"Skills training strategies to combat worst forms of child labour in the urban informal sector. Four Country Studies in Anglophone Sub-Saharan Africa"

The case of Uganda

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION (ILO)
International Program for the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC)

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acronyms .... **iv**
Executive Summary .... **vi**
List of Tables xii

1. The dimensions and dynamics of child labour in the urban informal sector **1**
1.1 The Urban informal sector **1**
1.1.1 Introduction **1**
1.1.2 The urban informal sector and employment **1**
1.1.3 Characteristics of the informal sector **2**
1.1.4 Opportunities and prospects for the informal sector **3**
1.1.5 Constraints **4**

1.2 Child labour in the informal sector **5**
1.2.1 Child labour and child work in the informal sector **5**
1.2.2 Causes of child labour **6**
1.2.3 Other push and pull factors for child labour in the urban informal sector **7**
1.2.4 Constraints of working children **8**

1.3 Worst forms of Child labour in the urban informal sector **9**
1.3.1 Dimension **9**
1.3.2 Characteristics of worst forms of child labour in the Informal Sector **9**
1.3.3 Educational status of working children **10**

2. Prevention of child labour through education **11**
2.1 Primary formal education in theory and practice **11**
2.2 Alternative educational approaches to combat Child labour **13**
2.3 Child labour relevant support services **14**

3. Functioning of skills training in the urban informal sector **16**
3.1. Overview on skills training sector **16**

3.2. Main training providers (except traditional apprenticeship) **16**
3.2.1 Government **17**
3.2.2 Private Providers **17**

3.3 Traditional apprenticeship training **17**
3.3.1 Dimension 18
3.3.2 Actual functioning **18**
3.3.3 Participants in TAT and accessibility **19**
3.3.4 TAT interventions **20**
3.3.5 Formalization/standardization of TAT, management skills training 21
3.3.6 Training of master-craftsmen (-women) **21**
3.3.7 Post-training (self-) employment related support **22**
3.3.8 Monitoring and evaluation 23

3.3.9 Monitoring and evaluation of skills training system **23**

4. Description of relevant policy context **24**

4.1. *Government reform policy for the IS and vocational skills training sector* **24**
4.1.1 Macro and microeconomic policies **24**
4.1.2 MSE policies and institutions **24**
4.1.3 Vocational skills training **25**
4.1.4 Apprenticeship training **26**
4.1.5 Institutional framework for skills training **26**

4.2. *Linkages of TVET to other components of a comprehensive employment promotion policy* **26**
4.3. Global and other sector development policy frameworks, funds **27**
4.3.1 Technical cooperation interventions for MSE sector **28**

5. Identification of opportunities and good practices, and development of country strategy **proposals for the IPEC skills training programme.** **33**

5.1. Influencing policies **33**
5.1.1 Good practices? **37**
5.1.2 The case of Master crafts wo (man) training **37**
5.1.3 Life skills training initiatives **38**
5.1.4 Financial and other support services initiatives for MSEs **38**

5.2. Integration of target group into existing programs and projects **39**

5.3. Other strategy elements **45**
5.4. Outline of country strategy proposal **45**
5.5. Proposals for pilot projects **46**

6. Conclusion **49**

References **50**

Acronyms

AMREF	Africa Medical Research Education Foundation
ANPPCAN	African Network for Prevention and Protection Against Child Abuse and Neglect
BEUPA	Basic Education in Urban poverty Areas
BOU	Bank of Uganda
BDS	Business Development Services
BSMD	Business Services Market Development
BVET	Business Vocational Technical Education and Training
CHWs	Community Health Workers
COPE	Complementary Opportunities in Primary Education
CSEC	Commercial sexual Exploitation of Children
DIT	Directorate of Industrial Training
DFID	Department for International Development
E U	European Union
FITA	Farm Implements and Tools Africa
FITU	Farm Implements and Tools Uganda
FUE	Federation of Uganda employers
GOU	Government of Uganda
GTZ	German Technical cooperation Agency
ILO	International Labour Organisation
KIN	Kids in Need (street children NGO)
MSEs	Micro and Small Enterprises
MF	Micro finance
MFIs	Micro Finance Institutions
MOES	Ministry of Education and Sports
MOFPED	Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development
MoGLSD	Ministry of Gender Labour and Social Development
NARO	National Agricultural Research Organisation
NCST	National Council for Science and Technology
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NQF/A	National Qualification Framework
PEAP	Poverty Eradication Action Plan
PEVOT	Programme for Employment Oriented Vocational Training
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
PSC	Permanent Steering Committee on Vocational training
RYDA	Rubaga Youth Development Association
TAT	Traditional Apprenticeship and Training
TBAs	Traditional Birth Attendants
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UIS	Urban Informal Sector
UMA	Uganda Manufacturers Association
UNIDO	United Nations Industrial Development Organisation
USSIA	Uganda Small Scale Industries Association

