecting Kumi road, Bishop Wasike Palissa road and Republic Street.
	Tourism attractions	Imbalu cultural ceremony of the Bagisu tribe, Beautiful scenery of the world's largest Caldera host-Mt Elgon Largest producers of Arabic Coffee -"The Bugisu Coffee"
Soroti City	Green space	Pioneer public open space, Station Road open space
	Tourism attractions	Opiyai rock, Soroti flying school, Museum, Soroti university, Traditional food e.g Eboo
Tororo MC	Tourism attractions	Tororo rock, unique town encircled by forest and beautiful mango trees with streams, golf course, Mwero rock, traditional dances like Fumbo dance.
Iganga MC	Tourism attractions	Kigulu rocks, Nyenda hill
Kumi MC	Green space	Mayor's garden, forest reserves, civic green areas.
	Land scaped areas	Mayors garden and school compounds
	Tourism attractions	Lake Bisina ramza site for birds that can fly as far as Europe, Nyero rock painting, Tsai Island, Rich cultural dances (Akogo dances), Traditional food
WESTERN REGION		
Fort Portal Tourism City	Monument list	Indian buildings, Nyakasura School administrative block, Abwoolo-Malibo & Perez Kasoro.
	Tourism attractions	Amabeere ga Nyina Mwiru (Stalagmites and Stalactites), Rwenzori Mountain ranges, Queen Elizabeth National Park, Kibaale National Park, Hotels, Cultural centers, Tooro Kingdom palace, Karambi royal tombs, Events such as Empango, Annual sports gala, Motor rallies, River Mpanga, Nyakasura Water falls, Tooro Botanical Gardens, Crater Lakes (Saaka, Kigere), Min Amusement Park, Golf course, Agro tourism, Kiteere composite plant, The Virika Cathedral.

		  **Plate 18: Crater Lake and Stalagmites in Fort Portal City**
Mbarara City	Monument list	Biharwe Eclipse.
	Tourism attractions	Ankole cultural sites (Palace and burial grounds for the Ankole Kings), River Rwizi, Long horned cattle, Agro-tourism, Eshwabwe, Hotels, Igongo cultural Centre, Katete beach on River Rwizi, Kanyeite Water fall, Eco-tourism at Biharwe, medicinal plants.
Bushenyi MC	Tourism attractions	Rukarangwa Eco tourism, Kabafaranwe, Nyamzige, Kabagarame Pork market, Presidential initiative of Banana Industrial Development (PIBID).
Kyenjojo TC	Tourism attractions	Only hard rocks found at Katoosa catholic parish have been put under consideration to be developed as tourism site, Catholic Cathedral.
NORTHERN REGION		
Gulu City	Monument list	Elephant monument in front of Gulu main market
	Tourism attractions	Kerkalkwaro chieftainship, palace for Rwot, Gulu Gulu hill and valley in Kanyagoga Ward, burial ground for British soldiers during the Lamogi rebellion, traditional dance (raka raka).
Arua City	Green space	Golf course, mayor's garden
	Monument list	Lion monument at the entry of the town at the roundabout of Pakwach, Arua avenue and Oluko road
	Land scaped areas	Bamboo forest, Jili Jili forest, Arua CFR.
	Tourism attractions	Waterfall Abairo and Whaa in Ayivu division, Arua hill stadium in central division, museum in Ayivu division, Green Light Stadium for Onduparaka football club.
Lira City	Green space	Numa grounds, Golf course, monument built on the roundabout after the rebel massacre of civilians in Barlomyo camp, Obote monument in senior quarter, Independence monument in the coronation park
	Land scaped areas	Children's Park and the coronation park
	Tourism attractions	Obote monument, Ngeta hill, Akibua stadium, traditional food, cultural dance (Icoce dance)
Kitgum MC	Land scaped areas	Mayor's garden, Boma garden
Nebbi MC	Land scaped areas	Taxi Park area, in the golf course.
Pakwach TC	Tourism attractions	Albert Nile, the historical site of Gipir and Labongo, Eclipse site, Murchison fall game Park, the different fish species.

Source; ***Urban Study, 2022***

The potential of tourism attraction presented in the above table implies that Uganda remains relatively undiscovered as a tourism destination. Specifically, while tourism in the country has developed considerably overtime, the cities, municipalities and Town Councils on the other hand have not exploited the potential. Instead, they have only remained as a stopover for tourists moving to other towns and districts in spite of having untapped potentials for urban tourism for their local economic development. The focus should therefore target marketing these urban areas as potential tourism circuits.

14.7 Urban areas as a diversity of cultural heritage;

The Uganda National Cultural Policy (2019) defines culture as the sum total of the ways of living of a society transmitted from one generation to another, including how it preserves, identifies, organizes, sustains and expresses itself. It concerns itself with socially transmitted behavior patterns, habits, knowledge, beliefs, arts, morals, laws, customs, institutions and all other products of human work and thought, hence it influences people's views, values, humor, hopes, loyalties, norms and fears. Cultural heritage therefore includes tangible monuments, sites and objects and intangible traditions and living expressions inherited and passed on through the generations. These may include but not limited to oral traditions, practices, knowledge and festive events. Culture-based tourism ensures the continuity of traditions and lifestyles and therefore contributes to protection of cultural heritage. This is also intrinsically linked to how a city develops itself and provides more and better living conditions to its residents and visitors.

Urban areas change in public culture, architecture and design, education, urban planning, public and leisure parks among others, which result from the dramatic redevelopment of a city/town's Central Business District. Hence urban tourism increasingly generates images of heritage and identity that are consumed as much by visitors. This is because cities/towns are where tourism infrastructure and marketing are largely built up.

The diversity of cultural heritage as an aspect of urban tourism in Uganda is reflected in activities such as Cultural Site seeing, Art and Drama, Architecture (old architectural building structure), Amenities, Sceneries, Religious and pilgrimage tourism, Traditional markets (African market, Owino and Nakasero in Kampala), People, languages and tribes. With over 56 tribes, Uganda has a variety of cultures, languages and dialects (ateso, Luganda, Runyakitara, Langi, Acholi, Ngakaramojong etc), local cuisines (eshabwe, Marakwang, kalo etc), traditional clothing (Gomesi, bark cloth, busuuti etc), dances (Ekitaguriro, Baakisimba, Runyege, Kadodi, Bwola, Agwara, Ding-ding, Larakaraka etc), customs and beliefs (Embalu among the Bagisu, celebration of twins among Baganda and other tribes) that are attractive to explore and experience.

There are also urban festivals such as Nyegenyege which attracts foreigners from across the world with a few domestic residents every year in Jinja, the Rolex festival and other local cuisines fairs and exhibitions. All these are culturally interesting leisure activities that attract a number of both foreign and domestic tourists.

Plate 19: Some of the urban cultural tourism activities/items

14.8 Major issues affecting Uganda's urban tourism sector and cultural heritage

Limited integration of tourism planning and management in the urban local government structures; Much as Tourism development has become a national development agenda in the National strategic development Vision 2040 and the National Development Plan III, the idea had not yet been adequately decentralized as management responsibilities are dispersed across many government departments and agencies, leading to overlaps. The local governments who are the key and final implementers of government priorities at both regional and local levels had not yet embraced the sector. It was therefore noted that the sector was being poorly coordinated and managed with no clear technical leadership and governance structure to prioritize activities at that level. It was sought out necessary that these are re-oriented and facilitated to fully take charge and own the sector since it contributes tremendously to the local urban economy.

