The Impact of Aid on Universal

Primary Education Enrolment in Northern Uganda.

Case study: Pader District- Lapono and Atanga sub counties

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2006-03-MScDe-PT-038

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this piece of work to my Grand Mother Loyce Apenyo. The decisions you made regarding my life when I was young have been the very foundations for the achievements I have had in life. To my family; Dad, Mum, Sisters Allison and Josephine for standing by me and loving me.

But most of all to God, who has been the Glory and the lifter of my head and an anchor through life's journey.

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And most of all to Uganda Martyrs University. You have set a trend for quality and excellence in Higher learning but most of all you inspire students to challenge injustice and make a difference in the world.

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ACRONYMS

AMREF	Africa Medical Research Foundation
CCTs	Center Coordinating Tutors
CRS	Creditor Reporting System
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
DFID	Department for International Development
EFA	Education for All
EFAG	Education Funding Agencies Group
ESA	Education Standards Agency
ESIP	Education Sector Investment Plan
ESSP	Education Sector Strategic Plan
FTI	Fast Track Initiative
GER	Gross Enrollment Ratios
GIR	Gross Intake Ratios
GoU	Government of Uganda
IMF	International Monetary Fund
MDGs	Millenium Development Goals
NER	Net Enrollment Ratios
NIR	Net Intake Ratios
NUSAF	Northern Uganda Social Action Fund
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and

PAF	Poverty Alleviation Fund
PEAP	Poverty Eradication Action Plan
PGBS	Partnership General Budget Support
PTA	Parents Teachers Association
PTC	Primary Teachers College
PRDP	Peace Recovery and Development Plan for Northern Uganda
SMC	School Management Committee
SWAp	Sector Wide Approach
UPE	Universal Primary Education
USAID	United States Agency for International Development

Development

ABSTRACT

The study sought to examine the impact of aid to basic education on Universal Primary School enrolment in Northern Uganda between 1997 and 2008, using Pader District as a case study. In so doing, trends in aid to basic education and enrolment in Northern Uganda were examined. Enrolment statistics for 10 districts in Northern Uganda were regressed against aid to basic education.

Findings show that education aid to Uganda has been increasing. Within the education sector, aid to basic education has taken the greatest share of sector aid transfers. The trend might change as donors now prefer to channel aid through the national budget. Aid appears to be volatile and unpredictable with disbursements falling short of commitments. UPE enrollment in Northern Uganda has seen a rising trend although girl child enrollment is slower than that of boys. Enrolment has been influenced by education policy, social and economic conditions among other things. Regressions show that aid to basic education has had a positive impact on total enrollment and girl child enrollment in Northern Uganda. However aid to basic education accounts for only 40 percent of the variations in enrollment.

Because of its positive impact more aid on enrolment, more aid needs to be channeled directly to implementing UPE. However this alone is not enough. More investments are needed to create a conducive socio-economic environment in Northern Uganda to enable more children access primary education.

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.0 Introduction

In 1997, Uganda embarked on the provision of Universal Primary Education (UPE) for four children in every Ugandan household between the ages of six to thirteen years. This encouraged the registration of marginalized categories like girls, children with disabilities and those from precarious communities such as fishing and pastoral communities. With UPE, parents were to provide for scholastic materials, lunch at school, uniforms and contribute towards construction of teachers houses. In 2000, the limitation to only four children per family was removed opening access to education for all. Enrollment rose from 3.1 million in 1996 to 6.9 million and 7.3 million in 2001 and 2002 respectively (MOES, 2007).

The introduction and implementation of the universal primary education was founded on numerous local and global policy frameworks that set education as a key development priority for Uganda if the country had to fight poverty and deal with prevailing development challenges. At the national level the 2025 vision for Uganda and the Education Strategic Investment Plan (ESIP) defined the key investment priorities for education for the period that UPE registered its first complete cycle.

Uganda's pronouncement of UPE was backed by legal frameworks out and within the country. The 1995 constitution and the 2001 Children's statute enshrine the right of every child to education. In 1990, the Jomtein World Conference saw the agenda for Education for All (EFA) goals set by the international Community. The commitment to ensure that Education for All with a main focus on six goals was reaffirmed by states in 2000 in the Dakar Summit placing the education agenda within the framework of the Millennium Development Goals.

The introduction of UPE put pressure on the existing institutions and also demanded that other institutions are set up to manage the pressures that the surging enrollments were putting on the existing ones. The line ministry responsible for the management of UPE is the Ministry of Education and Sports. With the advent of UPE an Education Standards Agency (ESA) was instituted to monitor the progress in standards of education.

The management of education has also been decentralized to the lower local governments. Other structures in place that have a key role in managing UPE include but are not limited to; School Management Committees (SMCs), Parents Teachers Associations (PTAs), Centre Coordinating Tutors (CCTs), Core Primary Teachers Colleges (PTCs), Sectoral Committees on Education at Lower Local Councils and Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs). Parents are obliged to send school children to school and meet costs for meals, uniforms. Government

on the other hand meets the school fees for every child, recruits teachers, builds classrooms, and provides learning materials.

UPE had a number of objectives at its introduction. Making basic education accessible to the learners and relevant to their needs as well as meeting national goals. UPE too did present itself as a system that would make education equitable especially for the girl child and other disadvantaged groups like refugees, physically and mentally handicapped, and those whose exclusion is dictated by geography, culture, ethnicity and conflict. Establishing, providing and maintaining quality education was seen as the basis for promoting the necessary human resource development that would initiate a fundamental positive transformation of society. At the centre of UPE was the need to provide affordable education for the majority of Ugandans, first availing the initial minimum necessary facilities and resources and progressively the optimal facilities. It was also envisaged that with UPE, every child would enroll, remain in school until the completion of the primary cycle.

Following the introduction of UPE came global commitments to support the education sector. Uganda has been a recipient of aid funding to the education sector from both the International Monetary Fund and World Bank and bilateral country agreements. Under the hospices of the 'Fast Track Initiative'(FTI), a forum for mobilizing education resources for third world countries, developed countries agreed to avail more funds to third world countries to meet overarching

demands in education which if not dealt with would undermine successes achieved, keep children especially girls away from school and undermine quality of education provided.

Quality was found wanting albeit the increased access to school for the backlog of school age children who for not affording the cost of education could not join prior to the start of UPE. The increase of pupils immediately created the need for more space and even more schools built by the ministry proved inadequate. Teacher pupil ratios have been noted to have escalated in addition to continued deteriorating morale of teachers who relied only on government remuneration after the abolition of fees that previously guaranteed supplements. Twenty five percent of the teaching force by 2001 was still untrained (Aguti, 2002).

The quality concerns from UPE led to the creation of the Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP) 2004-2015 whose focus was guaranteeing quality through the introduction of new curricular, adoption of effective methods of instruction, training teachers, increasing instructional time and examining pupils only in reading, writing and mathematics.

The increased attention of the Government of Uganda (GoU) on education coincided with donors interest to make shift from project to budget support redirecting funds from uncoordinated, unsustainable and institutionally fragmenting projects to centrally planned, owned and managed government

programmes in a way to reduce costs, strengthen local capacities, enhance participation and improve coherence between macro-economic management, public sector reform, sector policies and development programmes. Within the framework of the Sector Wide Approach (SWAp) development partners created Education Funding Agencies Group (EFAG) whose aim was to coordinate budget support, project support and technical assistance.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

While it is clear that the advent of UPE saw enrollment levels rise from 3.1 million in 1996 to 6.9 million and 7.3 million in 2001 and 2002 respectively and that Uganda has made considerable strides in guaranteeing the right to education for all its children. Although aid to Uganda has been increasing, there is evidence to show that many children still cannot access or complete primary education. It is therefore not clear what the impact of aid on enrollment is.

1.2 Significance of the study

The study sought to show the impact of aid to basic education on UPE enrollment in Northern Uganda. The study also sought to build a case for or against aid especially in conflict-affected areas given its focus on Northern Uganda and provide alternatives to policy makers, education officials on better ways of delivering aid to the education sector.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The overall objective of the study was to; assess the impact of education aid on UPE enrollment in Northern Uganda. Specifically the study sought to;

i. Examine the trends that education aid has taken in Uganda between 1997 and 2008.

ii. Examine the trends in UPE enrollment in Northern Uganda between 1997 and 2008

iii. Examine the impact of aid to the basic education on UPE enrollment between 1997 and 2008 in northern Uganda.

1.4 Statement of the hypothesis

The hypothesis tested in this study was that aid to basic education had a positive impact on UPE enrollment in Northern Uganda

1.5 Scope of the study

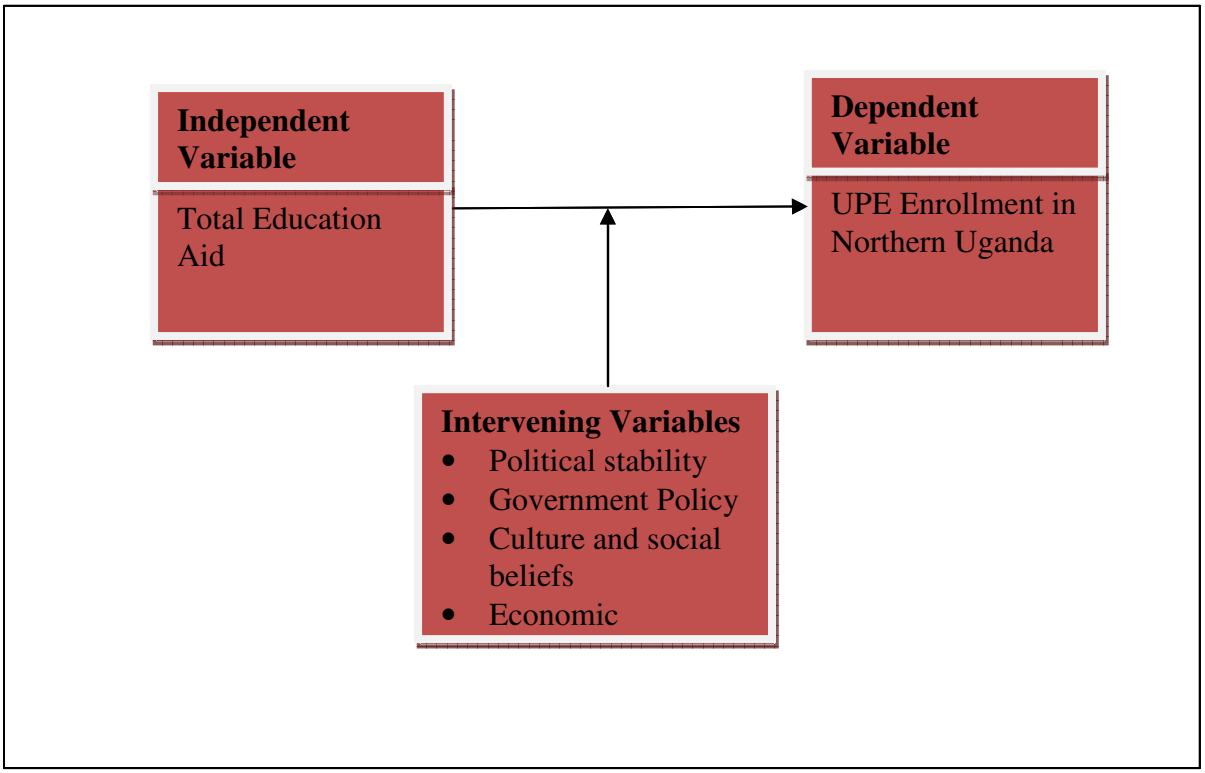
The study laid emphasis on the period between 1997 and 2008 in order to capture the decade within which UPE implementation has been undertaken in the country. The study focuses on Northern Uganda and selected districts in the region. Secondary data for ten districts in Northern Uganda was used in regression analysis while field studies were undertaken in Pader District. With respect to aid the study looks at total aid to basic education.

1.6 Conceptual Framework

Where aid has been provided in effective and accountable ways it has worked to protect rights opening up many opportunities for millions of children to access basic education. Aid therefore has an impact on education. Uganda is cited as a recipient of untied, relatively predictable and well coordinated budget support and debt relief and where aid has led to expansion of school enrolment from three million children in 1997 to close to eight million in 2003.

Aid provides increased spending on education inputs such as teachers, classrooms and scholastic materials among other things. These inputs then facilitate better delivery of education services. The result is more enrollment of children in school. Social, political and economic contextual factors have impacts on educational outcomes. For instance socio-cultural practices and attitudes, conflict, widespread poverty impact on children's ability to access primary education.

Figure 1.1 Conceptual Framework



1.7 Organization of the dissertation

This dissertation has five chapters. Chapter one looks at the background, problem statement, objectives, significance and scope of the report. Chapter two reviews literature on aid and education. Chapter three looks at the methods used for the study stipulating hypotheses, estimation methods, sampling methods, key research questions, data collection methods and sources, sample size among other things. In chapter four, the findings and answers to the key questions are presented followed by key recommendations and areas of further study highlighted in chapter five.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter attempts to review the existing literature on the subject of aid. It highlights arguments for and against aid and highlights any positive development outcomes as a result of increased aid transfers. This chapter also reviews previous work on the determinants on education outcomes and quality. The chapter further highlights the objectives and evolution of UPE among other things and points out the gaps prevalent in the literature.

2.1 Aid is still short

In 2005, pressure was mounted for rich countries to increase aid, to which a number of commitments were made with a promise to increase aid by $40 billion by 2010 and meet the requirement of 0.7 percent of national income by 2015. These commitments though fall short of what is needed.

A commitment by rich countries to channel 20 percent of their aid to basic services has not come into fruition with the exception of Denmark and Ireland that were above target with 26.4 percent and 25.9 percent respectively (Oxfam, 2006). Poor donor reporting of aid to essential services needs to improve so that

rich countries' commitment is monitored. Oxfam asserts that aid remains volatile with what is given not matching what was promised and disbursed erratically, crippling planning, spending and the delivery of social services.

Funding to education particularly remains inadequate with additional $17 billion needed annually to get all children into primary school and teach illiterate women how to read and write (Oxfam, 2006). Only 43 percent of countries that submitted plans under the Education For All Fast Track Initiative received any funding.

On the other hand, poor countries have the twin challenge of low aid and huge debt burdens. Only a few countries (17) have benefited from debt cancellation although the number is expected to rise. Cancelling debts of these countries would release money needed to provide services and reach the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

While there have been pledges by rich countries to increase aid to poor countries, the reality has been only meager if any increases in aid transfers. In 2006 alone there was only a two percent increase in aid to sub Saharan Africa. De Renzio (2009) highlights some reasons for the slow realization of aid increases.

First there appear to be domestic political difficulties faced by donor governments in justifying aid increases amidst competing budget pressures. Secondly there are worries around the effectiveness of aid given its failure in promoting growth and

reducing poverty and recipient countries' absorptive capacity. With regard to absorptive capacity, more aid is believed to trigger the 'Dutch disease' and reduce the competitiveness of a country's exports and subsequently its capacity to grow out of poverty and dependency.

Because aid is characterized by conditionality and bureaucratic procedures, it is volatile and unpredictable, making aid recipient countries susceptible to monetary and fiscal risks on one hand and curtails recipient countries' abilities to adequately plan and implement essential services on the other hand. Further still it is believed that while one of aid's intents is to build effective indigenous public institutions, it has had the unintended consequences of undermining these very institutions and relaxing resource constraints with governments postponing public sector reforms, hence perpetuating inefficiency. Aid may prevent healthy domestic accountability mechanisms from developing and support the development of antidevelopment regimes.