UNCCI	Uganda National Chambers of Commerce and Industries
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNICEF	United Nations International Children Emergency Fund
UWFT	Uganda Women Finance and Credit Trust
UYDEL	Uganda Youth Development Link
UVETA	Uganda Vocational Education and Training Authority
VTC	Vocational Training Centre
WAYS	Women and Youth Services
YES	Youth Entrepreneurship scheme

Executive Summary

i. The Uganda country study is part of the four country studies (Tanzania, Kenya and Ghana) commissioned by the ILO/IPEC to collect the information necessary to develop coherent country-specific approaches to skills training in the informal sector as a strategy to fight worst forms of child labour in this sector. The strategy complements or links with other strategies to prevent child labour through the extension of universal primary education and building on opportunities arising from the policy context in the country. Information was collected from largely secondary sources complemented by key informant interviews.

ii. Uganda, with a population of up to 24.7 million people (UBOS 2002b), has enjoyed fairly high levels of economic growth exceeding an average of 5% of GDP per annum since 1986. The growth is a departure from the prolonged social economic decline that characterised the country for about three decades soon after independence in 1962, when the economy was run down by political turmoil and mismanagement[1]. Disaster and total decay during this period, accentuated mass poverty in the country.

iii. Despite the economic progress, poverty is still deep rooted with about 35% of the population still living under the absolute poverty line of US$ 1 per day (MOFPED, 2003a). Worse still, it is estimated that up to 40% of the labour force is either unemployed or underemployed (MoGLSD, 2002). With the introduction of UPE in 1997, 6.5 million pupils have been enrolled by the year 2000 up from 2.3 million enrolled in 1996 (EFA report 2000). But only about 40% of the UPE graduates will manage to join secondary school or join TVET institutions. The 60% will have to seek for means of survival and training either in primary agricultural production or the urban informal sector.

iv. The Informal sector employs over 90% of "total non farm private sector workers" in Uganda. The rural and urban informal sector collectively accounts for over 80% of Uganda's production units. In the urban areas, the informal sector employs up to 80% of the labour force. Owing to its importance to the economy, the government has integrated it into the macro-economy policy framework and the strategies including the medium competitive strategy for the private sector 2000-2005, the Plan for modernization of agriculture (PMA) and the poverty eradication action plan (PEAP). Further more, the MSE policy is in place though still in draft form since 1999. Relevant institutions to support the sector are also in place. This not withstanding, the sector has only been marginally targeted with the relevant support services including technical training services to improve its productivity and employment capacity.

v. Uganda has an estimated 2.7 million (34.2%) economically active children out of the 7.9 million aged 5-17 years (UBOS, 2001:20-24). The number of those involved in child labour is not yet established, including the particular occupations, sub-sectors, or worst forms of child labour. Studies are only on going and may be completed by the

[1] GDP declined by 25 percent; export volume by 60 percent and import volume by close to 50 percent (World Bank 1993)

end of the year 2003. Children work and have their rights violated for a number of reasons including inter-alia; the rampant poverty, need to survive, lack of access to education and training, failure of the family system, education and training system, the political system due to conflict and civil strife, as well as the legal and institutional framework. Activities such as commercial agriculture, armed conflict, cross border trade are singled for child labour. In the urban informal sector, children are involved in luggage carrying, stone crushing, street hawking and markets, saw mills, motorcar garages, carpentry workshops, welding other metal works where they are exposed to a number of health and safety hazards.

vi. One of the strategies the government pursues to address poverty and its functionalities like child labour, is the implementation of the universal primary education programme. Since 1997, enrolment has increased by more than 240% between 1997 and 2000 (EFA report 2000). Not withstanding, the UPE programme has had its own unique problems affecting both quality and continuity of pupils in schools. The government is still grappling with the problems, but as for children who drop out and for those who never got opportunity to enroll; alternative educational programmes such as COPE, ABEK and BEUPA have been conceived to provide them with learning opportunities. The programmes can be re-oriented to incorporate skills training for working children. The primary and secondary school curricula are being revised to introduce subjects with vocational orientation and prepare the learners for entry into employment. But there is limited evidence, to suggest that the changes will be of great relevance in preparing them for the world of work.

vii. More over, the Uganda government's over overall framework for elimination of poverty is based on the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) which has been converted into Uganda's poverty reduction strategy paper (PRSP). This outlines strategies of reducing the incidence of poverty within the population and is guided by principles including inter-alia; increasing the ability of the poor to raise their income and improving the quality of life of the poor through training and enabling access to resources. While it lacks a child labour component (MoGLSD, 2002), the PEAP/PRSP can be influenced to more specifically consider incorporating the training needs of the child workers and start up funds for income generating activities. This is possible through existing mechanisms of periodical participatory review workshops and seminars based on the changing realities on the ground (see MoFPED, 2003b; MOFPED, 2002). The participatory review process allows for broad participation of stakeholders including CSOs, where lobbying is possible for incorporation of training needs for elimination of child labour.