Underdeveloped urban tourism attractions and activities; majority of the tourist attractions and activities were located outside the urban precinct, while the few within the urban zones were undeveloped with either limited access or underserved with inadequate support facilities such as accommodation among other infrastructure. The urban tourism product range was constricted/thin and largely concentrated on faith and recreation tourism. The cultural and historical heritage facilities/resources were in a sorry state, poorly managed and underserved with no quality inclusive infrastructure, while others had been neglected to slowly tare away. The water-based tourism resources were still underdeveloped and had been largely encroached on with other non-recreational activities such as fishing and other unplanned developments, among others. The entertainment sector was largely dominated by unprofessional and sub-standardized activities, in addition to the entire urban tourism product being delivered with unprofessional service providers who were inefficient and ineffective, all together making the urban tourism product very expensive.

Limited urban tourism funding and investment; a sustained growth of the urban tourism sector is wholly dependent on the adequate level of funding for the various tourism strategies and programs. However, the funding arrangements for the urban tourism sector for the year under review were inadequate given the responsibilities and activities to be fulfilled. The tourism sector was majorly funded by the government and development partners however government funding had been limited due to budgetary constraints and donor funding being based on short term programs. There were no any incentives for people interested in developing specific urban tourism products; there were some work plans and budgets identified in the sector development plans for tourism product development at national level, however these were also inadequate compared to the number of activities/infrastructure requirements needed to be implemented. At urban authority level, there were no specific budgets/funding gazzated for the development of the tourism products. This is because urban councils are characterised with limited revenue and central government funding to these authorities is conditional making funding to the sector almost unattainable.

Inadequate urban tourism marketing and promotional activities; The urban tourism sector was characterised with a weak market segmentation and targeted destination marketing for both domestic and inbound markets. It was noted that there were limited efforts for promoting domestic tourism characterized with the lack of a comprehensive urban tourism specific

marketing strategy. Inadequate supply of promotional materials at local urban governments and other MDAs responsible for tourism promotion resulting in very limited awareness of the potential that lies in the urban tourism segment. Unlike her neighbouring regional competitors (Rwanda, Kenya and Tanzania), Uganda's urban tourism destination marketing and promotion was characterized with no funding right from the national level and hence a lack of a clear target funding strategy for marketing the sector activities. It was noted that existing funding options are generalized and hence very limited to support urban tourism marketing and promotion. The lack of brand consistency further undermined the marketing efforts especially for online marketing (i.e. some use "Pearl of Africa" others use "Gifted by nature") hence a lack of a clearly agreed upon marketing brand and strategy for positioning the urban tourism activities.

Limited skills and human resource capacity; Uganda's urban tourism sector is faced with challenges of limited knowledge and manpower in terms of quality and quantity. Little is known about the existing inventory of skills by value chain nodes as well as the skills requirements for each tourism management and regulation of value chain actor in the sector. This is majorly because the sector is largely dominated by small and medium enterprises, and in some instances, family-owned businesses employing unskilled family members and friends at low-cost payment there by compromising the quality of visitor experiences and the ability to meet their expectations. The sector lacks serious professional trainings which compromises the level of skills development in the entire value chain of tourism management at technical, managerial and operational levels in both government and private sector. The existing tourism training institutions (Hotel and Tourism Training Institute and the Uganda Wildlife Training Institute) are underfunded and ill-equipped with the necessary training materials for producing quality and professional candidates for the sector, this is in addition to the fragmented system of tourism education and training across a multiplicity of sector stakeholders, and the high staff turnover due to poor working conditions. As a result, there is a correlation between shortage of skilled human resources and the capacity to attract significant investments that could stimulate the competitiveness, productivity and sustainability of the sector.

Weak regulatory frameworks: The urban sector tourism was characterized with weak regulations which undermined the standards and quality of services that put Uganda at great disadvantage against her regional competitors, and also weakened her potential to steer development. There was also a generally insufficient coordination among the tourism sector governing institutions and agencies which resulted into uncoordinated planning and development of the sector. This was further undermined by limited enforcement of the existing regulations and other sector governing frameworks.

Limited reliable, consistent and appropriate statistical information on the tourism sector in Uganda; i.e. data on the tourism market targets, statistical significance of existing information and problems in data quality, Inadequate detailed and robust information on the economic impacts of tourism, limited and unreliable information on tourism and tourism-related businesses, limited research studies on the sector to ascertain its viability on a regular basis, and weak enforcement of the regulations with regards to data provision by the tourism service providers in the urban segment.

Poor Infrastructure development; it was noted that Uganda's urban areas are characterized with poor road networks especially those leading to the tour sites. The major highways to some of the sites (e.g., Namugongo shrines) are narrow, hence unable to accommodate the traffic during their peak seasons. the accommodation and tourist facilities are undermined by quality and standards with limited support services such as adequate energy supply, parking space, water and ICT resources. Uganda has only one well-maintained international airport (Entebbe) with a few other airstrips close to some of the tourism cities/towns. These are inadequate to facilitate such a growing sector. Most of the support infrastructure is dominated by private sector players who compromise maintenance at the expense of making more returns, hence the need for more regulations and enforcement of guidelines and standards related to the sector. Much as some towns are relatively well endowed with accommodation facilities at the high end, (especially in the major conurbations such as Kampala and Entebbe), the occupancy rates are limited due to inadequate bed numbers. This is in addition to the limited mid-market accommodation, hence more demand for good quality accommodation facilities especially closer to the urban tourism destinations.

2020 COVID'19 Pandemic; the COVID'19 outbreaks in March 2020, registered a 72.7% decline in tourism earnings and the urban sector was the most hit due to its characteristic of hosting large population numbers and many urban tourist attractions and heritage sites. The increased cases in Uganda's major tourism source markets (Europe, and North America) led to cancellation of many tour trips to Uganda which resulted into a drastic decline in number of tourists coming to the country and hence many tourisms related businesses came to the verge of closing with many of them that failed to pick up. By end of December 2020, the country lost close to 1 million foreign tourist arrivals which translated to a loss in foreign exchange of about UGX 3.91 trillion (US$ 1.06 billion). MICE tourism was greatly affected due to cancellation of all international conferences that were to be hosted in the country in an effort to minimize the importation of the virus. 7/10 jobs in the tourism sector were lost contributing to the growing numbers of persistent urban unemployment. 45.3% of these were lost in the Tour and Travel agents' business (MTWA, 2020). Therefore, there should be a focus on designing and implementing a comprehensive tourism recovery plan to guide sector action planning.

Stiff competition with other regional urban tourism markets e.g., Rwanda, Kenya and Tanzania; these offer most competitive tourism products such as those in Uganda, provided with more enhanced quality of services and infrastructure, in addition to more aggressive marketing techniques.

14.9 Key aspects to consider when boasting urban tourism in Uganda

- Develop and implement a National Urban Tourism Planning and Management Committee to coordinate the mainstreaming of urban specific issues/plans related to the sector at both local and regional level into national planning frameworks.
- It is critical that tourism activities are prioritized and integrated into the urban physical and economic development plans for the respective urban authorities/entities as a strategy for implementing the national priorities and interventions under this sector.
- Design and implement an Urban Tourism Information and Management system that is consistently updated with reliable and credible data and accurate, authentic and

standardized information for an exceptional tour experience. This will also help in easily monitoring the performance of the sector and designing interventions for sustainability and improvement.

- Design and develop the GKMA region as a model service hub for urban tourism in Uganda;
- Advocate for general improvement of the attractiveness of the cities/urban areas through; Protecting and conserving amenities that make the urban entity unique and distinctive; Prioritizing activities that yield greater tourism benefits; Integrating tourism in the potential urban authority's vision; Identify opportunities for ongoing improvements to the tourism assets of the urban council, e.g. historic buildings and streetscapes, festivals, exhibitions, public art, open spaces, among others
- Quality Urban Infrastructure Development and improvement in terms of a transport network (roads, air water and railway transport), hospitality facilities (accommodation facilities, restaurants) and other support services and infrastructure such as power, water, internet, signage and information centers.
- The need for sustainable conservation of urban natural and cultural heritages resources through the review of the Historical Monuments Act which to address its weakness and offer proper protection of cultural and historical resources. The regulatory frameworks should be enhanced against vandalism of these, prevention of illicit trafficking of antiques and encroachment on cultural resources.
- Product development and diversification of urban tourism through understanding the key constraints and design criteria that need to be considered when developing concepts, ideas, plans and proposals for urban tourism sites within a given urban entity based on their unique characteristics and regional advantage, and then design strategies for improving the branding, packaging and financing.
- It is important to stimulate growth in the urban tourism sector through amending policy and regulatory frame frameworks for financing the sector, exploring public private partnerships to finance tourism programs and events, and also institute a tourism levy at local urban council level for financial self-sufficiency and sustainability.
- Promote domestic and regional urban tourism to withstand negative such health and other economic externalities which have enormous effects of relying on foreign tourists. The government can support this path by providing incentives for the local urban tourism operators to increase investments into the sector.