Thirdly, De Renzio points out that the perception that Africa has not made significant governance reforms which was their part of their duty in the 2005 Gleneagles deal, may partly account for the slow aid increases.

According to Oxfam, International Monetary Fund's (IMF) rigid stance on public spending in the name of 'sound economic policies' is incompatible with the need to expand services and meet the MDGs. A reduction of Kenya's public sector

wage bill from 8.5 per cent to 7.2 per cent of GDP by 2007 meant a freeze in the number of teachers, in a country where 60,000 extra teachers were needed to attend to extra pupils coming to school after the abolition of tuition fees. IMF's stances stem from operating from *a narrow monetarist perspective which prioritizes tight targets on inflation and fiscal deficit over public spending,* (Oxfam, 2006:71) on one hand and the effects of aid volatility and unpredictability and the potentially negative effects of large aid inflows on the other. Oxfam believes that better management rather than limiting aid inflows would be the appropriate response.

The value of aid is further undermined by the fact that it is uncoordinated leaving what may seem as many aid sources, with separate reporting demands and money going unused. Further still some of the rich countries spend most of their aid on technical assistance. Oxfam estimates that as much as 70 per cent of aid for education is spent on technical assistance, most of which money is spent on international consultants. Aid for projects too is tied to buying goods and services from the donor country. Most of the money finds its way back to the lending country.

De Renzio proceeds to highlight that there remain institutional and technical constraints in low income countries that work against them receiving more aid. These range from a lack of transformative policies and strategies necessary for aid to achieve sustainable development outcomes, inadequate planning, budgeting

and service delivery mechanisms which are inadequate to absorb adequate additional resources to human capital shortages that prevent the quick scale up of service delivery of public services especially health and education.

2.2 Problematic Aid

It appears that the problem with aid is the nature of aid given. ActionAid's *Real Aid* report notes that where aid has not been effective in reducing poverty, it has never really reached the recipient country but instead found its way back through donor country companies and consultants, often overpriced and inappropriate goods and services with few sustainable benefits. Twenty percent of aid to Africa continues to be tied. The report partly attributes the ineffectiveness of aid to corrupt governments siphoning off aid for their own purposes and advances that donors too are to be held responsible.

2.3 The case against Aid is Aid itself

ActionAid believes that arguments advanced for cutting aid evade the real problem and that it is in most cases not the problem of recipient countries. Instead the kind of aid given is not the right aid. Limited absorption capacity is usually the effect of administratively cumbersome aid characterized by poor coordination, multiple planning, and monitoring, reporting and audit requirements which limit the recipient's ability to absorb aid quickly and effectively.

Harmonizing procedures and providing aid through alternative channels like civil society and private sector other than central government in a manner that does not undermine its long term capacity may offer part solution to the absorption problem. Inappropriate conditions such as privatization, liberation and fiscal austerity set by the World Bank and IMF have failed to reduce poverty. Intrusive donor conditionality and the poor quality of aid do not put recipients in the 'driving seat'. Where corruption has existed amidst aid receipts, aid may have failed to provide capacity and build effective systems and support civil society to hold government to account.

2.4 Real Aid

According to ActionAid, only 40 percent of aid reaches recipient countries. Poverty reduction is no longer an overriding objective for giving official aid. Most of the recipients of aid, receive it owing to commercial and geopolitical objectives. After the September 11 attacks on the United States (US), countries in favor of the war of terror received more US aid, while Japan's large aid channels to Vietnam were meant to develop a market for Japanese exports and host for its foreign direct investment.

Hancock in his book, *Lords of Poverty* further reinforces the view that the giving of aid has geo-political and commercial motivations beyond the poverty and humanitarian incentives. According to him bilateral donors, give priority to countries they have historical links or are of importance to them for some other

reasons with India and Kenya being cited as principal beneficiaries of British aid. For Italy, Somalia and Ethiopia were notable beneficiaries while for the United States of America (USA), the Philippines and Egypt where the super power had a military base and a 'conservative bastion against the spread of communism from neighboring Libya' respectively (Hancock, 1989:46).

But aid also does not reach recipients because of the nature of aid. Debt relief which constitutes 14 percent of official aid under Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC), debts cancelled on export credits as well as other bilateral debts are double counted as aid. First, all money used to fund debt relief is reportedly counted as official aid. Cancelled debt stock is counted as Official Development Assistance (ODA) in the year that relief is agreed even though benefits are spread over a long period of time. This causes dramatic increases in aid. Debt relief is also valued at full nominal value although there are necessarily no financial transfers made. Counting debt relief as ODA creates the wrong public impression that additional money is being spent on development.

Funding debt relief from aid budgets is said to be misleading and violates the principle that aid creditors should carry the cost of debt relief since reckless lending has played a part in creating the debt crisis and much of the lending does not support development related expenditures.

Aid in form of technical assistance is overpriced and ineffective. According to ActionAid, monies spent on hiring international consultants are high enough to cater for hundreds of thousands of teachers' wage bill. Also international consultants are more costly than their local counterparts. For instance, ActionAid estimates that in Vietnam, the Department for International Development (DFID) paid foreign experts approximately 9 to 12 times more than local consultants while in Cambodia international consultants earned 200 times more than what their local counterparts would receive.

Technical assistance also often leads to inappropriate or irrelevant support since it restricts policy options and drives countries towards donors' preferred reforms and does less to enhance institutional capacity or quality and the management and the absorption of resources. Seventy five percent of technical assistance is said to be phantom aid.

On the overall, the aid system has major flaws which is why aid is phantom. ActionAid estimates that after removing food aid and technical assistance, 40 percent of global aid remains tied to the purchase of goods and services from the donor country with Italy and the USA spending over 70 percent of aid on domestic firms and organizations. The United Kingdom, Norway, Ireland and Sweden are the only few who have fully untied aid. ActionAid believes that tied aid is not only wasteful, but inflates procurement costs, distorts the content of aid

programmes by encouraging donors to make large capital expenditures without due consideration to the recurrent cost implications for the recipient country.

Tied aid also slows aid down at enormous costs to recipients who may be in need of emergency relief as is reported in the case of Ethiopia which in 2003 faced an emergency food crisis. The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) vegetable oil stocks took a long time being shipped despite the requests by local USAID staff to procure food locally, to which they were refused. ActionAid estimates that 20 percent of tied aid is phantom aid.

Another problem with aid, ActionAid notes is that it is not properly coordinated carrying with it high administrative and financial transaction costs with civil servants in aid receiving countries required to meet a series of disbursement, procurement, and reporting, monitoring and auditing requirements. This diverts scarce time and aid resources from identifying and implementing local policy priorities. The lack of coordination is attributed to the preoccupation by donors with the visibility of their efforts and the ability to attribute quick remarks.

ActionAid's *Real Aid* report further points out that aid is largely unpredictable with most of it unreliable compared to local revenue, arriving late or not at all. The report estimates 14 percent and 26 percent shortfalls of programme and project aid respectively to Africa. These delays and shortfalls undermine planning and cause financial uncertainty for governments. The drivers of unpredictable aid

are reportedly related to the administratively cumbersome procedures such as procurement procedures, donor conditionalities that may cause delays or sometimes suspension of aid.

Further, donors have reportedly been unable to make indicative commitments more than one year in advance, something if done, could make planning and budgeting forecasts easier for recipient governments.

ActionAid continues to discount some aid money from real aid because it is spent on immigration and sometimes-questionable administrative costs. Nearly two percent of global aid flows were spent on refugee related expenditures, and because this money never leaves the donor country, it is not available for poverty reduction. While some costs are inevitable and are necessary for the day to day running of the aid programmes, some costs are however questionable and are above required ceilings with some bilateral aid agencies like DFID spending generously on living allowances for expatriates, hotel expenses and business class flights.

2.5 More Aid is harmful

One of Hancock's criticisms of development aid is how it has been mistaken for quality aid. So while advocates of aid push for more aid, and the achievement of the 0.7 percent of GNP target, according to him, increased aid has done more harm than good. Hancock makes a comparative illustration of how developing

countries were better off without aid, than when they got it or had it increased. According to him, increasing aid has increased net transfers from developing countries to rich countries. Further still aid is far too small in macro-economic terms to do much good to any one since per capita aid receipts per annum are far less than the net per capita transfers to rich countries per annum.

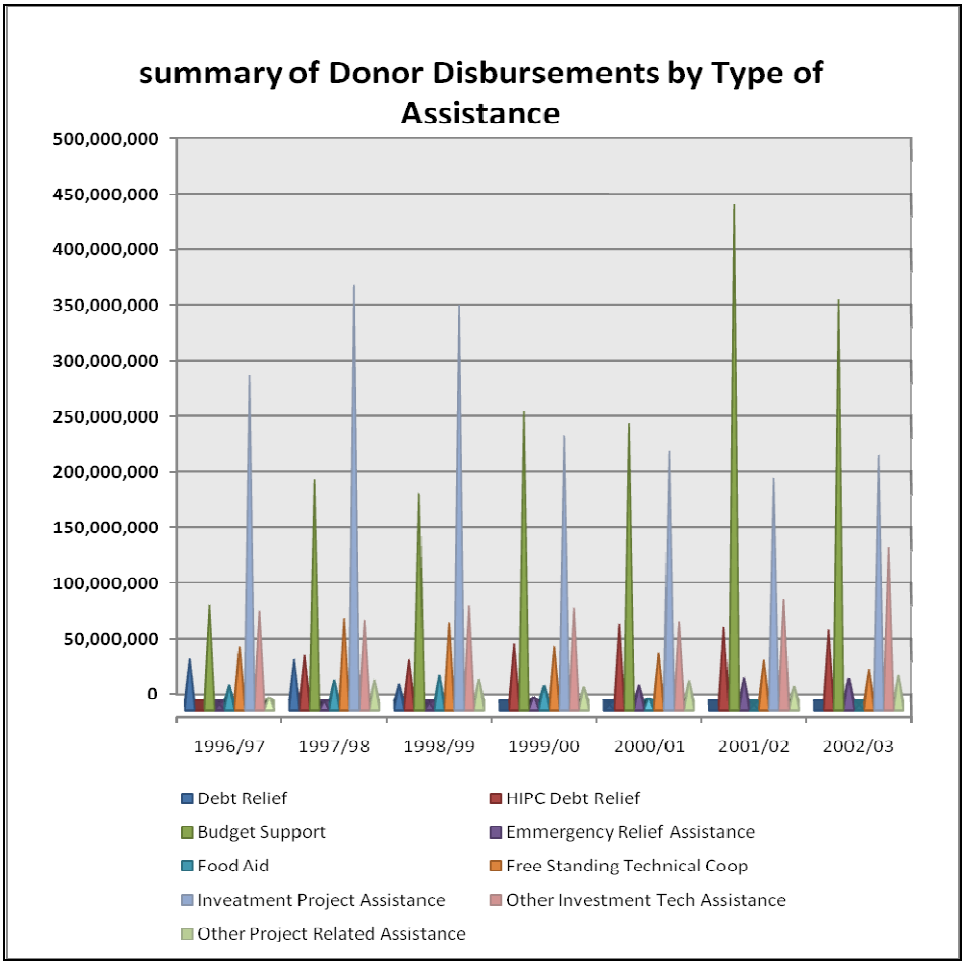
Aid according to Hancock has been harmful, devastating the environment, has supported brutal tyrannies, sapped and drained the initiative, creativity and enterprise of local people substituting it with costly and harmful, non tested imported advice, making recipient countries pathetically dependent. It is a waste of time and money and according to him should be stopped before more damage is done.

Hancock further attacks the contradictions that aid comes with. While its advocates paint the picture that poor and developing countries cannot survive without aid, he shows that their conditions have worsened with increasing aid. And according to him if aid works, the poor would have been better off. Yet the contrary is true. If it was effective, by now lenders should have embarked on a process of withdrawal. Aid's main function he emphasizes has been to create and entrench a powerful new class of privileged people at the expense of the poor people in third world countries and the tax payers in rich countries and strongly recommends stopping development assistance in its present form.

2.6 Aid Instruments in Uganda

While there may be only meager increases in aid to sub Saharan Africa, the case may not be the same for Uganda specifically. A study by CARE and ActionAid International Uganda (2006) shows that Uganda is a beneficiary of aid through a number of instruments. These include; debt relief, HIPC Debt relief, budget support, food aid, emergency relief assistance, free standing technical assistance, investment project assistance, other investment technical assistance and other project related assistance. Over the years it appears some instruments appear to have gained more importance. Below is a figure illustrating the different aid instruments to Uganda.

Figure 2.1: Summary of Donor Disbursements by type of assistance



Source: CARE, ACTIONAID (2006)

2.7 Budget Support to Uganda

Direct Budget support which refers to the channeling of donor funds to a partner government using the Government's own allocation, procurement and accounting systems, appears to have taken prominence in Uganda since the late 1990s (as can be seen from the above figure). Increases in aid from US $ 150 million in 1999/2000 to US $ 350 million between 2000/01 and 2002/03 were associated with the adoption of budget support by many donors in their portfolio with

thirteen different donors providing Partnership General Budget Support (PGBS) (CARE, ActionAid, 2007).

Aid increases are also related to renewed global commitments to increasing aid. Global initiatives like the 2000 millennium summit and the Monterey Summit in 2003 saw renewed commitment to increase aid in pursuit of attaining the MDGs. Further, in March 2005, developed countries committed to improving aid delivery through harmonization of their activities and alignment with recipient government plans and systems, developing mutually agreed and transparent accountability frameworks and supporting local capacity building.

2.8 A Deeper Look at Budget Support

According to De Renzio, aid advocates believe that the effectiveness of old-styled conditioned aid was undermined by a lack of ownership by recipient countries and poor aid coordination. Budget support is therefore seen as one such modality that could solve the above challenges by channeling aid through the national budgets of recipient countries.

In *Smart Aid for African Development ,* Joel Barkan highlights some reasons why budget support is preferred. He notes that; budget support is viewed as a vehicle for shifting from conditionality based lending to the establishment of harmonious partnerships between donors and recipients as it was:

> a logical response to demands by African leaders for partnership and ownership regarding aid for development which required no rigid

> conditionalities and was in a fundamental sense, an expression of trust by members of the donor community in the anticipated performance of recipient governments and by extension their leaders. (Barkan, 2009: Page 72).

Budget support is further viewed as a mechanism for achieving efficient lending since it reduces transaction costs and rewards good performers while reducing or denying aid to poor performers without resorting to conditionality. Budget support also provides an opportunity for donor assistance to be coordinated and harmonized.

According to De Renzio, evaluations of budget support show that it has led to increased pro-poor spending, strengthened budget processes as sector ministries engage in national budget processes, improved public finance management and strengthened incentives for policy reform.

Oxfam believes that budget support is the best way to channel aid compared to projects which are useful for piloting new approaches and one off interventions but do not cover running costs desperately needed by public systems. Where donor projects are implemented parallel to public systems, they compete for the available resources causing huge shortage of skilled staff in the public sector. The United Kingdom based charity further recommends that coordinating aid around national budgets, building government capacity to deliver services and the provision of long term, predictable and sustainable financing are of more essence.

Despite the above justifications of aid, the two authors shade a grim picture about the effectiveness of aid. De Renzio further highlights findings from country evaluations that have shown that budget support has not resulted to improved efficiency in public spending neither reduction in the obstacles to service quality, despite an expansion in expenditure. In addition to that the role of parliament in the budget process remains weak while the expected improvement in intra-government incentives and democratic accountability are less visible while poverty impacts remain uncertain.

Budget support is associated with more problems. The first of these is the lack of predictability that comes with the governance and fiduciary risks that budget support is subject to. Secondly, donors fail to realize that African political systems are not compatible with the participatory process and transparent administrative practices on which budget support is based. Also, donors use budget support as a way of 'pushing money out the door' in the face of increasing budgets and reducing staff numbers.

Barkan also notes that the driving motives for budget support have nothing to do with the needs and conditions of the recipient country rather by institutional dynamics and culture that is rewarding to the workers in aid institutions. The World Bank operates in the style of a conventional bank where its operations and successes are dependent on its ability to lend its capital to potential clients. Bank staff are therefore under pressure to meet lending targets, which if they achieve

are rewarded. So budget support is a channel of large capital flows out of the World Bank. Budget support also provides an escape route for both bilateral and multilateral donors to account for the impact of aid. The burden of accountability solely lies on the recipient.

Barkan continues to expound on the limitations of budget support. First and foremost, budget support is premised on the assumption that a combination of 'sound macro-economic policy' and 'partnership' through this modality, will result in faster development and poverty reduction, than project lending. The reality has been that budget support has not fostered partnerships in all cases. The argument that budget support will succeed where conditioned assistance failed is flawed. First it is based on an entirely 'economistic' view borrowed from an almost universal experience of developing countries post independence where poverty reduction and economic growth was associated with macro-economic policies introduced following the economic stagnation of the 1970s and 1980s to back this up.

However the experience of the 1990s and beyond shows that getting macroeconomic policy right is only a necessary but insufficient condition for poverty alleviation. Further still, just because budget support reduces transaction costs, does not guarantee its effectiveness.

Barkan very strongly states that there are more variables like societal context and governance especially the political context; influencing the effectiveness of aid than just macroeconomic policy and reduction in aid transaction costs. According to him, sociological, historical and cultural contexts within which aid programs are implemented greatly affect the outcomes of these programmes, and because budget support takes the form of cash transfers to government treasuries, it is rarely tailored to local conditions as project aid is.

Also, the definition of governance especially by the World Bank is reportedly warped limited only to economic governance and ignoring

> the totality of the relationships between the rulers and the ruled, between those who control the state and the citizens. It also includes the demand side of the relationship- how citizens and organized interests are able to make claims on the state (Barkan, 2009: 76)

The World Bank ignores political governance; mainly because of bylaws that forbid the bank's staff from undertaking political considerations when determining the level of assistance.

Secondly, the bank is just preoccupied with the 'economics' with the result that funding has continued even to the undemocratic political regimes like Ethiopia and Uganda where corruption is appalling, HIV/AIDS rates are rising and poverty levels alarming.

It is further argued that budget support is a significant provider of political finance on one hand and an unintended funder of corruption given the need for political finance with funds diverted to unaudited state accounts or accounts whose audits are not disclosed to the public.

Barkan makes four fundamental conclusions about budget support. First, that budget support alone without conditions does not guarantee both development and reform. Secondly, budget support if combined with macro-economic policy can finance and sustain bad governance. Thirdly, that if sustainable development is contingent on accountable, transparent institutions free from corruption, then budget support should go to countries with a serious commitment to macro-economic and democratic and administrative reform. Therefore some measure of conditionality is unavoidable. Finally that large scale budget support even to countries that use it effectively can perpetuate dependency with little incentives by recipients to find alternative sources of revenue especially if budget support accounts for a significant portion of the national budget. Also budget support supports sustainable development depending on the quality of governance in recipient countries.

2.9 Expenditure and service delivery Trends

Lister et al (2006) shows that public expenditures have increased in real terms but the increase has been more rapid since 1998/99 when the increase averaged 13

percent a year, until 2003/04, given more predictable aid flows as well as an increase in domestic revenues. Public administration on the other hand as a proportion of public expenditures fell from 15 percent in 1997/998 to 12 percent in 2003/04 while the cost of financing the budget has increased significantly, (Lister et al, 2006). Significantly the proportions of discretionary resources available to GOU increased from 55 percent in 1994/95 to 67 percent in 2003/04.

On the other hand discretion at local government was severely undermined by rapid expansion and proliferation of earmarked conditional grants combined with declining local revenues and a relative decline in the unconditional grants. In terms of efficiency, Lister et al suggest that efficiency of public expenditure increased between 1994 and 2004 with public administration overheads declining as a share of public expenditure, a slight increase in the share of sector budgets allocated to service delivery but has been recently offset by increases in domestic interest payments. Since 1999/00, there has been a slow but steady increase in the recurrent spending relative to development evenly distributed between salary and non-salary expenditures. Over the same period, there has been an increase in domestic development expenditure relative to donor-financed projects, and there are indications that this has led to a slight fall in aggregate project overhead costs.

2.10 Aid and Increasing Expenditure

Lister et al further point out that between 1997/98 and 2003/04, Programme aid contributed to 31 percent increases in real total public expenditures while project

support contributed by only 18 percent only. The largest other contributor was domestic revenue which amounted to 33 percent of public expenditure. Budget support caused a shift in public expenditure towards Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) priorities via the Poverty Alleviation Fund (PAF). Increased allocations to the PEAP priorities had the knock-on effect of increasing transfers to local governments. This combined with the fact that many donors have phased out area based programmes in favor of co-financing the local government development grant (notionally earmarked sector budget support), has improved the equity of local government expenditure. Budget support funds have made a strong contribution to the increase in external funding subject to the budget process.

The Lister report further indicates that budget support has caused rigidities in spending. Many of the rigidities being encountered in budget allocation by central government and by local governments can be traced back to the PAF. Government's commitment to maintain PAF expenditures as a proportion of the GOU budget and disburse them in full, limits government's discretion in the budget preparation and in execution.

Similarly the limited definition of poverty reducing programmes in the PAF also results in the exclusion of interventions that are indirectly poverty-reducing. In so far as this is an important avenue of continued partnership between government and donors in sectors, PAF and full general budget support arrangements, PGBS

is now contributing to a degree of rigidity in expenditure allocations. Rigidities resulting from increasing debt service obligation are primarily the result of domestic borrowing to sterilize aid inflows, while increased wage expenditures are a logical consequence of the expansion of public services, which have been fueled by general budget support.

Though many aid advocates associate budget support with increasing predictability in donor funding, the Lister report shows that predictability out of this aid modality has been weak. Over the three year period 1999/00-2001/02, the disbursement rate of programme aid excluding HIPC averaged 60 percent of budget. In 2000/01 disbursements were only 70 percent of projections largely because Poverty Reduction Support Credit (PRSC1) expected in 2000/01 was disbursed in 2001/02. However since 2002/03 budget support disbursements have been more predictable averaging 8 percent below commitments. Project aid has been more erratic except for project aid within the budget. Also between projects there seem to be variations in disbursements, given the quality of project-by-project donor commitment data. Despite its volatility, budget support has been provided consistently over the past six years, hence ensuring relative stability in its contribution to increased discretionary financing in the budget which in turn for the GOU commitments relating to the PAF imply predictability of budget implementation.

The report further shows that allocative efficiency improved through shifting expenditures to 'pro-poor' expenditures contributed to by budget support. It was possible to increase both development and recurrent funding to service providers including local governments, relative to central ministries and the public administration sector resulting to more efficient aggregate expenditure.

In terms of operational efficiency the Lister report shows there was a balance between recurrent and capital expenditures and within recurrent expenditures a better balance between wage and non-wage spending, although there are signs of reversal from the perspective of local governance since 2003. Also, GOU development spending is more efficient than donor-financed development spending.

2.11 PGBS and service delivery

According to the Northern Uganda Public Expenditure Review (NUPER, 2007), PGBS has helped to pay for an expansion of pro-poor service delivery, most visibly through the PAF and Sector Wide Approaches (SWAp) mechanisms. This has resulted in increases in the quantity of services and consequently the access of health and education services by poor people. Through its flexibility PGBS has allowed more efficient and effective resource allocation for service delivery through increasing expenditure on the recurrent aspects of service delivery, along side development spending. Funding more teachers and text books along side

investments in those sectors has promoted efficiency as well as effectiveness although recent trends may be undermining earlier gains.

The quality of many services reportedly remains very poor and that PGBS has not been effective in significantly upgrading quality of service delivery. At a sector level the focus of quality improvements has been increasing the supply of inputs and not the capacity of the delivery institutions. Policy decisions have been central in explaining trends in uptake, quality and effectiveness of public services. The introduction of UPE resulted in greater uptake of education by the poor but also the initial decline in quality. PGBS made the policy more feasible by expanding available public resources, while dialogue and technical assistance has helped strengthen policy implementation.

2.12 Determinants of Education Outcomes

According to Al-Samarai (2003), determinants of education spending can be categorized as hardware, software, teachers, management and institutional structure and context and background variables.

Hardware

With respect to hard ware variables, the quality of school buildings and classrooms including libraries may comprise the hardware determinants of education outcomes. Decisions about the quality of school facilities must face up to the issue of construction costs especially in the drive to achieve EFA by 2015. Other than costs, community involvement in the design and procurement of

school buildings has a positive contribution to expanding school facilities at reasonable standards of quality. While going beyond a basic level of building quality does not yield much extra benefit for learning achievement, to allow facilities to deteriorate or use very sub standard temporary buildings and classrooms can hold back learning achievement.

A minimum basic quality of school facilities matters significantly for achievement outcomes. Adequate sanitation in terms of water and latrines is essential for increasing the willingness of parents to enroll their girls as they prefer separate toilets for boys and girls. Also, reducing the distance that girls must travel especially as girls enter the upper grades of primary is important but implies that more schools or classrooms have to be built. This can also lead to significant reductions in drop-out rates, especially for girls.

Despite improvements in school construction, there are still many poor communities left behind in terms of quantity and quality of available school facilities. Donors have therefore gone from supporting 'bricks and mortar' to focusing software.

Software

Text book availability can lead to large gains in learning mathematics especially where they have been scarce. In Ghana, before the provision of textbooks primary schools that had been the best in Africa deteriorated to the point where primary

graduates scored no better on simple reading tests than those who had not been to school.

Curriculum issues are important as well. Proportion of total instruction time devoted to reading, total days and hours of instruction to be included in the school year, complete array of subjects to be covered and the topics within each are important for learning achievements.

Of particular importance should be the difference between the hours of instruction officially mandated and what actually happens in the classroom. Improving instruction time especially for schools in impoverished environments can improve learning achievement. There is a large difference between official and actual instruction time in the classrooms for various reasons such as absenteeism, illness especially debilitating diseases like HIV/AIDS and tardiness among teachers. Class size too does affect instruction time as smaller classes allow for more time and attention to each student. Adequately maintained classrooms can also avoid time loss on instruction.

The language of instruction is important for consideration. While colonial languages are used for instruction in many developing countries, there is evidence that children do well at mastering concepts of reading and notions of numbers and shapes and arithmetic in their own language. In Madagascar, studies show poor

performance of children in examinations where there is extensive use of French in school.

Teachers

Class size and pupil teacher ratios are related to how many teachers should be hired. It is assumed that reducing class size allows teachers more time for instruction yet there is evidence that even with class reduction, teachers do not change their method of teaching in response to a smaller class size.

Teachers' education and certification have a positive association with children's score on achievement tests. Although there is no compelling support for the belief that higher salaries would lead to better quality teachers, excessively low teacher salaries can have a negative effect. If teachers find it hard to maintain their living standards, the results can be absenteeism, low morale, the search for other jobs leading to declining student performance. Teacher training is important as well as better trained teachers are believed to be more effective in terms of cognitive achievements.

Management and institutional structures

Al-Samarai further illustrates the importance of management and institutional structures in driving outcomes. According to him there are many contextual factors outside the school that education policy analysts examine. The most typical being individual student characteristics, family background, and community characteristics.

The most frequently mentioned student characteristic is innate intelligence or Intelligence Quotient (IQ), and studies that have some measure of this usually find it to be a significant factor in learning achievement although intelligence is perceived to be outside the influence of school interventions and government policy, which may not fully be the case, as shown by health and nutrition studies.

Health and nutrition status can be both an input factor as well as an outcome of schooling as illness of various sorts, for example, malaria in tropical countries, can cause absenteeism as well as reduced energy levels in class. Lack of nutrition at home can lead to poor performance, even if attendance is regular. In addition, there are the various physical and mental disabilities that occur in all societies. It has been shown that reduced learning capacity can result from poor health and nutrition due to poverty.

2.13 Determinants of pupil performance

Another study in Uganda attempts to understand the influence of pupil background characteristics, availability of school inputs, teacher characteristics, teaching strategies and school administration on pupil performance in primary six (Nannyonjo, 2007).

According to Nannyonjo, the education level of parents had a significant influence on pupils' performance in mathematics and English although the

influence is higher with fathers than mothers. The study further found that the larger the family from which the child came, the more test scores in mathematics decreased possibly because the home may not provide a conducive environment for pupils to study and attention would be divided among many people.

The study further found that the further away pupils were from school, the more likely they were to perform poorly in the two subjects since they were more likely to reach school late, spent more time traveling to and from school and spending less time on study and concentrated less because they were often exhausted.

Other characteristics like the availability of text books at home had a strong influence on pupils' performance. Younger children scored higher than older ones while pupils who spoke English and vernacular at home performed better than those who spoke only vernacular.

With respect to availability of school inputs, Nannyonjo's report shows that large class sizes were related to lower pupil classes although in some instances large classes performed as high as pupils in smaller classes. The class influence is greater for mathematics than English. Further still, a high pupil ratio had a small but negative correlation with test scores.

The study further finds that although significant, funding per pupil are positively correlated but rather lowly with mathematics and English test scores. Time was

also found time to be a significant input having a positive and significant influence in the performance of pupils. With regards to pupil to desk ratios, Nannyonjo further shows that there a negative relationship between pupil to desk ratios and class performance.

Nannyonjo further examines the influence of teacher characteristics particularly qualification, in service teacher training, age, teacher experience, tenure and distance of teacher's residence from school. With respect to training, Nannyonjo asserts that, teacher qualification except for university education, does not have a significant influence on performance. In service teacher training was only found to have a significant and positive influence for English but a significant and negative influence with mathematics.

Nannyonjo further shows that there is a negative relationship between teachers' age and pupil performance with pupils' test scores generally declining as teachers' age increases. Further still, Nannyonjo finds that teacher experience only had a significantly positive influence on pupil performance only up to between six to ten years showing that employing more experienced teachers may not necessarily guarantee good performance. According to Nannyonjo, teaching strategies and school administration are part of the determinants of pupil performance.

2.14 UPE Evolution in Uganda

Civil strife witnessed in Uganda between the 1970s and 1980s impacted on government's ability to deliver education services. Yet even right before the mid 1980s a number of commissions had been set up to review the education sector and make recommendations for improvements with no substantial outcomes. In 1992 however, the recommendations from the 1989 Education Policy Review Commission were incorporated into the Government White Paper.

One of the most immediate things undertaken in 1992/3 was the gradual abolition of Parents Teachers Association (PTA) fees which were seen as an impediment to enrollment. Government proceeded to increase financing to primary schools. This however did not help enrollment rates as PTA fees were still being charged in most schools and additional government resources were only complementing these resources.

In 1996 after President Museveni won the elections he declared that primary education for the first four children in the family was free. In 1997, government committed to paying tuition fees for four children per family, providing instructional materials, school construction, teacher training and teacher salaries. This caused enrollment to increase by about 73 percent (Al-Samarai, 2003) in government aided schools. This upsurge drove the Ministry of Education and the its donor partners to draw out comprehensive investment plans for the education sector.