Appendices

Appendix *1:* References

1. *African Nature based Tourism platform; Uganda Country summary Report, 2022*
2. *Analysis of the Tourism Value Chain in Uganda; Commissioned by the Centre for Promotion of Imports from developing countries (CBI). Acorn Tourism Consulting Ltd May 2020*
3. *Asian Development Bank, Competitive Cities.*
4. *Avis W. R (2016), Urban governance, University of Birmingham.*
5. *Better Growth, Better Cities. Achieving Uganda's Development Ambition. A paper by the Government of Uganda and the New Climate Economy Partnership, November 2016.*
6. *Brian Makabayi and Moses Musinguzi; Issue 1, 2015; To What Extent Have the Existing Land Tenure Systems Affected Urban Land Development.*
7. *Constitution of the Republic of Uganda, 1995.*
8. *Damaris Kathini Muinde (2013), assessing the effects of land tenure on urban development, Kampala.*
9. *Deep Dive into Crime in Uganda 2020 (Hill Publications).*
10. *Economic and Statistical Analysis of Tourism in Uganda, World Bank Group, 2013*
11. *Enhancing urban safety and security (2007)-UN -Habitat.*
12. *Esther Obaikol - LANDnet Uganda; 2017.Urban Land Use Planning and Development. The Land Governance Assessment Framework Technical Expert Report Uganda. LGAF Uganda Series 003.*
13. *Global Business Network program; Partnership ready Uganda: Tourism*
14. *GOU, Background to the Budget, 2019/2020 and 2020/2021.*
15. *GOU, Better Growth, Better Cities, Achieving Uganda's Development Ambition, 2016.*
16. *GOU, National Development Plan III.*
17. *GOU, Planning for Uganda's Urbanisation.*
18. *GOU, Uganda Vision 2040.*
19. *Governing Safer Cities: Strategies for a Globalized World, A Framework to Guide Urban Policy-Makers and Practitioners (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime-UNODC).*
20. *Historical Monument Act, 1967.*
21. *https://eastnews.co.ug/investigation-security-on-spot-over-increasing-criminality-in-mbale-city/*
22. *https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/book/10.18111/9789284422012 - Tuesday, August 23, 2022 1:57:31 AM - IP Address:41.210.145.140*
23. *https://www.independent.co.ug/mbarara-tops-with-murder-cases/*
24. *Initiative for Social and Economic Rights (ISER), June 2018; Citizen Participation in Local Government Service Delivery Processes in Uganda.*
25. *Jockey b. Nyakaana (2016), solid waste management in urban centers, Kampala city (Uganda).*
26. *Kampala Capital City Authority (KCCA) Act (2010).*
27. *London School of Economics' working paper on Cities, Terrorism and Urban Wars of the 21st Century-Crisis States Research Centre.*
28. *MLHUD Statistical Abstract. Vol 1 December 2010 and 2015.*
29. *MLHUD, 2022; Progress Report on Systematic Land Adjudication and Certification (SLAAC) in the Refugee Hosting Districts (RHDs).*
30. *MLHUD, 2022; Status Report on Support to MZOs in Creation and Use of Databases. Systematic Land Adjudication and Certification (SLAAC) in the Refugee Hosting Districts (RHDs).*
31. *MLHUD, ADB and Korea Africa Economic Cooperation Trust Fund, 2016. Site Selection of New Towns for Greater Kampala Metropolitan Area (GKMA). Final Report 2016.*
32. *MLHUD, November 2014. Habitat III National Report.*
33. *MLHUD; Physical Development Framework Reports for Isingiro, Kamwenge, Lamwo, Kiryandongo and Adjumani Districts), 2019.*
34. *National Agriculture Policy, 2013.*

35. *National census main report (2013).*
36. *National Forestry and Tree Planting Act, 2003.*
37. *National Local Economic Development Policy (LED) (2014).*
38. *National Policy for Conservation and Management of Wetland Resources, 1995.*
39. *National Population Policy (NPP) (2008).*
40. *National population projection (2015-2020,) Uganda Bureau of Statistics.*
41. *National Slum upgrading strategy and Action Plan, 2008.*
42. *National urban policy (2017).*
43. *NDPIII Tourism Development Programmed Implementation Action Plan, October 2020.*
44. *Planning for Uganda's Urbanization; Inclusive Growth Policy Note 4; prepared by Somik Lall drawing on inputs from the Inclusive growth team including Martin Onyach-Olaa (AFTUW), Frank Byamugisha (AFTAR), and Clarence Tsimponkenge (AFTP2).*
45. *Policy Paper on Enhancing Competitiveness in Uganda's Tourism Sector for Growth and Employment, by National Planning Authority-October 2013.*
46. *Preparation of Expressway Development Master Plan (EDMP) for Uganda. Volume 8. Land Use Report*
47. *Professor (em), Dr. Uno svedin Senior research fellow, Stockholm university, Urban development and the environmental challenges" green" systems considerations.*
48. *Public Health Act, Cap 281.*
49. *Public Private Partnership Policy (PPP) (2010).*
50. *Rasmus Hundsbæk Pedersen, Rachel Spichiger, Sarah Alobo and Michael Kidoido, with the collaboration of Bernard Bashaasha and Helle Munk Ravnborg; 2012. Land Tenure and Economic Activities in Uganda: a Literature Review. DIIS Working Paper 2012:1.3*
51. *Refugee Regulations 2010.*
52. *Refugee Self-Reliance and the Global Compact on Refugees: Unpacking Barriers and Opportunities for Success, December 2021(University of Oxford-Refugee Study Center).*
53. *Reviewing Uganda's Tourism Sector for Economic and Social Upgrading, by Economic Policy Research Centre. RESEARCH SERIES No. 91 by Francis Mwaura and Solomon Ssekitoleko June 2012.*
54. *Road Act 2019.*
55. *Tapping into The Unsung Potential of Tourist Attractions for Development in Selected Municipalities in Uganda, Journal of Sustainable Tourism IX by Charles Tushabomwe-Kazooba et al.*
56. *Tenure Responsive Land Use Planning; A Guide for Country Level Implementation. United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat), 2016; HS Number: HS/075/16E.*
57. *The Decentralization Policy (1997).*
58. *The impact of COVID 19 on the Tourism Sector in Uganda, Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities, July 2020.*
59. *The Inland Water Transport Act (2021).*
60. *The Kampala City Festival and its Impact on the Development of Tourism in Uganda; Journal of Tourism Research & Hospitality.*
61. *The Land Act (CAP 227).*
62. *The Local Government Act (CAP 243).*
63. *The National Environment Act (CAP 153) (Amended 2020).*
64. *The National Environment Management Policy for Uganda, 2014.*
65. *The National Land Use Policy; 2006.*
66. *The New Urban Agenda-NUA of Habitat III.*
67. *The Physical Planning Act, 2010.*
68. *The Public Finance and Management Act, 2015.*
69. *The Uganda National Land Policy, 2013.*
70. *The UN-driven 2030 Sustainable Development Goals-SDGs.*