The Education Sector Investment Plan has provided a framework under which the education sector has developed over the years with registered success in some areas. The expansion of primary outcomes however led to the deterioration of learning outcomes.

The announcement of UPE led to increased enrollment with primary gross enrollment increasing by 45 percent. The highest increases in enrollment were registered in standard 1 which accounted for 55 percent of the total increases in enrollment. The increase in enrollees could be seen from over or under age children. Survival rates though appear to have worsened with the introduction of UPE.

While 50 percent of standard 1 enrollees had reached standard five, only 37 percent of 1997 enrollees had reached standard seven. A policy of no repeating was introduced to improve the flow of students through the education system and free up space to accommodate the increase. Drop outs have also increased with the expansion of primary education. As a consequence of primary school expansion, learning outcomes have tended to decline, (Al-Samarai, 2003).

Although the ESIP intended to increase the number of quality teachers recruited, the education sector has had trouble recruiting teachers and subsequently reducing pupil-teacher ratios. Pupil-teacher ratios are highest at lower primary, making teaching more difficult and partly responsible for the high drop out rates.

Classroom construction has not kept pace with increasing enrollments, resulting to overcrowding and sometimes double shifting especially in lower primary.

2.15 Financing primary Education

Donor financing of primary education takes the form of general budgetary support, sector budget support and donor education projects. Donors fund the majority of education development expenditure and since the abolition of fees substantial donor support has gone into improving the management and administration of the education system

Table 2.1: Donor Financed education Expenditure

Financial Year	% Total
1990/91	77.1
1992/93	82.4
1994/95	85.1
1995/96	88.9
1996/97	84.9
1997/98	85.9
1998/99	57.9
2000/01	32.4

Source: Al-Samarai, 2003

The majority of primary school expenditure has been on teachers salaries. After the abolition of fees, fees on non wage expenditure started to increase owing to

increases in government expenditure on teaching and learning materials and increases in capitation grants given to districts for primary schooling.

2.16 Public expenditure and education

High enrollment rates have been associated with greater public expenditures since it is necessary to increase some educational inputs to increase access. However after the enrollment stabilized, increases in pupil per expenditure did not have an impact on access. Higher levels of per pupil spending are also associated with lower repetition rates. Although automatic promotion was introduced at a time when per pupil expenditure was also rising.

2.17 Summary and conclusions

In all the literature reviewed, emphasis has been laid on the aid instruments to Uganda and the growing importance of certain instruments of general budget support. The literature reviewed does put arguments for and against aid, while others associate increasing public spending, and improved service delivery to increasing aid.

The literature also reviews the evolution of universal primary education, and factors that influence access, quality, performance and achievement in universal primary education. They range from software, hardware, family background, contextual issues, teacher attributes and the quality of management among other things.

However as much as there are arguments for and against aid, and its relationship with development outcomes, there is limited empirical evidence to back any of the arguments. There is limited examination of the relationship between aid and development outcomes. This study therefore sought to fill such a gap by demonstrating the relationship between aid and development outcomes and using universal primary education outcomes as a case in point.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents an account of how the study was carried out. It highlights the study design, the study area, justifying its choice, data sources and collection instruments, methods of data processing, analysis. The chapter also highlights the limitations of the study and what efforts were made to overcome them.

3.1 Study Design

The study takes both a qualitative and quantitative approach. From the qualitative side, the study reviewed numerous literature, undertook semi structured interviews with key informant district education staff, sub county officials, community members and teachers in the districts of Pader (Lapono and Atanga Sub Counties) Observation was also used to enrich the study. The study used econometric data software EVIEWS to process and analyze aid and education data. Tables, graphs and charts using EXCEL Microsoft Programme are used to present data in different forms.

3.2 Data Collection instruments

Data was collected using numerous means.

Secondary literature

A review of existent literature from aid agencies, ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development and Ministry of Education and Sports reports on aid transfers, UPE statistics was done. District data information for the study period was obtained from reports on education needs assessment for Northern Uganda undertaken by the ministry of Education. Some school records available on education in Pader District specifically and Northern Uganda in general were also used.

Data on education aid transfers to Uganda was obtained through extracting information from the Creditor Reporting System (CRS) Database of the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). The CRS is a database containing bilateral and multilateral official development assistance commitments and disbursements as recorded by the OECD.

Interviews

Interviews were used for the purpose of enriching the analysis and triangulating some of the information obtained through the secondary literature reviews. Semi structured interviews accompanied by methods such as historical timelines, stakeholder analysis among others were used with education staff, school authorities and communities.

3.3 Sampling Techniques and choice

The study sites were purposively selected. Northern Uganda was selected because its education performance has been poor and also because in comparison to other regions has higher poverty levels (UBOS, 2006). The region has also had an influx of programmes supported by bilateral and multilateral agencies and lastly because of its experience with conflict. Pader District was chosen because of its experience with conflict, interface with programmes supported by bilateral and multilateral agencies. The District was considered under researched compared to other districts like Gulu. Other factors like urbanization and rural remoteness and connectedness to other parts of the region. Pader neighbours Karamoja region with most of its sub counties being isolated from the town due to poor infrastructure.

Lapono and Atanga Sub Counties, Ongalo and Lapaya villages were selected using a snowball approach with district and sub county officials directing the research team to areas that had severely been impacted by conflict, had Non Governmental Organization (NGO) and government programmes. Respondents were selected purposively, based on the role they played in the education sector or information they were deemed to have.

3.4 The Sample Population and Size

The study had a focus on Northern Uganda as is defined by the Government of Uganda as a whole. Despite the expanse of the region, quantitative data analysis was done for ten districts as is available from the Ministry of Education Northern

Uganda Education Needs Assessment Report. The districts whose data were used include; Adjumani, Gulu, Amuru, Apac, Amolatar, Lira, Dokolo, Kitgum, Pader and Oyam. For the field visits, Pader district was visited. Lapono and Atanga Sub Counties and Ongalo and Lapaya villages were visited.

Pader District is located in the Northern Part of Uganda, bordered by Kitgum to the north, Abim and Kotido to the east, Gulu to the west and Lira to the South. Curved out of Kitgum District in 2001, the district is approximately 6,929.2 square miles of which over half is used for farming. It is largely inhabited by the Acholi, with its population by 2008 estimated to be 436,000. Of these 75 percent live in rural areas.

By 2008, Pader District had 19 sub counties with 223 primary schools and 190,428 children enrolled in primary school. The number of teachers was estimated to be 1,847. In 2004, pupil teacher ratios and pupil classroom ratios were 82 and 145 respectively and later in 2006, the same were 144 and 149 respectively. Like most districts in Acholi and Lango, Pader was affected by the LRA war, which saw massive displacement of populations.

Lapono Sub County is located in the eastern part of the district and borders Kotido. In fact during the study, there were some Karamojong within the research area, who communities reported had fled famine in Karamoja. It remains a remote part of the district only accessed by the public using one car that makes its route

to Kotido once a week. In some areas, the road was consumed up by bush while some water from streams was flowing across the road. The Sub County has eight primary schools in the four parishes of Amyel, Lira Kato, Laponomuk and Kaket. The total number of teachers are 60, three of whom are female, although teachers and communities reported that there were only two. The total number of children enrolled in primary were 5451. The Sub County was affected by the LRA whose entry point was Kaket Parish in 1998. In 2003 the situation worsened with ambushes, abduction, killings of civilians by the LRA. This resulted to displacement of the population into camps in Lira Kato and Kalong. Schools too were displaced.

Ongalo Village is located in Kaket Parish. It is a remnant of what was previously an IDP camp. It has one school, Ongalo Primary School started in 1998, and had an enrollment of about 438 pupils. The school had seven teachers two of whom were on transfer. And also near by is Ongalo health centre which has only one female health worker, who is considered a role model in the community especially for girls.

Atanga Sub County borders Kitgum district and has four parishes including; Kal, Ngo Otto, Pungole and Pucoda and has 69 villages with a population of 21,000. By the time of the research there were 5000 people living in camps. Atanga was the first Sub County to be displaced as a result of LRA incursions in 1997. The sub county has 16 primary schools with 7831 pupils and 100 teachers.

Aruu Primary School is located in Lapaya village, about nine miles away from the Pader-Kitgum Road. It is situated near the famous Aruu Falls, which are home to the similium fly which carries germs that cause river blindness. Three quarters of the children were feared to be vulnerable to river blindness and exhibited epileptic tendencies. The village was estimated to have 150 households although people were only rebuilding their livelihoods following a return from the camp. The village is surrounded by a forest.

Aruu Falls Primary is located only a few meters from where most homes are. It is built of reed, has no desks. The children sit and write on the floor. Those who are lucky have slates provided by UNICEF to write, other wise, they write on the floor. The school has no latrine, so teachers and pupils use the bush to ease themselves. The school has four teachers one of whom is female, but these live outside the school at Angagura trading centre because there are no houses for teachers. It had a total enrollment of 166 pupils.

3.5 Data processing and analysis

In an attempt to meet the objectives of the study, a number of processes were used during data processing and analysis.

Aid statistics in the OECD CRS system were sorted to purposely select figures on aid to education for the period 1997 to 2008 to Uganda by different Development

Assistance Committee (DAC) members. Regional education statistics on UPE enrolment were recorded. Districts that did not have statistics for more than five years were not recorded. The aid records and regional education statistics were used in regression analysis.

Primary data from the district, Sub County and community level were recorded, and later field reports were written and analyzed in an attempt to answer research questions. The field findings were comparatively used and analyzed against the regression results.

The basic model used in regression was adopted from Dreher et al (2006) an analysis of the impact of aid on education in 100 countries between 1970-2005. The model was;

$School_{it} = \alpha + \beta_1 aid_{it} + \beta_2 Spending_{it} + \beta_3 X + \eta_i + \varepsilon_{it}$

Where $school_{it}$ represented school enrolment in each country i at a given year, t, aid_{it}, foreign aid given to the education sector, and $spending_{it}$ expenditure on education. X was the vector of control variables, η_i represented country fixed effects, while $_{ti}\sum$ represents the disturbance.

This study adopted the above model with modifications that is to say eliminating spending, country fixed effects and the vector control variables. The regression model used in the study therefore was;

$Enrol_t = \alpha + \beta_1 aid_t + \varepsilon_t$

Where $Enrol_t$ represented enrollment in Northern Uganda for a given year, aid_t was aid to the education sector in a given year.

Education aid statistics and specifically aid to basic education were regressed against enrollment in Northern Uganda. After regressions were run a number of tests were also run. I tested for normality using histograms and results were considered to be normally distributed once the kurtosis was or very close to three and the Jarque-Bera statistic was any where near to zero. The study also tested for auto correlation in the residuals. Using the Runs test, where there were more than two runs, there was no autocorrelation between the residuals while the reverse applied.

In testing hypothesis, the test for statistical significance was done. Because the study was looking for the significance of the aid coefficient, the *t* distribution was used.

Tables, graphs, charts using EXCEL were used to present data.

3.6 Data Sources

In order to obtain data on aid statistics to the education sector in Uganda, the study used the online Creditor Reporting System of the OECD. It shows records of official development assistance committed and disbursed by members of the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) to various countries.

Regional data statistics on enrollment were obtained from Ministry of Education, Northern Uganda Education Needs Assessment Report. Local level information was obtained through reviewing district reports and statistics on education, technical staff in the district, District, Sub County and Village administrators and councilors. Community meetings, key informant interviews provided information on trends factors influencing UPE enrolment at community and household.

3.7 Limitations of the study

One of the major limitations of the study is that it uses, data on aid committed as a proxy for actual aid disbursement. The reason for this was because; records on aid disbursements on the OECD database were only recorded not until 2002. And given that the study was looking at years before 2002, it then had to use data on commitments which were all available. Had the study used the disbursement records, the sample size would have been very small. Another reason for using OECD commitments rather than actual disbursement is the incompatible manner in which aid and education statistics are recorded. Aid statistics in Uganda are recorded by GoU financial year which runs from July to June while the education statistics are recorded based on the school calendar year which runs from January to December. The OECD database's statistics records are recommended in the normal calendar and annually as the education ones making regression possible.

CHAPTER FOUR

EMPIRICAL FINDINGS, PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings and answers to the research questions. The first part answers the question of what trend education aid in Uganda has taken for the period under review. It highlights any emerging issues. This part mainly uses OECD data. The second part answers the question of what the trend of enrollment in Northern Uganda has looked like and relies on statistics from the ministry of Education and field discussions. The last part presents the findings that answer the question of the impact of education aid on enrolment. This part relies on regression analysis of OECD and Ministry of Education data. The field findings helped triangulate the literature review and regression results for better discussions.

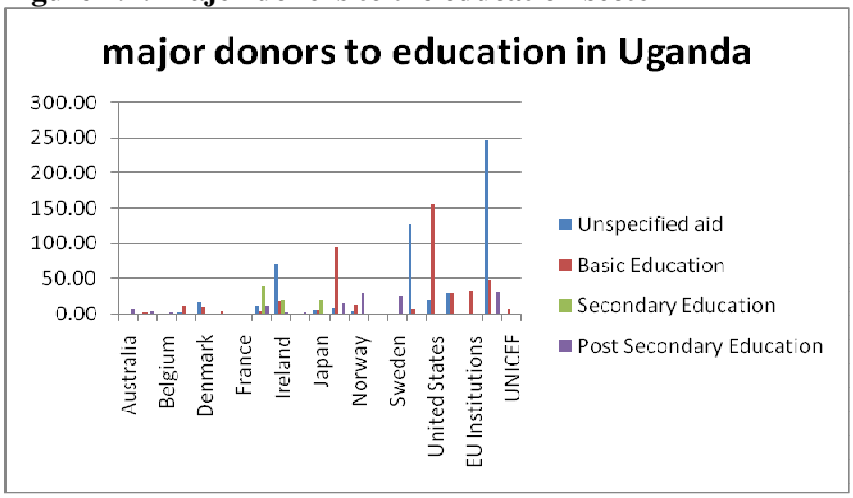
4.1 The Trends of Education Aid in Uganda

The major questions in this section included; who are the major donors to Uganda's education sector, what forms does education aid take and what trends has education aid exhibited?

4.1.1 Who are the Major Donors to Education

The Figure below illustrates who the major donors to the sub sectors of the education sector are.

Figure 4.1: Major donors to the education sector



Source: OECD CRS Database

From the above chart, key donors to Uganda's education sector can be seen. The World Bank via the IDA is the biggest multilateral lender, followed by the African Development Fund, EU and UNICEF. The IDAs biggest share of education aid goes to unspecified aid to education, followed by basic and secondary education.