71. *Thierry Ngoga Hoza; January 2018. Land tenure considerations for neighbourhood planning; Working paper C-43418-UGA-1.*
72. *Tourism Development in Uganda: A Roadmap for The Embassy of the Kingdom of the Netherlands in Uganda, 2019.*
73. *Tourism policy (2014).*
74. *Tourism Sector Development Plan 2015/16 – 2019/20; Ministry of Tourism Wildlife and Antiquities, April 2015*
75. *UBOS, Uganda Manpower Survey Report, 2016/ 2017.*
76. *UBOS, Uganda National Labour Force Survey, 2016/2017.*
77. *Uchida, H., and A. Nelson. (2008). Agglomeration index: Towards a new measure of urban concentration. Background paper to World Development Report 2009: Reshaping economic geography. Washington, DC: World Bank.*
78. *Uganda Bureau of Statistics UBOS, 2014.*
79. *Uganda Bureau of Statistics; National Governance Peace and Security Survey 2017 Baseline Survey of Perceptions on Violence Against Women, Women's Economic Empowerment and Women's Political Participation and Leadership.*
80. *Uganda Business Impact Survey 2020; United Capital Development Fund (UCDF) and College of Business and Management Sciences of Makerere University.*
81. *UGANDA NATIONAL CULTURE POLICY Reviewed 2019, Ministry of Gender Labour and Social Development*
82. *Uganda National Housing Policy, 2016.*
83. *Uganda National Urban Policy (2017).*
84. *Uganda Police Report on Crime, 2020.*
85. *Uganda Refugee Act 2006.*
86. *Uganda Tourism Development Master Plan 2014 - 2024*
87. *Understanding the needs of urban refugees and host communities residing in vulnerable neighborhoods of Kampala; A multisector analysis of the dynamics of supply and access to basic services in nine vulnerable urban settlements Kampala, Uganda, July 2018.*
88. *UNDP, An ABC of Industrialisation in Uganda; Achievements, Bottlenecks and Challenges, 2017.*
89. *UNHCR report on Global Trends on forced displacement in 2020.*
90. *United Nations Human Settlements Programme (Un-Habitat) Support to Sustainable Urban Development in Uganda - Country Programme Document 2016 – 2021.*
91. *United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat), 2012. Uganda National urban Profile.*
92. *United Nations Human Settlements Programme, 2017. Human Rights in Cities Handbook; Volume 1- The Human Rights-Based Approach to Housing and Slum Upgrading.*
93. *UNWTO Recommendations on Urban Tourism*
94. *Urban Refugee; How Cities Are Building Inclusive Communities.*
95. *USAID Country Profile; Property Rights & Resource Governance in Uganda*
96. *USAID, Estimating District GDP in Uganda, 2017.*
97. *Violence against Women and Girls, Infrastructure and Cities-Briefing Paper by ICED, 2017.*
98. *Wakiso District Investment Profile, 2018.*
99. *Wakiso District Physical Development Plan, 2018*
100. *Water Act, Cap 152*
101. *Website: www.unhabitat.org.*
102. *West Nile Region, Uganda - Integrated and Multi Scalar Planning-Koboko, Arua, Nebbi.*
103. *William cobbett (2016), Cities alliance, Cities without slums (ARUP).*
104. *World Bank (2016); Report on Assessment of Uganda's Progressive Approach to Refugee Management.*
105. *World Bank Group, September 2017. From Regulators to Enablers: The Role of City Governments in Economic Development of Greater Kampala.*

106. *World Bank Report on informing the Refugee response policy in Uganda, 2018*
107. *World Bank, Competitive Cities for Jobs and Growth, 2015.*
108. *World Bank, The Role of City Governments in Economic Development of Greater Kampala, 2017USAID, Estimating District GDP in Uganda, 2017.*
109. *World Bank, The Role of City Governments in Economic Development of Greater Kampala, 2017.*
110. *World Bank, Uganda Economic Update, 2020.*
111. *World Cities Report 2020 - The Value of Sustainable Urbanization. United Nations Human Settlement.*
112. *World Development Report (2009), Reshaping Economic Geography 1.*
113. *World Economic Forum, The Competitiveness of Cities, 2014.*
114. *World Food Program survey on the Analysis of refugee vulnerability in Uganda, 2021.*
115. *Zuhal karakayaci (2016) vol. 9 issue 45, the concept of urban sprawl and its causes.*

Appendix 2: History of urbanization in Uganda

Pre-colonial

In precolonial times, societies in Uganda were organized around tribal kingdoms and it is from these that early urban centres in the country were initiated. Away from the coast, there were a number of organized concentrations of huts which surrounded the headquarters of hereditary chiefs north and west of Lake Victoria which bore resemblance to the permanent urban centres as we know them today. They were mobile in site until the end of the 19th century and claimed a stability of function. Although there has been some denial that these places were urban areas on the grounds that they did not contain people with specialized occupations, they did give the nature of administration and public service provide that appeared as occupational specializations. It is this historical tradition of a centralized administrative hierarchy existing in a non-colonial setting that has had an important effect upon the morphology of Kampala - Mengo, Fort Portal - Kabarole, Hoima – Bunyoro, Mbarara - Kamukuzi and Bugembe - Jinja. It seems reasonable therefore to consider the royal capitals of the Kingdoms of Buganda, Bunyoro, Ankole, Toro and Busoga as having some elements of an urban character. One might even postulate that some of the duality between traditional focus and a central government on the pre-colonial urban timeline lies at the root of much of the present complexity of the urban scene, and with it many of the current planning and governance problems in the country and, most importantly, in Kampala City (Twaddle 1966).

Colonial

In the 1890s, Uganda experienced the first significant contact with colonial settlers and administration. The British Crown took over the administration of Uganda from the private International British East Africa Company. With the advent of British colonialism, the mode of production was increasingly supplemented by the production of agricultural commodities for foreign exchange. This resulted in the development of small-scale commercial agriculture, plantation systems, a little mining, limited industrialization and a dynamic process of urbanization, intended to serve the purpose of helping to maintain expanding levels of production. Uganda's economy throughout the 1960s was conditioned by the demands of the external world market. Agricultural commodities such as coffee, cotton and tea accounted for 80 % of the exports. Economic growth as measured by changes in Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was more closely linked to external commodity prices and the vagaries of weather. Agriculture accounted for 25 % of GDP and the subsistence or nonmonetary sector a further 30 %, making a total of 55%. Generally, Uganda continued in a steady though relatively simple economic expansion through most of the 1960s. Mining, manufacturing, construction and electricity was however little developed and contributed only 10 % to the GDP. Key sectors of the economy lacked interdependence and were under aliens. The Asian Community dominated the commercial sector it controlled over 80 % of the wholesale trade in 1960 (Edward A. Mugabi).

As new areas were brought under European administration, headquarters were set up which were the origin of many of the larger towns of today. This era (1900-62) was purposely for settlement stabilization, fixation and pseudo-planning by the British colonialists and is the period that defined Uganda's urban spatial and development pattern. It was associated with the building of the Uganda Railway. The railway line accelerated growth of urban centres such as Tororo, Kasese and Gulu. To ensure that the railroad paid, the colonialists encouraged settlement fixation and stabilization so that urban areas could serve as;

- Centres of commerce and collection centres for rural agricultural commodities;
- Administrative centres in various parts of the country to stabilize most settlements; and
- Trading centres, which later attracted a large Asian population, a remnant of the Indian coolies involved in the building of the Uganda Railway.

There was a sequence of town plans for the country given in Kendall (1955) and Temple (1969, 1963). Specific planning attention was given to Kampala, as the largest and geographically most complex of the country's urban centres. Similar planning efforts spread to Jinja, Entebbe and a few district towns of Arua, Tororo, Mbale, Masaka, Fort Portal, Gulu, Mubende, Mukono, Mpigi, Mityana, Kitgum and Bombo.

Post-Colonial

During the first independent government of Obote, the dominant incipient enterprising commercial group was the European Asian commercial traders. A concentrated and polarized pattern, with the major towns of Kampala and Jinja dominating, was consolidated. Urban development was conditioned by the incorporation of Kampala and Jinja

into the capitalist mode of production. A chain of cores and peripheries stretching from the world metropolitan centres to national, regional and local peripheries, down to the lowest level of the structure involving the most isolated peasant farmer or agricultural worker could be envisaged. There existed the dependent economy through principally a process of unequal exchange, and to expand the market for goods and services produced in the home countries of the western world. In the interests of mobilizing surpluses many of today's large towns developed as locations from which surpluses could be diverted in the colonial period. The role of large centres, medium centers and small centres in Uganda as accumulation and service centres was therefore established.

Main Centres

i. Kampala

The urban pattern of Uganda became a concentrated and polarized one a typical example of a core periphery relationship giving birth to the primacy of Kampala. Kampala and the Lake Victoria basin in the south and south east became the zone with the greatest degree of urban development. The basin was the most integrated with the capitalist mode of production and the world economy. This area was privileged during the colonial period and during the post-colonial - Obote government. Cash crop production and processing are concentrated here. From the Lake Victoria basin, the country realized the greater part of Uganda's agriculture export products and the lake zone became the concentration of income that was far above average. Crudely, Uganda can be divided into a rich south and a poor north. This 'north south' division is also evident in industry. Manufacturing in Uganda was and is still on modest consumer goods industry. Almost all the establishments are based on domestic raw materials and agricultural products: sugar industry, tobacco processing, textiles, oil mills processing cotton seed, beverages and food processing. These establishments were and are majorly concentrated in the south and south east.

The particular importance of Kampala arose also partly from a political pattern. Though originally the site of the palace of the king of Buganda, it grew more as a commanding centre during the colonial period through which the development of natural resources could be directed. Most of the towns of Uganda were established as administrative centres to help in channeling the flow of commodities and surpluses towards the capital and other world ports. The significance of the towns as localities for assisting in exports worked equally well in reverse regarding imports. A hierarchy of urban places can hence be identified, with the large centres particularly the national capital acting as the central collecting places for exports and distributing centres for imports. These roles were duplicated in varying degrees in the medium and small centres. The medium centres took on an 'intermediary' servicing role while the small centres were 'trading centres' for the mass of the peasantry.

Throughout the colonial period and the Obote government, Kampala played a crucial role in accumulation by providing both the institutional framework and the locus operandi for transnational exchange. Increasingly Kampala came to act as a central place. It was directly linked by road and rail to extractive zones of agriculture and mineral production. Still today, it stands out as the largest in terms of population and economic activities. Its commercial life depends as much on wholesale trade and on the head offices of banks, insurance companies and international trading firms, as on retail trade. Manufacturing in the city is fairly diverse. There is a large hospital, a university and offices of many of the government ministries to which are added the national parliament, the headquarters of political parties and numerous foreign embassies.

ii. Jinja

Jinja was the other large centre. The Jinja site was important for transport at first. The establishment of a lake steamer from Kisumu in Kenya preceded the opening of the British administrative headquarters at Jinja in 1901. A direct rail connection was completed in 1928. With the transport advantage, Jinja was, for many years, the administrative centre for Eastern Uganda. Through the 1950s and early 1960s it grew more as an industrial centre. The argument often advanced is that industries grew in Jinja as a result of the stimulus provided by the production of hydroelectricity. There is some evidence however, to show that in certain cases, notably that of the steel rolling mill, the decisive locational factors are much more a matter of government policy, administrative convenience and financial circumstances than geography.

Other policies adopted, in particular import substitution, helped consolidate further the importance of the above large centres. Most of the industrial establishments that developed in Jinja in the 1960s were promoted and largely financed by the state through its parastatal, the Uganda Development Corporation (UDC). This urbanity location also

encompassed Njeru that accommodated developments such as the Owen Falls Dam, a textile mill, a brewery and the extensive housing area.

Medium sized Centres

The medium sized centres of Mbale, Entebbe, Gulu, Mbarara, Tororo, Masaka, Soroti and Arua grew more as 'intermediaries'. They were not intermediary in the sense that they were capable of raising the attraction threshold of other regions which could support considerable local activity and generate investable surpluses but were intermediary collecting centres of agricultural crops and distributing centres of imported manufactured goods. Indeed in these towns, the transport service is a generally more important function than industry. Some of these medium towns had rail stations but most have bus and truck stations and garages. It is interesting to note further that it is this category of towns that is more evenly distributed, reflecting their particular importance as administrative and service centres.

Few of the medium centres offer any major source of non-agricultural employment apart from trade besides Tororo. Tororo, founded as a district administration centre in 1928, later put on an industrial coating with the discovery of phosphates for making fertilizers and limestone for cement production. Hence Tororo in addition to Jinja can be termed as industrial towns in the sense that a substantial proportion of their working population and area is related to factories.

Most of the jobs in the medium centres were connected with government activities and it is in such centres that the bureaucratic salariat was concentrated outside the larger towns. Entebbe was the seat of the colonial administration and it still depends for its existence on government ministries and departments which remain there together with Uganda's international airport.

Mbale, for much of the 1960s, was the regional headquarters of Eastern Uganda. Gulu, established in 1910, was, in the 1960s, the administrative headquarters of Northern Uganda. Soroti was the administrative headquarters of Teso district, Arua of West Nile district, Masaka of Masaka district and Mbarara of Ankole district. The few activities which are not directly related to government like retail and wholesale shops were filled by the Asians, particularly in the south and south east.

Small Centres

It is in the smaller centres, particularly in the south, that much of the African enterprise developed. It is in the small centres that town and countryside meet. The bureaucratic salariat, comprising in this case of clerks, teachers and local administrator, are less removed from the peasants in the smaller towns. Most of the small centres are found in the more affluent south.

Elsewhere in the country they have developed more as district administration centres or as administration centres for counties and sub counties. These centres act as local markets or collecting points for the produce of local farms destined for consumption within the region in which they are situated. They also act as collection centres for exported produce; the beginning of a chain of movement from the farm to an overseas consumer, and provide consumer goods for the locals.

Mining and Quarrying Centres

Mining and quarrying centres and establishments for the processing of agricultural products are limited in their choice of location to a great extent by natural location factors. It is these branches of industry that constitute the major part of the enterprises established in other parts of the country. Mining in Uganda was mainly concentrated on copper at Kilembe with Kilembe as the only town in Uganda which assumed a specialized function. Tororo industrial center emerged with the discovery of phosphates for making fertilizers and limestone for cement production. Also outside the lake zone there were a certain number of saw mills and structural clay establishments. The saw mills distribution corresponded to the location of forest reserves, and most of these were in western Uganda. On the other hand, the majority of the coffee establishments, cotton grinderies and factories are in the lake zone, though they were far more evenly distributed over the entire area than the enterprises of manufacturing. The above points to the fact that the large towns were deeply anchored in the economic base, as they are in the lake zone. The main commercial and exchange activities was based in these large towns.

The Military State, the Economy and 'Changing' Urban Composition

The military in the 1970s were radical. They effected profound economic and political changes. In the interests of 'Ugandanizing' the economy, an 'economic war' was declared in 1972. Asian commercialists, and later Europeans, were expelled. This set the ideology for the military regime of "self-reliance and Ugandanization". Productive sectors of the economy were neglected, foreign involvement declined and the state was less valuable in supporting business ventures. Anyhow, though the wealth available deteriorated, fortunes were still made. The mafuta mingi did create concentrations of wealth unprecedented for indigenous Ugandan entrepreneurs. To Ugandans the economy in the 1970s is summed up in one word "magendo" which was born out of scarcity. Official statistics indicate that real GDP growth declined to 2.87% per annum between 1971 and 1980 from an average of 4.5 % between 1966 - 1971. Commerce contracted as a direct consequence of the expulsion of Asians and European capitalists. Their expulsion destroyed the trading network that had emerged from the colonial period while providing Amin with enormous, but short-lived, patronage opportunities. Many of the businessmen allocated businesses lacked business expertise or adequate capital.