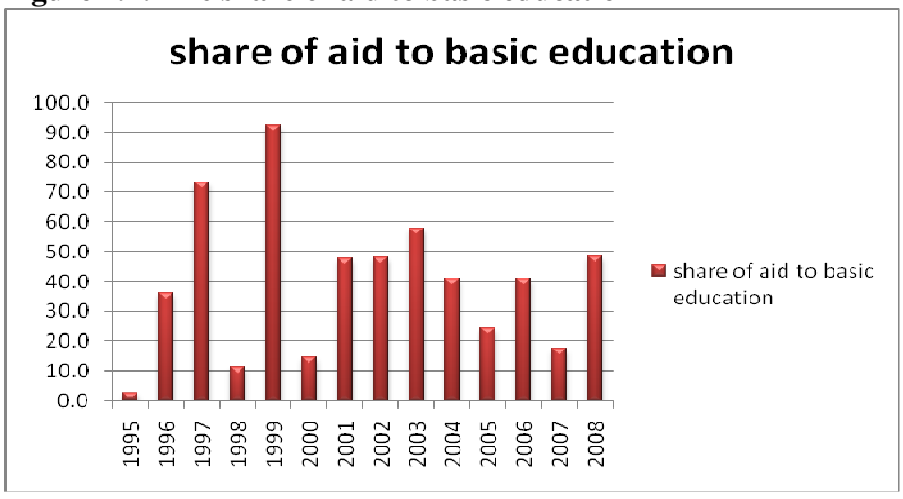
Among bilateral donors, the United States of America is the leading lender to education sector putting most of its priority on basic education and secondly unspecified aid to basic education. United Kingdom follows suit with most of its aid to the education sector being unspecified and a small proportion to basic education. Other notable lenders include; Netherlands whose major contributions

go to basic education followed by unspecified aid to basic education. The case is similar with Ireland.

4.1.2 What forms does aid take?

As can be seen from the above, aid to the education sector takes many forms. That is unspecified aid, aid to basic, secondary and post secondary education. It is however worth noting that UNESCO estimates 50 percent of unspecified education and 10 percent of budget support to be channeled basic education. Aid to basic education therefore takes the greatest proportion of education aid. Although the figure has fallen since 1999 fluctuating between 40 and 50 percent share of education aid and falling near to 20 percent in 2007. The fall in the share of basic aid must just be because most aid to the sector is channeled to the sector through budget support, causing a fall in aid ear marked for basic education. Although this does not mean that aid to basic education fell per se. Below is an indication of the proportion of aid to basic education to total aid to the education sector based on OECD statistics.

Figure 4.2: The share of aid to basic education



Source: OECD Database

As has earlier been noted education aid takes many forms including budget support and project assistance. These are mainly channeled through government's budgetary instruments. Education aid also takes other forms like humanitarian assistance channeled through NGOs, local Government and United Nations Agencies.

In Pader District, the Northern Uganda Social Action Fund (NUSAF) was heralded for constructing classroom blocks through its community development Initiative component. The US $ 133 Million project was largely funded by the world Bank with co-funding from the GoU. The project was launched in the district in 2004 and Pader District had by 2007 had 5 percent allocations of the total fund allocations in the region. Discussions with the project staff revealed that NUSAF had constructed 58 classroom blocks in various sub counties in the district. However the need for more classes was still overwhelming given that 60 schools reportedly learning under trees.

A number of challenges were alluded to regarding the availability of classes. According to the Acting DEO, funding for construction of classroom was very limited. Although there was a school facilities grant, and funds coming in through the local government development programme, the need for classrooms was higher than could be met with the shortest time. Construction was also phased, with the most needy sub counties targeted first.

Also, it was noted that most of the infrastructure had been constructed in schools that hosted displaced communities. NGOs like Uganda Red Cross, GOAL, AVSI and AMREF constructed classrooms, pit latrines or boreholes among other things. These were not available in areas that displaced populations were returning to.

Ongalo primary school had relatively more infrastructure than Aruu Primary school. In Ongalo a stakeholder analysis revealed that international NGOs through their projects had contributed to the quality of education and improving the learning environment. GOAL, MEDAIR, AVSI, UNICEF, AMREF were all reported to have supported the school ranging from; roofing classrooms, constructing pit latrines, boreholes, water tanks among other things.

Aruu on the contrary did not have desks. Children were sitting on mud floors and when it rains, classes had to be halted because rain water spilled into the house through the reed wall. It can be seen that project aid channeled through NGOs plays a critical role in enhancing quality of education. Although the district recognized the contributions of the different organizations, some leaders pointed out that improvements were needed in the areas of sharing budgets and work plans, in order for the district to reflect this in the development plan.

It appears that project support channeled through NGOs appears to be more effective than modalities channeled through the budget as they may not be

tailored to the situation and are plagued by delays and are dependent on a weak local government to deliver. It was however not possible to quantify the amount of aid channeled through NGOs because these are usually implemented through less well coordinated programmes.

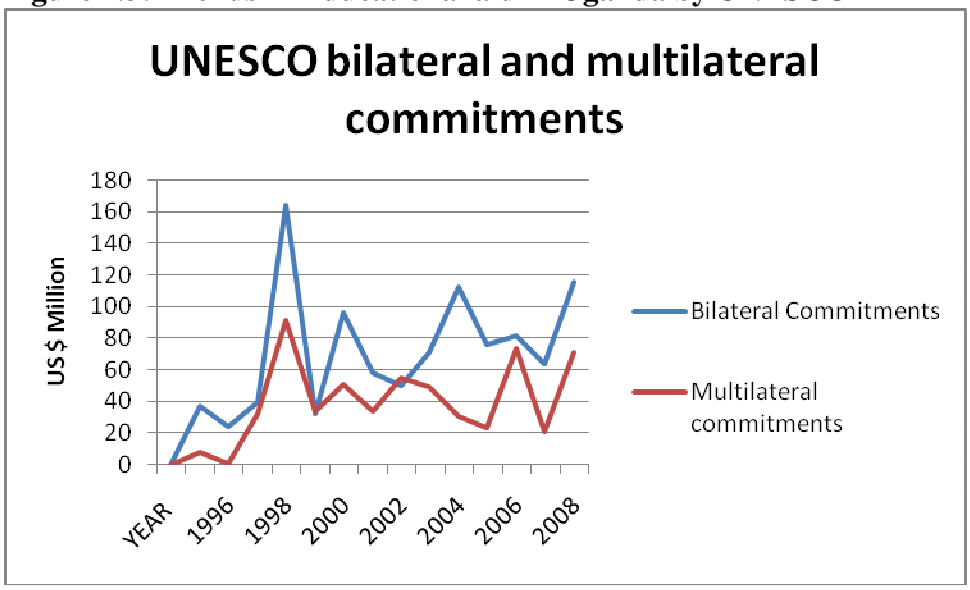
Local Government inadequate capacity to deliver aid funded programmes in conflict was highlighted as a major drawback. The poor infrastructure was attributed to the weak capacity of local government to implement national priorities in conflict. There was an outcry amongst district staff for government to provide capacity building for districts. Fortunately, the Peace Recovery and Development Plan (PRDP) for Northern Uganda was already in place. Apart from having opportunities for strengthening district capacity, it was a channel for donor funds to Northern Uganda. There were however concerns among district staff that even districts that were not affected by conflict or are not traditionally under the North were included. This would reduce the per capita investments in the most vulnerable areas. The PRDP was also seen as an avenue of aligning NGO programmes to government commitments in the north and enhancing harmony and coordination.

4.1.3 Trends in Education Aid

Statistics reveal that aid to education has been fluctuating rising to its highest from about the time UPE was introduced, followed by a sharp fall. The case is the

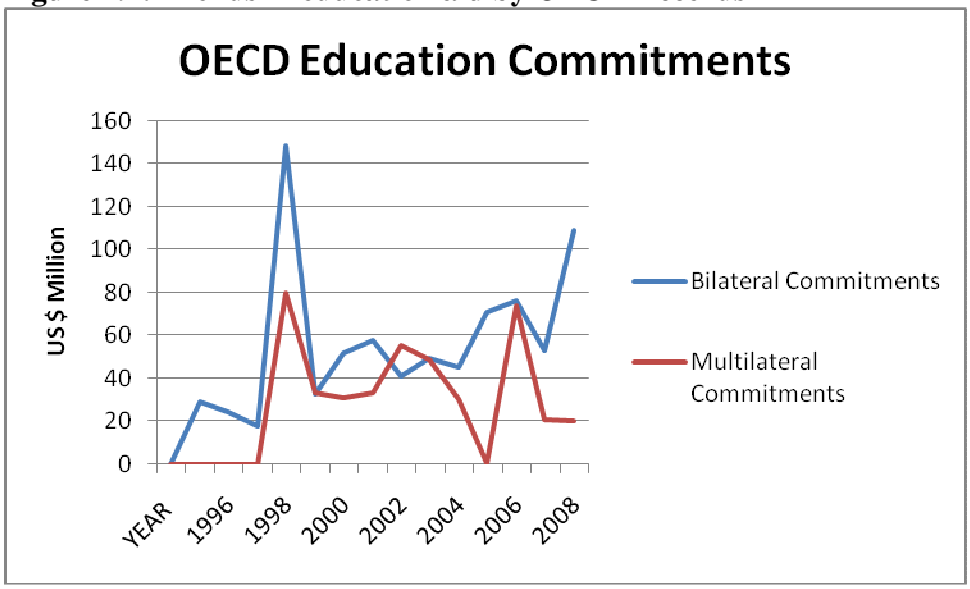
same with bilateral and multilateral lenders. Below are the illustrations of this using UNESCO and OECD statistics.

Figure 4.3: Trends in Educational aid in Uganda by UNESCO



Source: OECD Database

Figure 4.4: Trends in education aid by OECD Records



Source; OECD Database

Fluctuations appear worse for bilateral aid which seemed to have reached a peak in 1998 and has since then fallen and fluctuated from that peak. OECD records show worse trends compared to UNESCO.

Table 4.1: Donor commitments and disbursements compared

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Total Education (commit)	105.5	120.5	143.4	100.2	155.9	84.7	187.2
Basic Education (Commit)	71.1	85.8	80.8	35.4	76.2	41.5	114.6
Total Education (Disburse)	72.8	148.8	112.6	136.1	139.3	113.8	139.3
Basic Education (Disburse)	44.1	93.8	74.0	74.1	75.3	61.7	79.9

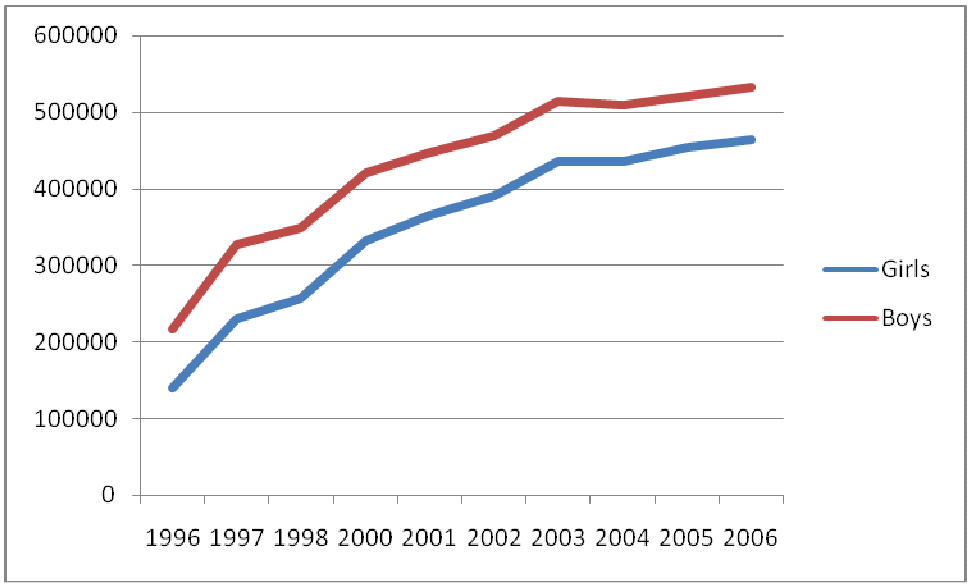
Source: OECD Data

The above table shows that aid is not disbursed as committed, with disbursements falling way above or below what was committed. This partly contributes to its unpredictability.

4.2 Trends in UPE Enrollment

The figure below shows trends in enrollment in Northern Uganda for the period under review.

Figure 4.5: Enrollment Trends in Northern Uganda 1996-2006



Source: MOES (2008)

As can be seen from the above figure, trends in enrollment in Northern Uganda has been climbing for both boys and girls. There still remain more boys enrolled in school compared to girls. A number of reasons in Pader were advanced for the increased in enrollment.

Focus group discussions with men and women in the two sub counties revealed that the introduction of Universal Primary Education had enabled children from especially poor families to access school without having to worry about fees.

Discussions in Ongalo with teachers, school management committee members and community members revealed enrollment had increased in the primary school because the school was built near to the community. Before the school was constructed, previously children had to walk to Kaket Primary school which is estimated to be between 5 to 6 miles. This would discourage parents from sending their children to far schools.

According to community members, the perceived value of education within community and among parents was high. Education was believed to facilitate people in securing higher paying alternative livelihood activities, especially following the loss of cattle (a major livelihood, social and capital asset among the Acholi) to Karamojong raids during the 1980S. Parents reported that people who had gone to school were able to secure formal employment. And like one teacher of Ongalo Primary put it, *education is a shield against uncertainty.* Examples were cited where individuals who had attained education were employed as teachers, security personnel with private companies and the army or did business. Because education was viewed as an insurance, parents saw it wise to invest in it.

Discussions in Ongalo and Aruu Falls, revealed that where food was provided at school, enrollment was high and when there was no food at school, enrollment was very low as children would be forced to keep away from school due to hunger or had to go and work to get food to eat. This was especially so with children who came from child headed households or HIV/AIDS affected families or children orphaned and living with very elderly people.

In Aruu Primary School parents contributed money for food while the school ran a school garden which supplied the school with food. In Other cases World Food Programme was reported to have run a school feeding programme. The school feeding programme by the time of the study was rumored to be closing following the peace process in Northern Uganda. The rumored closure of the programme

was a source of worry for parents since children will stay out of school since many are drawn to school because of the food. One School Management Committee member of Aruu also highlighted that the changing weather patterns, especially prolonged drought was bound to affect the meager food production in the school, fuel hunger and cause children not to concentrate at school.

Some respondents especially teachers and education department staff highlighted that enrollment was not always increasing but sometimes fell. A number of reasons were advanced. In all the discussions the LRA conflict was reported to have negatively influenced enrollment. According to many respondents, the LRA conflict created an insecure environment for education. Between 2002 and 2004 in Ongalo, the LRA blocked the road and laid ambushes and abducted or killed people. Subsequently teachers and pupils would not go to school. Between 2004 and 2005 when primary schools were displaced, all the five primary schools in Ongalo were relocated to Amyel and while there, congestion, poor sanitation, hunger children discouraged school attendance.

Negative attitudes within communities, where girls were viewed as a source of wealth were still prevalent. Teachers, school management committee and local leaders pointed out that parents were to blame for a decline in enrollment especially among girls.

In Aruu Falls, a teacher in Aruu Falls in support of this reported that; half the number of girls who were in primary one when he joined the school were in primary four and from the looks of things, may be half of those in primary four will complete primary seven. According to him, parents still believed in marrying off children in order to get bride price, which he noted was not high. A cow or goat was given as bride price.

According to school Management committee members of Aruu Falls, young girls were also lured by business men in trading centers. They later on conceived, were abandoned pregnant and were unable to continue with education. The lure to business men was mainly fueled by poverty with girls seeking to meet ends meet.

4.3 The impact of aid on UPE Enrolment

This section went a head to examine the impact of aid to basic education on UPE enrolment in Northern Uganda. Specifically in assessing the impact of education aid on enrollment, the latter was regressed against aid to basic education. Although the table shows statistics from 1995 in regression analyses, automatic adjustments are made by EVIEWS fitting within the study period.

4.3.1 The impact of Education Aid on Total Enrollment

Using the regression model;

$Enrol_t = \alpha + \beta_1 aid_t + \varepsilon_t$

Where $Enrol_t$ represented enrollment in Northern Uganda for a given year, aid_t was aid to the education sector in a given year.