Managerial incompetence combined with the disappearance of imported spare parts and inputs made the experience of the industrial sector, worse, if anything. The production of textiles fell by half, that of cement fell by more than half in 1979 and later stopped; soap production fell from 12,000 tons to less than 1,000 tons; the production of matches dropped to 1/62 of the previous level; copper output dropped to 1/8 of the previous level and later stopped entirely (Edward A. Mugabi). Virtually everything went wrong in the 1970s. Consumer goods became scarce, partly as a result of the decline in domestic manufacturing and the breakdown of the East African Community.

The above led to the dragging of the larger centres, the 'stumbling' of some medium centres and the shooting up of several smaller centres. Between 1970 and 1980 there was widespread growth of small urban centres in Uganda meanwhile the major towns of Kampala and Jinja stagnated.

Some of the fastest growing centres in the 1970s had not reached the 2,000-population threshold they were mere trading centres at the start of the decade. Most remarkable was the growth of Bombo at an average annual rate of 24.2 %, Buikwe at 23.3 %, Busia at 21.3 %, Luwero at 18.6 %, Kiboga at 15.6 %, Bugiri at 14 % and Kisoro at 13.8 %. On the other hand, the major centre of Kampala stagnated at 3.2 % while Jinja declined at a rate of 0.7%

Town Size	Population 1959	Population 1969	Population 1980	Growth rate 1959 - 1969	Growth rate 1969 - 1980
LARGE					
Kampala	157,800	330,700	58,503	7.7	3.2
Jinja	32,392	47,872	45,060	5.8	-0.7
MEDIUM					
Mbale	13,569	23,544	28,039	5.7	1.7
Entebbe	10,941	21,096	21,289	6.8	0
Gulu	4,770	18,170	17,958	15.3	-1.8
Mbarara	3,884	16,078	23,255	15.4	3.4
Tororo	6,365	15,977	16,707	9.6	0.5
Masaka	4,782	12,987	29,123	10.5	8.1
Soroti	6,645	12,398	15,048	6.4	1.9
Arua	4,645	10,837	9,663	8.8	-1.1
SMALL					
Lugazi	8,105?	-	10,439	-	-
Kabale	7,919	8,234	21,469	0.3	9.6
Fort Portal	7,317	7,947	26,808	1.0	12.5
Lira	2,340	7,340	9,122	9.6	2.1
Kasese	1,564	7,213	9,917	16.5	3.0
Mubende	1,887	6,004	6,629	12.3	0.9
Iganga	3,146	5,958	9,899	6.6	5.0
Moroto	2,082	5,488	8,129	10.2	3.8
Masindi	1,571	5,226	4,958	12.8	-0.5
Magamaga	-	4,818	3,417	-	-3.6

Njeru	-	4,637	3,880	-	-1.8
Mukono	450	3,532	5,783	22.5	4.7
Mbiko	-	3,458	3,435	-	-0.1
Mpigi	577	3,401	4,577	19.4	2.9
Kitgum	3,224	3,242	4,961	0.6	4.2
Bundibugyo	1,615	2,931	2,331	6.1	-2.3
Kamuli	1,867	2,916	3,903	4.6	2.8
Moyo	2,009	2,656	3,236	2.8	1.9
Hoima	1,056	2,339	6,923	8.3	10.9
Mityana	803	2,263	2,457	10.9	1.2
Kotido	-	1,681	3,200	-	6.4
Hiima	-	1,609	2,730	-	5.3
Wobulenzi	-	1,519	2,782	-	6.0
Bwera	-	1,222	3,219	-	7.0
Kalongo	-	1,168	2,717	-	8.5
Busia	-	1,146	8,663	-	21.3
Kisoro	-	1,068	4,122	-	13.8
Bushenyi	-	1,049	2,116	-	7.0
Kangulumira	-	989	2,059	-	7.3
Bugiri	-	820	3,201	-	14.0
Katwe	-	806	2,603	-	11.9
Kayunga	-	745	2,813	-	13.6
Buikwe	-	737	6,547	-	23.3
Luwero	-	715	4,190	-	18.6
Kiboga	-	641	2,889	-	15.6
Bombo	-	583	5,573	-	24.2
Katakwi	-	434	2,242	-	17.1
Kilembe	-	-	5,686	-	-
Nebbi	-	-	3,576	-	-
Kiigoro	-	-	3,079	-	-
Seeta	-	-	2,768	-	-
Rwenshama	-	-	2,674	-	-
Masajja	-	-	2,629	-	-
Bukoloto	-	-	2,444	-	-
Nansana	-	-	2,390	-	-
Maganjo	-	-	2,040	-	-
TOTAL URBAN	**306,124***	**615,490***	**892,222***	**7.4**	**3.3**
-	Indicates that the centres were not enumerated separately as urban centres in the censuses.				
*	Totals are for only those towns which were separately enumerated in the censuses as 'urban'.				

Sources

i. ***Uganda, 1961, "Uganda Population Census, 1959", in Background to Uganda, N1 206, Department of Information, Kampala.***
ii. ***Uganda, 1971, Report on the 1969 Population Census, Volume I, Entebbe.***
iii. ***Uganda, 1982, Report on the 1980 Population Census, Volume I, Kampala.***

Whilst some change in the rates of growth of different towns is observed, it is important to note that the fastest growing centres of the 1970s challenged the dominance of Kampala and Jinja in the urban hierarchy. The largest centres of Kampala and Jinja should not have stagnated or declined at the rates that they did both centres grew at a rate below the average annual growth rate of 3.3 %.

In a situation of political insecurity, economic stagnation, a weakening military state (in the sense that its source of wealth was declining) opposed to dependence, and an individualistic dominant mafuta mingi, some small and medium towns destined to play a relatively small role in the economy performed remarkably well compared to the large centres. A consideration of the fastest growing towns in Uganda in the 1970s presents an interesting pattern. Generally, the fastest growing towns were in the rich agricultural 'core' region of the south and close to the borders. It is these towns which were innovative and thus adapted most efficiently to the realities of economic life in other words, the magendo economy.

In as much as it was insecure in the large urban areas, it was safer to operate close to the rural areas. Kayunga, Kalongo, Kiboga, Wobulenzi, Kangulumira, Buikwe, Luwero, Bugiri, Iganga and Mukono hence became safer heavens for local investments. The good situation in food production also helped. These towns however benefited more from coffee smuggling. Their incomes increased and they supported a number of urban services. Buikwe was a backyard for the laundering of vehicles and distributing them to garages and mechanics in certain parts of the country.
Border towns benefited most from magendo, particularly for coffee smuggling and import of consumer goods. Busia, Kabale, Kisoro, Bwera and Katwe benefited. Insecurity and general neglect of production had significant effects for the large and some of the medium centres. The mafuta mingi literally 'chocked' the extraction of surpluses to the large urban areas yet a city's growth is spurred by capital investment from savings extracted and transferred from rural areas, other towns and from net capital transfers from abroad. So Kampala lost some of its crucial functions of important export work. Therefore, and because of insecurity and declining functions Kampala lost a substantial proportion of its labour force who sought security in the rural areas by growing food or participating in magendo.

Jinja too lost population and it developed significant social problems when it took on an industrial character. The workers were not permanent urban dwellers. With the decline of industries largely due to managerial incompetence, lack of spare parts and declining raw material resources, the workers were made redundant in Jinja, Njeru and nearby Mbiko.
Tororo though well placed to participate in magendo did not perform well. The towns decline was due to neglect and incompetence.

There was a striking fall in population in Magamaga in 1980 which was a barracks town. With the fall of Amin in 1979 many soldiers loyal to him fled with their families. Much as the internal functioning of most towns depends on administration. Administrative centres obtain much of their income from the central government to the extent that when the emphasis is shifted some towns decline markedly. Ten provinces were established in the 1970s. Most of the provincial headquarters were former district or regional headquarters except one Bombo. Bombo became the administrative headquarters of North Buganda province. Ever since the Sudanese mutiny of 1897 Bombo had been settled by Nubi. Throughout the military rule Nubi and Kakwa achieved special status. West Nile was often considered for development projects. Amin even proposed a university and international airport for Arua in North West Uganda.
Other fast-growing towns which benefited from the changing pattern of administrative organization include;

- Katakwi which became the headquarters of North Teso district;
- Kalongo, Agago sub-district;
- Kotido, North Karamoja district;
- Luwero, Bulemezi district;
- Kiboga, Kiboga sub-district;
- Kayunga, Bugerere sub-district;
- Bwera, Bukonjo sub-district;
- Busia, Samia Bugwe sub-district;
- Bushenyi, West Ankole district, and
- Kisoro, Bufumbira sub-district
- Kalongo, being a missionary centre, also attracted and gave sanctuary to refugees from Acholi and Largo in Northern Uganda

Period of laissez faire development and urban informality; 1986–2004.

Mukwaya Paul Isolo, Sengendo Hannington and Lwasa, Shuaib (2010) provide several drivers during this period that altered the functioning, planning and management of urban areas in Uganda. These include;

- Restructuring of the national economy,
- Rapid population shifts,
- A movement towards decentralization, and
- An increasing role of the private sector in the running of urban affairs

Since 1986, there has been the adoption of more liberal economic policies by the central government as a necessary element in the pursuit of economic growth after two decades of political turmoil and economic collapse. The impact

of these economic reforms has been felt in areas such as changing urban land uses, environmental decline and growth of the urban informal sector, as well as growing urban poverty. Mukwaya Paul Isolo, Sengendo Hannington and Lwasa, Shuaib observe during that time, most of the settlements in Ugandan towns continued to spring up without proper urban planning and without meeting development control requirements. Consequently, the settlements were not recognized by urban authorities and were being described as 'illegal', and not conforming to urban authorities' health and population holding capacity regulations. Due to their status, urban authorities also tended to ignore them in the provision of the necessary services such as water, refuse collection, electricity and sewerage disposal.

The Local Government Act (1997) redefined urban areas in Uganda and empowers the Minister for Government to declare any area to be a Town Council, municipality or city if the following criteria are met: (i) population level (Town Council at 25 000 people, municipality at 100 000 people and city at above 500 000 people); (ii) have the capacity to meet the cost of delivery of services; (iii) have its own offices; (iv) have a master plan for land use; (v) water resources are present; and (vi) where district headquarters are established, the area is declared a Town Council. In the face of central government resource constraints, the changes in internal boundaries and subsequent creation of districts have meant a gradual evolution of small rural service centres into government recognized urban centres, no doubt without any semblance of urbanity, devoid of appropriate services and infrastructure facilities.

Age of urban renaissance (2005– to date)

In 2007 the Population Secretariat (2007) took a critical look into Uganda's 75 urban centres and returned with a damning verdict of rot, filth and disease. This is partly s0 because the towns do not have the financial capacity to provide proper housing and sanitation facilities for their ever increasing, mainly poor populations. The Secretariat estimated then that only 1.8 million people, less than half the entire urban population of 3.7 million, have access to piped water, while the rest depend on boreholes, rainwater and springs for their water needs. Onyango-Obbo (2008) reported that urban areas had been turned into a riot of mud-and-wattle houses, and they had all but crumbled under the weight of the new population.

Under these conditions, the government of Uganda observed that much of the urbanization taking place in the country today is informal, organic and haphazard; and some urban plans, where in existence, have expired and need serious review. At the same time most of the new growth centres and district headquarters have never experienced any planning intervention. The absence of a comprehensive Urban Policy, exposed the Country to high urban growth that has not been properly guided and planned. This also led to the organic growth of unplanned urban areas that are characterized by a weak urban economy, slums and informal settlements, weak urban governance and institutional coordination, inadequate urban infrastructure and services, land-use disorder and uncontrolled urban sprawl, increasing environmental deterioration, inadequate urban investment and financing, delimitation of urban areas of jurisdiction and lack of integrated planning across jurisdictional boundaries, among other challenges associated with the urbanization process. This has adversely affected the potential of the urban sector as an engine of economic development.

Annex 3: Customized urban Indicators' profiling tool

REGION…… NAME OF COUNCIL……..NAME OF FOCAL POINT…… E-mail & TEL No. ……

	THEME	INDICATORS		(Indicate source of data where it exists & explanatory notes including major issues)
1.	**Land**	**Major Land use:**		WHERE DATA IS NOT AVAILABLE, PLEASE ESTIMATE
		Area in Sq. Km		Total land area in square Kilometers
		Formal Settlement: %		
		Informal Settlements: %		
		Commercial: %		
		Agricultural: %		
		Civic: %		
		Environmental Zones: %		
		Industrial: %		
		Institutional: %		
		Others (Specify)		Include vacant, recreational, etc.
		Land Tenure:	(%)	(Where data is not available, please estimate)
		Freehold		
		Mailo		
		Leasehold		
		Customary		
		Customary Land associations		
2.	**Spatial Planning**	Availability of a PDP		
		Validity of the PDP		
		Detailed Plans		% coverage of the planning area for which detailed plans have been prepared
		Level of implementation of PDPs		% coverage of the PDP
		Source of funding for the preparation of the PDP		
		Are the urban council boundaries surveyed		
		% of land surveyed in the urban council		
3.	**Population**	Population size: 2014 census		
		Annual Growth rate: % p.a.		
		Est. population size: 2021		
		Density		No. of persons per square kilometer (dry land)
4.	**Households**	Women headed Households		
		Average HH size		No. of persons per household
		Number of HHs in a unit		
		Household Formation Rate		Annual rate of growth of no. of HH in an Urban area
		HH Income distribution:		
		Low %		
		Middle %		
		High %		
		Average HH expenditure/month/per.		
		Average HH Income		
5.	Employment	% Of employees in:		(Estimated number of employees in the private and public sectors)
		Agriculture		
		Mining and Quarrying		
		Electricity and Water		

	THEME	INDICATORS		(Indicate source of data where it exists & explanatory notes including major issues)
		Construction		
		Wholesale & Retail		
		Construction Trade		
		Hotels & Restaurants		
		Transport and Communication		
		Community Services		
		% Formal Employment:		
		Male		
		Female		
		% Informal Sector Employment:		
		Male		
		Female		
		% Unemployment rates by Sex:		
		Male		
		Female		
		Child Labour		% of children below 18years employed
		Youth Unemployment	%	
6.	Housing Tenure	Tenure Type:		
		Owner occupier	%	
		Private Rental	%	
		Social Housing	%	
		Sub-tenancy	%	
		Rent Free	%	
		Informal	%	
	Housing Adequacy	**Dwelling Type: (%)**		
		Detached		
		Semi detached		
		Apartment		
		Tenements		
		State of Permanency:		
		% Permanent dwelling units		
		% Semi-permanent		
		% - Temporary dwelling units		
		State of compliance: % Housing in compliance		
		% Of Housing in non-compliance		
		Occupancy Ratios		Av. No. of persons per room % of the total population in the urban council
		Homeless population		
		Average Floor area per person		
	Housing Affordability	House Price to Income Ratio:		
		Average free market price of dwelling unit		
		House Rent to Income Ratio:		
		Average annual Rent of dwelling unit		
		Average Annual HH Income of renter		