Impact of aid to basic education on enrollment

The following results below were obtained after regressing total enrollment against aid to basic education.

$$Enrol_t = \alpha + \beta_1 aid_t + \varepsilon_t$$

$$Enrol_t = 548506.0 + 7341.64 aid_t + \varepsilon_t$$

$s.e$ = (106153.2) (2904.025)

t = (5.1671) (2.5281)

p = (0.0009) (0.0354)

$r^2 = 0.4441$

The above regression follows a normal distribution with a Jarque-bera statistic of 0.2 and a kurtosis of 2.6. The runs test also reveals that there are five runs implying that there is no auto regression among the residuals.

From the above results, an increase in aid to basic education by US $ one million resulted to a rise in UPE enrollment by 7342. Without aid to basic education enrollment was on average 548506. At 8 degrees of freedom and 5 percent level of significance, the computed t value (2.5281) is found to be higher than the critical value 1.860. Therefore the coefficient for aid to basic education had a statistically significant impact on enrollment.

However aid to basic education accounts for only 44 percent of the variations in enrollment in Northern Uganda.

Impact of Basic Aid on Girls Enrollment

The following results below were obtained after regressing total enrollment against aid to basic education.

$$Girls_t = \alpha + \beta_1 aid_t + \varepsilon_t$$

$$Girls_t = 231263.4 + 3761.074 aid_t + \varepsilon_t$$

$s.e$ = (54555.01) (1492.458)

t = (4.2391) (2.5201)

p = (0.0028) (0.0358)

$r^2 = 0.4425$

The above regressions follow a normal distribution with a jarque-bera statistic of 0.48 and a probability of 0.79. The runs test also reveals four runs implying no auto-correlation between the residuals.

From the above regression output it can be deduced that when aid to basic education increased by US $ one million, girls enrollment increased by 3761. Without the influence of aid, girls' enrollment in Northern Uganda on average was 231263. At 8 degrees of freedom and 5 percent level of significance the coefficient of basic aid is found to be statistically significant since its computed *t* value 2.5201 lies above the critical t value 1.860. Therefore aid to basic education equally had a significant impact on girls enrollment in Northern Uganda.

4.3.2 Discussion and analysis

The above results agree with earlier discussions that where aid has been provided in effective and accountable ways it has worked to protect rights opening up many opportunities for millions of children to access basic education. The above results also confirm the assertion that aid has led to the expansion of school enrollment from three million children in 1997 to eight million in 2003 in Uganda.

Aid drives enrollment through increasing public expenditures on necessary educational inputs. As indicated by Al-Samarai, (2003), donors have funded majority of education development expenditure and have facilitated the improvement of the management and administration of the education system.

The Northern Uganda Expenditure Review highlights that donor support has helped pay for an expansion of the funding for pro-poor service delivery especially through the Poverty Alleviation Fund (PAF). This has resulted in the increase of services and consequently enabling poor people to access services in education and health. Aid has also enhanced effective resource allocation for service delivery through increasing expenditure on the recurrent aspects of service delivery, along side development spending.

Although aid is hailed for increasing the supply of services, the quality of services remains low. Aid has not been effective in significantly upgrading the quality of services delivery.

The regression results also show that basic aid accounts for only 44 percent of the variations in enrollment. As discussed earlier a number of factors account for the increasing enrollment in Northern Uganda. The introduction of UPE, perceived rise in the value of education and its associated benefits including enabling an educated individual to access other alternative livelihood sources are among the factors. Other factors such as the availability of meals at school, distance from school, security are among other factors that cause fluctuations in enrollment.

Other factors also have contributed to driving enrollment downwards especially for girls. Negative attitudes and cultural beliefs put a preference of boys over girls with the latter being married off early as a source of bride wealth. Children also often start school late as they held at home to help with house chores and tending their siblings. Poverty remains a leading factor in keeping children out of school as hungry children from families who can only afford a meal a day and orphans are kept out of school.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

Aid has gained importance in Uganda over the years with the number of bilateral and multilateral growing. Bilateral aid accounts for the largest aid transfers to the country with the USA and the UK being the largest bilateral lenders. The World Bank's IDA and EU are the largest multilateral transfers to the country. Aid to basic education takes up the largest proportion of education aid although the trend could be reversed as more aid is channeled through the budget. Some off budget modalities can be identified in the forms of project or humanitarian assistance. These however remain poorly coordinated making their quantification equally difficult.

Aid to Uganda has been fluctuating registering increases in some years but remains highly volatile and unpredictable as donors make disbursements above or below commitments or where commitments have not been made at all. From the previous chapter, it can be seen that aid to education has exhibited a fluctuating phenomenon especially for bilateral aid, making it volatile and unpredictable. Aid disbursements have often been above or below aid commitments. Aid to basic education continues to take the biggest share of education aid. The main lenders include; the IDS, the EU and African Development Foundation for multilaterals

while USA, UK, the Netherlands and Ireland among others are the leading lenders to the education sector.

Enrollment in Northern Uganda for both boys and girls have been rising, although girls' enrollment is slower than that of boys. A number of factors have been responsible for the rise of enrollment. They range from the introduction of UPE, the rise in the perceived value of education, distance from schools, and availability of meals in schools, poverty and insecurity. Social factors including negative attitudes and cultural practices too determine whether children join school or not.

With respect to the influence of aid to basic education on enrollment, findings show that basic aid has had a positive impact on UPE enrollment, and girl child enrollment specifically. The influence of aid to basic education has been statistically significant. This confirms earlier assertions that aid when delivered in an effective and accountable manner enables poor people access education through expanding public expenditure on educational inputs. While aid has expanded service delivery, it is blamed for failing to guarantee quality.

Further, basic aid accounts for only less than fifty percent of the variations in enrollment. Other factors continue to influence enrollment. These range from policy, social, cultural, political and economic factors.

5.2 Recommendations

Some key lessons and recommendations can be made based on the findings of the study. Donors need to make aid more predictable, by observing their commitments and put efforts to harmonize. This is based on the realization that OECD figures and UNESCO figures vary from each other.

Donors may need to increasingly direct their investments on basic education. This is based on the findings that aid to basic education has had a statistically significant positive impact on enrollment. However, more aid needs to be invested in enhancing the quality of services including education.

Education actors must pay attention to contextual factors that play a great part in determining enrollment especially of people in the poorer part of the country. These include; rural development and investments, security, poverty reduction efforts for households, among other things. For enrollment and access to education to be exercised, more investments in security, poverty reduction, advocacy for the education of the girl child and infrastructural development among other things are much required. Aid can still be channeled to procure these.

Strengthening capacity for local government is very important if they are expected to deliver on national priorities. In the absence of this other aid

modalities such as project assistance channeled through appears to be more effective in assuring enrollment.

5.3 Areas of further study

This study has not exhausted nor answered all the pertinent questions with respect to the impact of aid on education outcomes. The study only looked at education. Further areas that investigations might focus on;

i. The impact of aid on institutions' capacity to deliver education in Uganda
ii. The effect of aid fluctuations on UPE outcomes.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Data Set for Enrollment and Basic Aid Figures

Year	BE	Total Enrollment	Girls Enrollment	
1995	0.8			
1996	8.8	356182	139997	
1997	13	556413	229383	
1998	25.8	604283	256581	
1999	61.1			
2000	12.1	752345	332380	
2001	43.6	812938	365190	
2002	46.4	858665	390177	
2003	56.9	948698	434637	
2004	30.9	945140	436151	
2005	17.3	974566	453313	
2006	61.3	996522	463701	
2007	13			
2008	62.6			

Appendix ii: Regression of total enrollment against aid to basic education

Dependent Variable: ENROLL
Method: Least Squares
Date: 11/03/10 Time: 05:55
Sample(adjusted): 1997 2007
Included observations: 10
Excluded observations: 1 after adjusting endpoints

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	548506.0	106153.2	5.167118	0.0009
BE	7341.640	2904.025	2.528091	0.0354

R-squared	0.444106	Mean dependent var	780575.2
Adjusted R-squared	0.374620	S.D. dependent var	213174.9
S.E. of regression	168580.8	Akaike info criterion	27.08507
Sum squared resid	2.27E+11	Schwarz criterion	27.14559
Log likelihood	-133.4254	F-statistic	6.391245
Durbin-Watson stat	0.993050	Prob(F-statistic)	0.035360

Appendix iii: Regression output for Girls enrollment against aid to basic education

Dependent Variable: GIRLS

Method: Least Squares
Date: 11/03/10 Time: 06:52
Sample(adjusted): 1997 2007
Included observations: 10
Excluded observations: 1 after adjusting endpoints

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	231263.4	54555.01	4.239087	0.0028
BE	3761.074	1492.458	2.520054	0.0358

R-squared	0.442535	Mean dependent var	350151.0
Adjusted R-squared	0.372852	S.D. dependent var	109401.9
S.E. of regression	86638.28	Akaike info criterion	25.75373
Sum squared resid	6.00E+10	Schwarz criterion	25.81424
Log likelihood	-126.7686	F-statistic	6.350674
Durbin-Watson stat	0.962341	Prob(F-statistic)	0.035806

Appendix iv: Pader District Education 2008 Statistics

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

SCHOOL STATISTICS 2008

S/N	NAME OF SCHOOL	SUB-COUNTY	PARISH	CLASSROOM STRUCTURE			ENROLMENT			LATRINE STANCES	STAFFING				DESKS	WATER	REMARKS
				PERM.	S/PERM.	TOT.	M	F	T		C	M	F	T			
1	ADILANG KULAKA	ADILANG	LABWA	6	3	9	597	564	1161	60	11	9	2	11	219	O	
2	ADILANG LALAL	ADILANG	LALAL	8	10	18	655	446	1101	32	11	10	2	12	120	BH	
3	AJWA	ADILANG	LALAL	4	0	4	422	302	724	5	07	6	1	7	89	BH	
4	CIGACIGA	ADILANG	NGEKIDI	12	0	12	588	550	1138	30	08	6	2	8	126	BH	
5	NAMABILI	ADILANG	LABWA	0	4	4	333	369	702	10	07	5	2	7	45	O	
6	ORINA	ADILANG	NGEKIDI	4	4	8	368	299	667	12	07	7	1	8	26	BH	
7	KANYIPA	ADILANG	ORINA	4	0	4	191	152	343	12	05	3	0	3	0	O	
8	LACEKOTO	ADILANG	LABWA	4	0	4	223	180	403	10	07	5	2	7	0	BH	
9	KILOKOITIO	ADILANG	LABWA	0	0	0	288	262	550	5	07	4	0	4	0	O	
10	ODOM	ADILANG	LALAL	4	0	4	272	266	538	0	07	6	1	7	82	O	
11	OKEDE	ADILANG	LALAL	0	0	0	167	173	340	0	07	5	2	7	0	BH	
				46	**21**	**67**	**4104**	**3563**	**7667**	**176**	**84**	**66**	**15**	**81**	**707**	**6**	
1	LIRA PALWO	LIRA PALWO	OMONGO	12	6	18	714	750	1464	15	20	17	3	20	90	BH	
2	ABONE	LIRA PALWO	PAICAM	7	5	12	602	449	1051	5	08	7	2	9	169	BH	
3	BIWANG	LIRA PALWO	OMONGO	4	3	7	228	174	402	6	08	5	1	6	20	BH	
4	LACEK	LIRA PALWO	OMONGO	0	3	3	296	214	510	6	08	8	1	9	33	BH	
5	LAMIYO	LIRA PALWO	PAICAM	7	0	7	341	371	712	19	08	7	2	9	85	BH	
6	OBOLOKOME	LIRA PALWO	AGENGO	4	3	7	445	393	838	16	08	6	2	8	10	BH	
7	PAICAM AYWEE	LIRA PALWO	PAICAM	4	0	4	366	314	680	3	08	7	0	7	63	BH	
8	WIMUNUPECEK	LIRA PALWO	OMONGO	2	3	5	423	413	836	3	08	6	1	7	0	BH	
9	ACURU	LIRA PALWO	AGENGO	4	3	7	210	206	416	28	08	6	1	7	42	BH	
10	AGWENG	LIRA PALWO	LUTOME	4	0	4	292	216	508	0	08	5	1	6	0	BH	
11	KWONKIC	LIRA PALWO	PAICAM	4	7	11	466	440	906	9	14	10	1	11	76	BH	
12	ALWEE	LIRA PALWO	AGENGO	0	0	0	297	204	501	3	08	6	0	6	0	0	
13	ALYEK	LIRA PALWO	PAICAM	4	0	4	106	106	212	10	07	6	2	8	66	BH	
				56	**33**	**89**	**4786**	**4250**	**9036**	**123**	**121**	**96**	**17**	**113**	**654**	**12BH**	

S/N	NAME OF SCHOOL	SUB-COUNTY	PARISH	PERM.	S/PERM.	TOT.	M	F	T	LATRINE STANCES	C	M	F	T	DESKS	WATER	REMARKS
1	ARUM	OMOT	ACHOLPII	8	0	8	577	454	1031	13	12	10	2	12	106	BH	
2	GEREGERE	OMOT	TENGE	8	0	8	725	612	1337	15	15	12	2	14	81	BH	
3	AGELEC	OMOT	AGELEC	8	0	8	408	459	867	38	08	5	1	6	0	0	
4	ATECE	OMOT	ATECE	0	6	6	575	481	1056	8	08	5	3	8	30	BH	
5	AWONODWE	OMOT	ATECE	8	0	8	245	168	413	0	07	6	1	7	0	BH	
6	KAZIKAZI	OMOT	ACHOLPII	4	3	7	460	365	825	14	08	6	2	8	32	BH	
7	OLUPE	OMOT	TENGE	4	0	4	424	485	909	7	08	9	1	10	48	BH	
8	OKWENY	OMOT	ACHOLPII	0	0	0	233	167	400	5	06	5	0	5	0	BH	
9	ACHOLPII LAPONO	OMOT	ACHOLPII	0	7	7	355	319	674	9	08	7	1	8	0	BH	
10	ATENGE	OMOT	ACHOLPII	0	4	4	289	231	520	10	06	6	0	6	0	BH	
11	LATINLING	OMOT	TENGE	4	0	4	451	291	742	5	07	6	1	7	72	BH	
12	OMOT	OMOT	AGELEC	0	0	0	168	167	335	10	06	5	1	6	88	BH	
13	OKOL	OMOT	ATECE	0	0	0	149	156	305	10	06	5	1	6	0	BH	
14	AYIKA	OMOT	AGELEC	0	0	0	372	301	673	0	06	6	0	6	0	0	
15	WANG LOBO	OMOT	TENGE	7	0	7	213	181	394								
				51	**20**	**71**	**5644**	**4837**	**10481**	**144**	**111**	**93**	**16**	**109**	**457**	**12BH**	
1	AMYEL	LAPONO	AMYEL	8	0	8	430	289	719	5	09	8	1	9	133	BH	
2	LIRA KATO	LAPONO	LIRA KATO	12	4	16	626	371	997	24	09	6	1	7	203	0	
3	KAKET	LAPONO	KAKET	7	0	7	508	396	904	2	08	7	0	7	0	0	
4	AYWEE PALARO	LAPONO	AMYEL	2	4	6	318	217	535	24	08	7	0	7	0	BH	
5	OGWANGKAMOLO	LAPONO	AMYEL	7	0	7	415	315	730	15	07	5	0	5	100	BH	
6	AWELO	LAPONO	LIRA KATO	8	0	8	301	314	615	4	07	7	1	8	203	BH	
7	ABILNINO	LAPONO	LAPONOMUK	0	7	7	261	252	513	14	08	10	0	10	0	0	
8	ONGALO	LAPONO	KAKET	4	2	6	276	162	438	21	07	7	0	7	90	0	
				48	**17**	**65**	**3135**	**2316**	**5451**	**109**	**63**	**57**	**3**	**60**	**729**	**4BH**	