	THEME	INDICATORS		(Indicate source of data where it exists & explanatory notes including major issues)
	Housing Provision	Housing Starts in last 12 months		Annual No. of formally registered units
		Housing Investment		Total Investment in housing as % of gross product
		Construction cost		Estimates
		Average Construction Time		Time taken to complete a housing unit.
7.	Poverty	Household below poverty line %		Poverty line: USD 1 and below
		% Of Women Headed HH below poverty line		
		% Of Households in slums		
8.	Health	Total number of facilities		
		% Government ownership		
		No. Hospital beds (consider hospital & HCIV)		
		Child Mortality %		
		Maternal Mortality %		
		Affordability of Health service %		Percentage no. of people who can afford services
		Accessibility of Health service %		Percentage no. of people who access services
		Range of service		Average distance to the health facility
		Threshold		Minimum population using the health service
9.	Education	**School ownership %:**		
		No. Government owned		
		No. Privately owned		
		School Classrooms:		
		Primary School		Total no. of classrooms in an Urban area
		Secondary Schools		Total no. of classrooms in an Urban area
		School enrolment rate:		
		Primary School		No. of pupils attending primary schools
		Secondary Schools		No. of students attending secondary schools
		Adult Literacy Rates:		
		Affordability of education svc %		Percentage no. of people who can afford services
		Accessibility of education svc %		Percentage no. of people who access services
		Range of service		Average distance to the education facility
		Threshold		Minimum population using the education service
10.	Social Integration	**Crime Rates:(reported crimes/1000):**		Numbers
		Murder (No.)		
		Thefts (No.)		
		Internally Displaced persons (%)		
		Deaths due to violence (No.)		
		Street Children		Numbers
		Red Zone (Prostitutes)		Availability, numbers(estimate)
11.	Infrastructure	**Household connection levels:**		(% of HH with access to the indicated facilities)
		Piped Water	%	

	THEME	INDICATORS		(Indicate source of data where it exists & explanatory notes including major issues)
		Sewerage	%	
		Electricity for lighting	%	
		Mobile Telephones	%	
		Land lines	%	
		Access to potable water	%	
		Average consumption of water in liters per person per day	L	
		Sources of Water: (%)		
		Piped connection	%	
		Gravity flow scheme	%	
		Well & Spring	%	
		Vendor	%	
		Rain Harvesting	%	
		Boreholes	%	
		Piped water supply reliability	Hrs	(No. of hrs /yr without water)
		Coverage of piped water		% Extension within total administrative area
		Sewage disposal:		
		Water borne	%	
		Pit latrine	%	
		Others specify	%	
		Coverage of the sewer line		% Extension within total administrative area
		Number of Public Latrines		No. of latrines per 1000 population
		Number of public toilets		No. of toilets per 1000 population
		Internet:		
		Service providers:		
		Website at council level (updated, active)		
		Internet Speed		
		Average cost per month		
		Financial Institutions:		
		Service Providers		
		Number of branches per service provider		
		Usability (% of population with bank accounts)		
12.	Transport	**Modal Split:**		(Proportion of work trips undertaken by:)
		Private Car	%	
		Bus or Minibus	%	
		Motor cycle	%	
		Bicycle	%	
		Walking	%	
		Other	%	
		Travel Time to place of work: (min.)	Min.	(Average time for a work trip)
		Transport accidents reported		(Last 12 month)
		Fatal	%	
		Minor	%	
		Expenditure on road infrastructure:		(Per capita expenditure)
		Expenditure on O&M for roads		Per capita expenditure

	THEME	INDICATORS		(Indicate source of data where it exists & explanatory notes including major issues)
		Width of road per vehicle	Km.	
		Road congestion	%	(% of Road length with volume/capacity>0.8 during peak hours)
		Vehicle ownership		(Ratio of vehicles to 1000 population)
		Roads:		
		Coverage	Km	
		% paved		
		Condition of roads		Bad, fair, good
		Rail:		
		Coverage	Km	
		Condition		Bad, fair, good
		Usability		% population using the service
		Water:		
		Usability		% population using the service
		Condition of support facilities		Bad, fair, good
		Air:		
		Usability (local)		% population using the service
		Condition of support facilities		Bad, fair, good
13.	Environment Management	**Source of pollution:**		Specify e.g., dust, industrial fumes, noise, …
		Air pollution		
		Water Pollution		
		Soil		
		Landscape		
		% of waste water treated:	%	
		Volume of solid waste generated per day (Tones)		
		Volume of solid waste collected per month (%)		
		Disposal Methods for solid waste:		
		Sanitary landfill	Ton.	
		Incinerated	Ton.	
		Open dump		
		Recycled		
		Other		
		% Of HH with Regular solid waste collection facility	%	
		Payment for waste collection	%	% Population paying for waste collection
		Average cost for waste collection		Shs per day (individual)
		Average cost of garbage disposal		Shs. Per day (urban authority)
	Resource use	**Sources of HH Energy for Cooking:**		
		Electricity	%	
		Gas	%	
		Paraffin	%	
		Charcoal	%	
		Wood fuel	%	
		Fuel wood usage-Tons /person /year)		
		Sources of HH Energy for Lighting:		

	THEME	INDICATORS		(Indicate source of data where it exists & explanatory notes including major issues)
		Electricity	%	
		Gas	%	
		Paraffin	%	
		Solar	%	
14.	Disaster Management	Housing on fragile land (No. of dwellings located on land subject to natural disasters like flooding, landslides, earthquakes)		
		Other developments on fragile land (no of developments on land subject to natural disasters)		
	Urban Enhancement	Green space	%	(% of green space in built-up area)
		Monument list and preservation measures		(# of buildings on heritage list)
15.	Local Government	**Finance: - Major sources of income:**		
		Taxes	%	
		User Charges	%	
		Other own-sources	%	
		Transfers from Central Government	%	
		Borrowings	%	
		Others	%	
		Current Budget:		Figure
		Estimate		Figure
		Actual		Figure
	Productivity & Private Sector Involvement	Local Government employees/1000 persons		
		Wages in budget %		(% of budget spent on wages)
		O & M Expenditure		%
		Contracted recurrent expenditure Ratio		(% of recurrent expenditure spent on contracted activity)
	Local Independence and Participation	Elected and nominated councilors	Males	Females
		Elected	( )	( )
		Voter participation rates by sex -%	(%) (%)	(%) (%)
		Citizen involvement in major planning decisions	(Does formal participatory process exist for the following: (Tick as appropriate ✓)	
		Physical Planning & change of use	Yes	No
		New development proposals e.g., highway	Yes	No
		Other major projects	Yes	No
	Regulatory Audit	Governmental level of providing services: (Tick as appropriate ✓)	Local Govt.	Central Govt / Parastatal / NGO, CBOs / Private / (Tick the box is significant services are provided by Organizations of this type)
		Services provided:		

	THEME	INDICATORS						(Indicate source of data where it exists & explanatory notes including major issues)
		Water						
		Sewerage						
		Refuse collection						
		Electricity						
		Telephone						
		Public or Mass Transport						
		Emergency (Fire / Ambulance)						
		Road Maintenance						
		Education						
		Health care						
		Public Housing						
		Recreation/Sports Facilities						
		Other						

	Please list any other major issues experienced in the urban center.		Indicate any success stories regarding solving any key urban challenges including any innovative practices:
	Outline possible recommendations on how the challenges should be solved (Attach extra sheets if necessary)		
	Name of Focal Contact Person:		THANK YOU! PLEASE SEND THE COMPLETED FORM TO: GIPEA AFRICA LIMITED P.O. Box 29110, Kampala, Uganda Email: gipea.africaltd@gmail.com
	Employer		
	Designation		
	Postal Address		
	Tel/Mobile No.		
	Email Address		

Address: Plot 13 – 15 Parliament Avenue
P.O.Box 7096 Kampala
Tel: +256 414 373 511
E-mail: mlhud@mlhud.go.ug
www.mlhud.go.ug

Ministry of Lands Housing & Urban Development

Ministry_Lands