S/N	NAME OF SCHOOL	SUB-COUNTY	PARISH	CLASSROOM STRUCTURE			ENROLMENT			LATRINE STANCES	STAFFING				DESKS	WATER	REMARKS
				PERM.	S/PERM.	TOT.	M	F	T		C	M	F	T			
1	KOKIL	PAIMOL	PACABOL	2	4	6	292	265	557	27	08	6	2	8	185	BH	
2	LAMINGONEN	PAIMOL	LAITA	4	0	4	438	362	800	5	06	7	0	7	0	BH	
3	LOKAPEL	PAIMOL	PACABOL	0	7	7	239	174	413	0	07	7	0	7	0	0	
4	LONGOR	PAIMOL	LAITA	6	3	9	284	250	534	20	08	5	0	5	108	BH	
5	OMIYA PACWA	PAIMOL	OMIYA PACWA	8	0	8	587	414	1001	41	10	7	1	8	159	BH	
6	PAIMOL	PAIMOL	MUTTO	13	0	13	594	442	1036	44	10	8	2	10	348	BH	
7	LOMOI	PAIMOL	OMIYA PACWA	3	0	3	363	319	682	0	07	6	0	6	0	0	
8	LABIMA	PAIMOL	OMIYA PACWA	0	0	0	311	234	545	0	06	4	0	4	0	0	
9	KAMONONJWI	PAIMOL	PACABOL	0	0	0	267	239	506	0	06	5	0	5	0	0	
10	WIPOLO SOLOTI	PAIMOL	MUTTO	6	0	6	474	346	820	16	07	5	1	6	134	BH	
11	LOCUM	PAIMOL	MUTTO	0	0	0	259	175	434	4	07	6	1	7	0	0	
12	GOTATONGO	PAIMOL	MUTTO	3	0	3	313	233	546	10	07	5	0	5	0	0	
13	AKWANG	PAIMOL	PACABOL	4	4	8	572	529	1101	4	09	8	2	10	62	0	
14	COO ODONG PARENTS	PAIMOL		0	0	0	105	106	211								
15	LABWOROMOR PIKI	PAIMOL		0	0	0	133	80	213								
				49	**18**	**67**	**4993**	**398**	**8975**	**171**	**89**	**79**	**9**	**88**	**996**	**6BH**	
1	PATONGO AKWEE	PATONGO	KAL	6	8	14	763	711	1474	15	22	20	6	26	370	BH	
2	PATONGO PRIMARY	PATONGO	LAKWA	14	0	14	769	694	1463	20	20	18	5	23	400	BH	
3	ARUMUDWONG	PATONGO	LUKWANGOLE	6	0	6	333	267	600	15	08	7	1	8	0	BH	
4	OGONG	PATONGO	OTEK	0	0	0	225	183	408	5	08	8	0	8	60	BH	
5	OLYELOWIDYEL	PATONGO	OMATOWEE	3	0	3	470	414	884	10	08	7	0	7	72	0	
6	ONUDUAPET	PATONGO	OMATOWEE	0	4	4	294	230	524	0	08	7	1	8	0	0	
7	OPYELO	PATONGO	KAL	6	0	6	503	490	993	12	08	7	1	8	108	BH	
8	OYERE	PATONGO	ODONGKIWINYO	4	4	8	346	277	622	16	08	7	1	8	39	BH	
9	BAROTIBA	PATONGO	LAKWA	4	3	7	324	208	532	8	08	8	2	10	92	BH	
10	MOODEGE	PATONGO	KAL	7	0	7	558	388	946	16	08	4	1	5	112	BH	
11	KOTOMOR	PATONGO	APOBO	0	2	2	413	338	751	2	08	7	1	8	0	BH	
12	ODOKOMIT	PATONGO	LUKEE	7	7	14	673	596	1269	25	12	10	2	12	240	BH	
13	OMATOWEE	PATONGO	OMATOWEE	0	0	0	294	409	703	5	07	6	0	6	0	0	
14	PATONGO APANO	PATONGO	KAL	0	0	0	409	290	699	0	06	3	2	5	30	0	
15	AGIRIKACA PARENTS	PATONGO	LAKWA	0	0	0	0	0	0								
				57	**28**	**85**	**6374**	**5495**	**11869**	**149**	**139**	**119**	**23**	**142**	**1523**	**10BH**	

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S/N	NAME OF SCHOOL	SUB-COUNTY	PARISH	CLASSROOM STRUCTURE			ENROLMENT			LATRINE STANCES	STAFFING				DESKS	WATER	REMARKS
				PERM.	S/PERM.	TOT.	M	F	T		C	M	F	T			
1	AJALI ANYENA	LUKOLE	AJALI	0	4	4	421	428	849	5	08	7	1	8	75	0	
2	LAPIRIN	LUKOLE	KITENY	0	4	4	151	157	308	0	08	7	1	8	30	BH	
3	NGORA	LUKOLE	NGUDI	4	5	9	396	432	828	35	08	6	1	7	96	BH	
4	OLUNG	LUKOLE	NGUDI	12	7	19	467	418	885	20	08	6	1	7	295	BH	
5	AJALI ATEDE	LUKOLE	AJALI	0	4	4	337	275	612	11	07	6	1	7	72	BH	
6	AJALI LAJWA	LUKOLE	AJALI	3	4	7	364	316	680	2	08	7	1	8	150	0	
7	LADERE	LUKOLE	AJALI	4	0	4	411	360	771	14	07	4	1	5	57	0	
8	LUZIRA	LUKOLE	KITENY	3	0	3	213	317	530	0	07	5	1	6	18	0	
9	WIDWOL	LUKOLE	NGUDI	4	0	4	173	112	285	3	05	6	0	6	0	0	
10	LANGOLANGOLA	LUKOLE	KITENY	0	0	0	365	281	646	0	06	5	2	7	0	0	
				30	**28**	**58**	**3298**	**3096**	**6394**	**90**	**72**	**59**	**10**	**69**	**793**	**4BH**	
1	KALONGO P.7	KALONGO T.C.		9	2	11	1581	1334	2915	65	21	15	6	21	172	BH	
2	KALONGO GIRLS	KALONGO T.C.		12	0	12	0	710	710	36	14	8	5	13	230	BH	
3	KUBWOR	KALONGO T.C.		0	7	7	179	129	308	32	07	3	2	5	102	BH	
4	NIMARO	KALONGO T.C.		4	9	13	292	294	586	12	08	5	3	8	50	BH	
5	ST. PETER'S ANYWANG	KALONGO T.C.		4	7	11	208	217	425	18	06	5	1	6	131	BH	
				29	**25**	**54**	**2701**	**3023**	**5724**	**163**	**56**	**36**	**17**	**53**	**685**	**5BH**	
1	AYWEE GARAGARA	PARABONGO	PABALA	3	0	3	140	102	242	13	07	5	1	6	60	BH	
2	KARUMU	PARABONGO	PARUMU	4	0	4	253	209	462	5	07	8	1	9	0	0	
3	LADIGO	PARABONGO	PABALA	2	0	2	293	208	501	4	07	6	1	7	30	BH	
4	PACER	PARABONGO	PABALA	6	0	6	223	238	461	11	08	5	2	7	39	BH	
5	PAKOR	PARABONGO	PARUMU	2	6	8	227	204	431	8	07	5	2	7	96	BH	
6	KABALA ALEĐA	PARABONGO	PABALA	4	0	4	334	291	625	10	07	7	1	8	0	0	
7	PAKOR DUNGU	PARABONGO	PARUMU	0	0	0	212	183	395	0	07	4	2	6	0	BH	
8	KABALA	PARABONGO	PABALA	8	0	8	193	207	400	17	08	6	2	8	57	0	
				29	**6**	**35**	**1875**	**1642**	**3517**	**68**	**58**	**46**	**12**	**58**	**282**	**5BH**	

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S/N	NAME OF SCHOOL	SUB-COUNTY	PARISH	CLASSROOM STRUCTURE			ENROLMENT			LATRINE STANCES	STAFFING				DESKS	WATER	REMARKS
				PERM.	S/PERM.	TOT.	M	F	T		C	M	F	T			
1	ATOCON	WOL	PALUTI	0	0	0	211	102	313	5	07	3	0	3	0	0	
2	KUYWEE	WOL	PALUTI	2	7	9	421	483	904	32	08	7	1	8	86	BH	
3	PARABONGO TEK	WOL	PALUTI	4	0	4	257	213	470	0	07	5	1	6	0	0	
4	WOL KICO	WOL	GUDA	8	7	15	385	380	765	32	09	7	1	8	255	BH	
5	WOL P.7	WOL	ROGO	4	4	8	543	446	989	16	09	10	0	10	176	0	
6	LAMIT KWEYO	WOL	PALUTI	4	0	4	236	176	412	5	07	5	1	6	71	BH	
7	LOKABAR	WOL	GUDA	0	0	0	185	146	331	4	07	5	0	5	0	BH	
8	OGOLE	WOL	OGOLE	3	2	5	349	328	677	12	07	7	0	7	300	0	
9	OTINGOWIYE	WOL	OGOLE	0	0	0	309	193	502	0	07	6	0	6	0	0	
10	OKWADOKO	WOL	ROGO	6	0	6	409	280	689	25	07	5	2	7	72	BH	
11	WOL NGORA	WOL	GUDA	0	0	0	188	190	378	0	06	4	1	5	0	BH	
12	APIL	WOL	PALUTI	4	0	4	268	234	502	12	07	6	1	7	60	BH	
13	TOROMA	WOL	PALUTI	7	0	7	382	373	755	21	08	8	0	8	85	BH	
14	ISRAEL	WOL	PALUTI	0	0	0	167	143	310	0	07	6	0	6	0	0	
15	KALAKI PARENTS	WOL					166	114	280								
				42	**20**	**62**	**4476**	**3801**	**8277**	**164**	**103**	**84**	**8**	**92**	**1105**	**8BH**	
1	ACHOLIBUR	ACHOLIBUR	GEM CENTRAL	4	16	20	677	577	1254	30	18	20	2	22	64	BH	
2	DURE	ACHOLIBUR	NGEKIDI	6	12	18	725	655	1380	20	14	11	3	14	68	BH	
3	LATIGI	ACHOLIBUR	GEM CENTRAL	4	0	4	180	121	301	0	07	6	2	8	0	0	
4	POROGALI	ACHOLIBUR	GEM ONYOT	10	0	10	583	544	1127	15	08	8	2	10	72	BH	
5	WILIWILI	ACHOLIBUR	NGEKIDI	4	2	6	579	471	1050	29	08	6	2	8	75	0	
6	LABWOROMOR	ACHOLIBUR	GEM ONYOT	0	0	0	136	97	233	0	05	4	0	4	0	0	
7	WANGOPOK	ACHOLIBUR	NGEKIDI	4	0	4	133	127	260	5	05	1	4	5	72	0	
8	LAMIN-NYIM	ACHOLIBUR	LATIGI	4	0	4	145	167	312	15	06	5	2	7	72	0	
9	AMOKO	ACHOLIBUR	NGEKIDI	0	0	0	219	180	399		06						
10	ADOO	ACHOLIBUR	GEM ONYOT	0	0	0	98	86	184	10	05	3	1	4	0	0	
11	ACUTOMER	ACHOLIBUR	GEM ONYOT	4	0	4	173	159	332	10	06	5	1	6	87	0	
12	LATAYI	ACHOLIBUR	NGEKIDI	0	0	0	355	355	710	0	07	3	2	5	0	0	
13	LUKWOR NORTH	ACHOLIBUR	GEM CENTRAL	0	0	0	144	103	247	0	07	3	2	5	0	0	
14	OKINGA	ACHOLIBUR	GEM ONYOT	8	3	11	304	220	524	15	08	5	2	7	160	PW	
15	OYEYENG	ACHOLIBUR	GEM CENTRAL	2	7	9	374	364	738	40	06	4	1	5	141	BH	
				50	**40**	**90**	**4825**	**4226**	**9051**	**189**	**116**	**84**	**26**	**110**	**811**	**4BH & 1PW**	

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S/N	NAME OF SCHOOL	SUB-COUNTY	PARISH	CLASSROOM STRUCTURE			ENROLMENT			LATRINE STANCES	STAFFING				DESKS	WATER	REMARKS
				PERM.	S/PERM.	TOT.	M	F	T		C	M	F	T			
1	ATANGA	LAGUTI	PAKEYO	8	4	12	508	442	950	4	12	8	2	10	172	BH	
2	AMILOBO	LAGUTI	PAIBWOR	4	0	4	211	182	393	14	07	5	1	6	68	BH	
3	LAGUTI	LAGUTI	LAPYEM	14	3	17	453	391	844	10	08	5	1	6	116	BH	
4	TUMALYEC	LAGUTI	LAPYEM	3	0	3	326	164	490	0	07	6	0	6	0	BH	
5	WIPOLO	LAGUTI	PAKEYO	0	0	0	332	269	601	0	07	6	0	6	0	BH	
6	LAJENG	LAGUTI	LAPYEM	4	0	4	74	109	183	10	06	4	1	5	72	BH	
7	LAREGO	LAGUTI	PAKEYO	3	0	3	80	88	168	3	05	5	0	5	32	BH	
				36	**7**	**43**	**1984**	**1645**	**3629**	**41**	**52**	**39**	**5**	**44**	**460**	**7BH**	
1	ACHOLI RANCH	ATANGA	PUNGOLE	4	0	4	221	217	438	20	07	6	0	6	7	0	
2	OPATTE	ATANGA	PUCOTA	0	0	0	331	299	630	0	07	6	1	7	0	0	
3	BARAYOM	ATANGA	NGOTO	0	4	4	338	222	560	10	07	5	1	6	20	BH	
4	LAPARANAT	ATANGA	PUNGOLE	4	0	4	68	65	133	0	07	5	1	6	0	0	
5	OGOM	ATANGA	PUCOTA	6	2	8	383	343	726	12	07	4	2	6	133	BH	
6	ASWA ARMY BRIDGE	ATANGA	PUNGOLE	0	0	0	144	141	285	0	05	2	0	2	0	0	
7	RWOT AWIC	ATANGA	KAL	6	19	25	427	455	882	16	08	6	1	7	83	BH	
8	LAWIYE ADUL	ATANGA	NGOTO	4	0	4	310	200	510	11	05	4	0	4	0	BH	
9	WIAKADO	ATANGA	NGOTO	0	0	0	221	209	430	0	06	3	0	3	0	0	
10	AKELIKONGO	ATANGA	PUNGOLE	0	0	0	56	59	115	0	06	4	0	4	0	0	
11	ANGAGURA	ATANGA	PUCOTA	8	7	15	232	222	454	13	08	6	0	6	112	BH	
12	JUPA	ATANGA	PUCOTA	4	0	4	156	57	213	5	07	6	1	7	43	BH	
13	ARUU FALLS	ATANGA	PUCOTA	0	0	0	81	85	166	0	05	3	1	4	0	0	
14	LAPAK	ATANGA	NGOTO	0	0	0	213	124	337	0	07	5	1	6	0	0	
15	LACEKOCOT	ATANGA	KAL	22	0	22	748	698	1446	24	22	18	2	20	280	BH	
16	LACOR	ATANGA	PUCOTA	0	0	0	298	208	506	0	07	6	0	6	0	0	
				58	**32**	**90**	**4227**	**3604**	**7831**	**111**	**115**	**89**	**11**	**100**	**678**	**7BH**	

S/N	NAME OF SCHOOL	SUB-COUNTY	PARISH	CLASSROOM STRUCTURE			ENROLMENT			LATRINE STANCES	STAFFING				DESKS	WATER	REMARKS
				PERM.	S/PERM.	TOT.	M	F	T		C	M	F	T			
1	LAGILE	AWERE	LAGILE	8	7	15	499	453	952	57	15	12	2	14	317	PW	
2	ATEDE	AWERE	ANGOLE	4	0	4	375	269	644	10	07	8	0	8	0	BH	
3	LUNYIRI	AWERE	LAGILE	7	0	7	371	289	660	27	07	7	1	8	160	BH	
4	LUTINI	AWERE	ANGOLE	0	0	0	130	65	195		06						
5	RACKOKO	AWERE	LAGILE	4	15	19	379	351	730	7	09	8	2	10	153	0	
6	ST. KIZITO AWERE	AWERE	BOLO	16	2	18	642	578	1220	47	12	9	1	10	75	BH	
7	ANGOLE	AWERE	ANGOLE	4	0	4	269	236	505	7	07	6	1	7	71	BH	
8	BOLO AGWENG	AWERE	BOLO	0	0	0	121	92	213	14	08	7	1	8	0	0	
9	BOLO	AWERE	BOLO	4	0	4	515	429	944		08						
10	LABOYE	AWERE	LAGILE	0	3	3	150	127	277	1	07	4	1	5	0	BH	
11	LAMINCILA	AWERE	LAGILE	0	0	0	245	185	430	0	07	5	1	6	0	BH	
12	RACKOKO ABC	AWERE	LAGILE	0	0	0	714	715	1429	0		0	0	0	0	0	
				47	**27**	**74**	**4410**	**3789**	**8199**	**170**	**93**	**66**	**10**	**76**	**776**	**6BH & 1PW**	
1	PURANGA	PURANGA	PARWECH	4	6	10	380	338	718	4	14	11	3	14	66	BH	
2	LAKOGA	PURANGA	PARWECH	0	7	7	274	237	511	5	07	4	1	5	0	BH	
3	LAMINCWIDA	PURANGA	ORET	0	0	0	401	369	770	1	07	4	2	6	0	0	
4	ODUM	PURANGA	ORET	4	3	7	215	187	402	10	07	8	1	9	55	BH	
5	LOBOROM	PURANGA	ORET	0	0	0	213	196	409	2	07	5	1	6	0	BH	
6	ORET CENTRAL	PURANGA		0	0	0	255	200	455	16	06	0	0	0	0	0	
7	AWERE LAKOGA	PURANGA	APWOR	4	0	4	256	196	452	4	07	4	1	5	0	BH	
8	ARINGA	PURANGA	PARWECH	0	0	0	394	320	714	2	07	6	1	7	0	BH	
9	LAMINAJIKO	PURANGA	APWOR	4	0	4	341	320	661	4	07	4	1	5	72	BH	
10	POPE JOHN PAUL	PURANGA	PARWECH	6	6	12	191	257	448	10	08	7	1	8	72	BH	
11	LUDEL	PURANGA	PARWECH	4	0	4	194	166	360	4	06	2	0	2	72	BH	
12	ABALOKODI	PURANGA	APWOR	0	0	0	201	184	385	0	07	6	1	7	0	BH	
13	OGONYO	PURANGA	APWOR	4	4	8	394	320	714	10	07	6	1	7	0	BH	
14	TE-OKUTU	PURANGA	PARWECH	0	0	0	150	164	314	8	07	5	1	6	O	BH	
15	ADONGKENA	PURANGA	PARWECH	0	4	4	247	198	445	10	07	7	1	8	0	BH	
				30	**30**	**60**	**3821**	**3427**	**7248**	**90**	**111**	**79**	**16**	**95**	**337**	**13BH**	

S/N	NAME OF SCHOOL	SUB-COUNTY	PARISH	CLASSROOM STRUCTURE			ENROLMENT			LATRINE STANCES	STAFFING				DESKS	WATER	REMARKS
				PERM.	S/PERM.	TOT.	M	F	T		C	M	F	T			
1	AGAGO REFUGEE	PADER KILAK	KILAK CORNER	8	6	14	504	420	924	5	08	4	4	8	40	BH	
2	AGORA	PADER KILAK	KILAK CORNER	4	8	12	224	193	417	2	07	4	2	6	22	BH	
3	KILAK CORNER	PADER KILAK	KILAK CORNER	9	0	9	483	482	965	76	09	5	4	9	177	BH	
4	OLAMBYERA	PADER KILAK	PUKOR	0	7	7	225	173	398	20	08	6	0	6	0	BH	
5	PADER ALUKA	PADER KILAK	PAIPIR	4	0	4	100	97	197	10	07	6	0	6	0	0	
6	PADER LABONGO	PADER KILAK	OTONG	4	4	8	276	227	503	6	08	7	1	8	94	0	
7	PADER OGOM	PADER KILAK	PAIPIR	0	0	0	164	151	315	2	07	6	1	7	0	0	
8	PADER ONGANY	PADER KILAK	KILAK CORNER	0	7	7	234	223	457	11	08	7	2	9	90	BH	
9	OPOLACEN	PADER KILAK	OTONG	0	0	0	341	267	608	2	07	5	2	7	0	0	
10	PADER KINENI	PADER KILAK	PUKOR	6	0	6	398	357	755	4	08	5	2	7	147	BH	
11	OGOM TELELA	PADER KILAK	OGOM	4	0	4	385	329	714	15	07	4	3	7	61	BH	
				39	**32**	**71**	**3334**	**2919**	**6253**	**153**	**84**	**59**	**21**	**80**	**631**	**7BH**	
1	OLWORNGUU	PADER T.C.	OTONG	4	7	11	570	568	1138	18	12	12	3	15	141	BH	
2	PADER KILAK	PADER T.C.	PUKOR	4	8	12	315	291	606	25	08	9	2	11	202	BH	
3	PAIPIR	PADER T.C.	KALALO	8	10	18	488	515	1003	24	12	10	2	12	100	BH	
4	LUPWA	PADER T.C.	OTONG	0	2	2	171	163	334	5	06	4	1	5	72	BH	
5	APIRI	PADER T.C.	KALALO	7	0	7	171	113	284	24	06	4	2	6	84	0	
6	PAGWARI	PADER T.C.	OTONG	4	0	4	656	404	1060	5	06	3	2	5	157	0	
				27	**27**	**54**	**2371**	**2054**	**4425**	**101**	**50**	**42**	**12**	**54**	**756**	**4HB**	
1	AMOKOLAGWAI	PAJULE	PALWO 'A'	3	0	3	459	343	802	5	07	7	0	7	0	0	
2	ANGAKOTOKE	PAJULE	PALWO 'A'	5	9	14	468	240	708	56	09	7	3	10	236	BH	
3	LAMOGI OMENYKIMAC	PAJULE	PAIULA	0	6	6	326	274	600	6	08	5	1	6	33	BH	
4	OTOK	PAJULE	ORYANG	0	1	1	255	216	471	0	08	4	1	5	0	BH	
5	OGAGO	PAJULE	PAIULA	0	4	4	545	175	720	30	08	7	1	8	100	BH	
6	WANDUKU	PAJULE	PALWO 'A'	4	4	8	503	382	885	18	08	6	2	8	0	BH	
7	ALIM	PAJULE	PAIULA	4	3	7	314	271	585	10	08	6	2	8	61	BH	
8	AWAL	PAJULE	ORYANG	4	0	4	373	251	624	4	07	2	1	3	0	0	
9	OGUTA	PAJULE	ORYANG	4	4	8	353	276	629	40	07	6	1	7	94	0	
10	OCIGA	PAJULE	PALWO 'A'	0	0	0	362	278	640	2	06	4	0	4	0	0	
11	ST. JOSEPH OGAN	PAJULE	PALWO 'A'	4	4	8	360	392	752	5	08	7	1	8	8	BH	

12	LAMOGI PALENGA	PAJULE	PALWO 'A'	0	3	3	302	338	640	3	07	3	1	5			
13	LOYONYERO	PAJULE	OGOLE	3	0	3	246	175	421	5	07	3	2	5	48	0	
14	PAIULA	PAJULE	PAIULA	4	3	7	546	396	942	21	08	7	2	9	96	BH	
15	LANYATONO	PAJULE	OGOLE	0	0	0	301	198	499	0	06	3	1	4	0	0	
16	KIBONG	PAJULE	OGOLE	0	0	0	166	133	299	0	06	4	0	4	0	BH	
				35	**41**	**76**	**5879**	**4338**	**10217**	**205**	**118**	**83**	**19**	**102**	**676**	**10BH**	

S/N	NAME OF SCHOOL	SUB-COUNTY	PARISH	CLASSROOM STRUCTURE			ENROLMENT			LATRINE STANCES	STAFFING				DESKS	WATER	REMARKS
				PERM.	S/PERM.	TOT.	M	F	T		C	M	F	T			
1	PAJULE P.7	LAPUL	OGOLE	8	4	12	942	1081	2023	18	26	18	6	24	240	BH	
2	LANYATIDO	LAPUL	OGOLE	4	7	11	444	389	833	3	08	7	1	8	0	BH	
3	GORE	LAPUL	KOYO	4	0	4	397	234	631	15	07	6	1	7	0	0	
4	LAPUL ST. MARY'S	LAPUL	OGOLE	4	0	4	207	135	342	10	06	4	1	5	40	0	
5	LAPUL GWENG OBURA	LAPUL	OGOLE	0	0	0	239	82	321	2	07	6	1	7	0	0	
6	PAPAA	LAPUL	OGOLE	4	7	11	454	329	883	15	09	7	1	8	76	BH	
7	OWEKA	LAPUL	OGOLE	3	0	3	187	176	363	0	07	4	1	5	0	0	
8	PAJULE LACANI	LAPUL	OGOLE	10	0	10	906	719	1625	46	18	12	6	18	136	BH	
9	KOYO LALOGI	LAPUL	KOYO	0	7	7	333	290	623	20	07	5	2	7	33	BH	
10	LAPUL	LAPUL	OGOLE	2	0	2	427	311	738	10	07	6	2	8	136	BH	
				39	**25**	**64**	**4536**	**3846**	**8382**	**139**	**102**	**75**	**22**	**97**	**661**	**6BH**	

Appendix v: Northern Uganda Enrollment Statistics

District	Gender	1996	1997	1998	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Adjumani	Male		12167	24461	22057	21055	22211	22450	22384	22240	21333
	Female		8793	18662	18854	18354	20066	20427	20738	20357	19646
	Total		**20960**	**43123**	**40911**	**39409**	**42277**	**42877**	**43122**	**42597**	**40979**
Gulu	Male	44444	56187	66347	81022	77863	82185	92932	88033	90602	58252
	Female	30295	39292	49092	65038	63331	68164	78048	74655	78948	53073
	Total	**74739**	**95479**	**115439**	**146060**	**141194**	**150349**	**170980**	**162688**	**169550**	**111325**
Amuru	Male										32173
	Female										26807
	Total										**58980**
Apac	Male	52336	91173	101626	113688	121812	127498	133368	123713	128627	75075
	Female	38794	68096	79270	92555	103669	108899	116684	109362	115674	71187
	Total	**91130**	**159269**	**180896**	**206243**	**225481**	**236397**	**250052**	**233075**	**244301**	**146262**
Amolator	Male										17399
	Female										16790
	Total										**34189**
Lira	Male	68086	94271	72009	100237	106943	115280	128951	141260	145172	108145
	Female	42996	66663	53763	82345	90318	99415	113031	124282	128613	89490
	Total	**111082**	**160934**	**125772**	**182582**	**197261**	**214695**	**241982**	**265542**	**273785**	**197635**
Dokolo	Male										22403
	Female										20866
	Total										**43269**
Kitgum	Male	51319	73232	83259	102961	50039	52935	58604	55651	57276	60170
	Female	27912	46539	55794	73588	39620	43405	48629	47860	49578	53276
	Total	**79231**	**119771**	**139053**	**176549**	**89659**	**96340**	**107233**	**103511**	**106854**	**113446**
Pader	Male					70036	68379	77756	77948	77336	84893
	Female					49898	50228	57818	59254	60143	66038
	Total					**119934**	**118607**	**135574**	**137202**	**137479**	**150931**
Oyam	Male										52978
	Female										46528
	Total										**99506**
Grand Total		**356,182**	**556,413**	**604,283**	**752,345**	**812,938**	**858,665**	**948,698**	**945,140**	**974,566**	**996,522**
	Girls	139997	229383	256581	332380	365190	390177	434637	436151	453313	463701
	Boys	216,185	327,030	347,702	419,965	447,748	468,488	514,061	508,989	521,253	**532,821**

Source; Ministry of Education and Sports

Appendix vi**: Primary School Access and Equity Indicators for Northern Uganda**

Indicators	Gender	Years						
		2000	**2001**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**	**2005**	**2006**
Gross Intake Rates (GIR)[1]	Male	27	165	135	153	151	159	138
	Female	25	163	135	148	154	149	127
	Total	**26**	**160**	**135**	**151**	**153**	**154**	**132**
Net Enrolment Rates (NER)[2]	Male	134	141	115	125	109	117	102.8
	Female	113	115	102	110	92	105	91.10
	Total	**124**	**125**	**108**	**118**	**100**	**111**	**96.8**
Gross Enrolment Rates (GER)	Male	157	159	149	158	128	139	145.8
	Female	125	132	123	134	109	125	122.9
	Total	**141**	**142**	**136**	**146**	**118**	**132**	**134.1**
Net In-take Rates (NIR)[3]	Male	64	64	48	52	52	57	47.40
	Female	64	67	51	54	55	57	46.80
	Total	**64**	**65**	**49**	**53**	**54**	**57**	**47.10**
Gender Parity Index (M/F)		56/44	55/45	55/45	54/46	53/47	53/47	53/47

Source: MOES

Appendix vii: **Trends in PTR in the Primary schools in northern Uganda (2000-2006)**

Districts	Years								
	1997	**1998**	**2000**	**2001**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**	**2005**	**2006**
Adjumani	N/A	58	54	50	44	48	49	43	48
Apac	71	56	70	63	64	66	59	62	58
Gulu	71	60	74	69	65	60	60	67	55
Kitgum	90	61	68	59	60	71	71	85	90
Lira	65	41	53	55	54	56	61	62	65
Pader	N/A	N/A	N/A	75	67	80	82	90	88

Source: MOES

Appendix viii: Trends in PCR in the primary schools in northern Uganda (1997-2006)

[1] The GIR is the proportion of children in primary one to the total number of children aged 6 years in the population.
[2] The NER is the proportion of the 6 -12 year's olds to the total number of children in the same age group in the population.
[3] The NIR is a percentage of pupils aged 6-year in primary one to the total number of children of the same age in the population.

Districts	Years							
	1997	**2000**	**2001**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**	**2005**	**2006**
Adjumani	N/A	75	64	60	59	58	57	57
Apac	73	112	118	121	119	103	102	108
Gulu	71	134	113	91	95	88	94	89
Kitgum	79	142	119	118	124	110	98	97
Lira	70	77	76	74	84	93	88	91
Pader	N/A	N/A	185	150	151	145	137	126

Source: MOES