viii. The skills training sector like other sectors, is undergoing reform, both in the policy and institutional framework. The TVET policy of 1999 has recently, August 2003, been revised to accommodate the training needs for the informal sector, as well as training that is demand driven and therefore relevant to the world of work. A number of changes have been proposed including inter–alia; the establishment of the National Qualifications Framework, the National Qualifications Authority for trade testing, re-orientation of training delivery and content. Most importantly, the TVET system is being revised to make it non-discriminatory to those who acquire skills outside the formal system; to universalize skills acquisition and to make training competency based and more relevant to existing local needs.

ix. A huge task nonetheless remains with regard to clear demarcation of roles for the proposed new institutions, the implementation of system reform processes, reorientation of traditional TVET systems and institutions to meet training needs for the world of work and particularly the informal sector, definition of competencies for each of the trades and above all, the corresponding and almost insurmountable cost involved relative to the economy's capacity to bear with regard to the required investment. Only 9% of the ESIP 1998-2003 budget was allocated to TVET (MoES, 1998)

x. With regard to Traditional Apprenticeship and Training (TAT), it remains the principal source of skills training for the vast majority of the labour force in Uganda. There is no existing data however on the actual size of traditional apprenticeship in terms of the training providers and enrolment. But it is estimated that more than 80% of the skills training is sourced from TAT. The major characteristics of TAT in Uganda include, none or low qualification standards for entry, skills provided are work specific, TAT learning is through both doing and observation, apprentices are mainly young unemployed people, no certificate is issued at the end of the course, the training is highly flexible and non-scheduled, and some trainees can be retained at the end of the training. The policy framework until just recently (this year) did not bother about TAT.

xi. There is not yet any standardization of the training. Existing TVET systems are discriminatory of TAT. Some training programmes nonetheless, have been organised to benefit master craft (wo) men but have not directly targeted the TAT system as such. Adding value to the TAT system is presently the idea being endorsed and also incorporated in the TVET policy draft 2003.

xii. Post training support services are almost none existent, both for the formal and informal sectors. Only in a few cases have the not for profit providers accessed equipment and financial services to trainees to enable them start up income generation activities. The government intends to play a facilitator role to link service providers to training providers or MSE operators in addition to creating a conducive environment for the supply of services that MSEs including services for post training support. Indeed the proliferation of MFIs has made it easier for informal MSEs to obtain credit facilities without collateral security. The cooperative movement could not be sustained in Uganda as in other parts of Africa, but the government of Uganda is looking into the modalities of reviving it.

xiii. Considering the policy context and the institutional framework, what opportunities, good practices exist to favor the development and implementation of country specific proposal? Opportunities may arise on the level of *influencing policies, of integrating the present project's target group into existing or planned programs, and of replication of good practices* These can be summed up as follows:

- *Policy wise, the government has established a policy framework that takes into account of the priorities and needs of the MSEs. Examples of the policies put in place targeting or incorporating MSEs needs include; MSE policy draft of 1999; the medium term competitiveness strategy for the private sector 2000-2005; the Child labour policy draft 2003; TVET policy draft 2003; PMA, PEAP and UPE policy. Almost all policies are in draft form, which provides an opportunity for influencing them to incorporate skills training for elimination of child labour.*
- *The TVET policy draft is very explicit on targeting the training needs for the informal sector, and allows for flexibility of trade testing for recognition or certification of competencies, and entry of informal trainers and learners into the system.*
- *The child labour policy is a product of recognition of the problem of child labour*
- *The employment policy draft 2003 and the EFA programmes (UPE)*
- *There are consultative mechanisms for policy development and periodic reviews of strategies such as PRSP, PMA that allows for inclusion of the present target groups needs into the policy and strategic policy framework*
- *The government has proposed establishment of community polytechnics to cater for training needs of MSEs start up for primary and secondary school completers, community needs for skills training and technical skills transfer*
- *The institutional framework is already in place to support the MSE sector, including associations of informal sector such as USSIA, while training institutional framework is undergoing reform*
- *There are existing pilot projects such as COPE, BEUPA, master craftsman training, which could be oriented or replicated to benefit the skills training strategy for elimination of child labor in the urban informal sector*
- *Other projects such PEVOT for GTZ, incorporation TVET system reform, teacher training, adding value to TAT, also provide an opportunity for integration of skills training proposals for elimination of child labour*

xiv. Proposals for the skills training strategy for the informal sector particularly targeting TAT need to reflect upon evidence from practitioners and researchers which suggests that TAT:

i. Suffers from a poor image owing to the fact that it is taken up by the majority as a last resort
ii. It is not accessible to every body including boys as usually assumed. The very poor and those without kin linkages may have limited access.
iii. Its effectiveness will be enhanced once training precedes market surveys to determine from the beginning what trades and skills have market potential
iv. Requires improvement of basic education including literacy and numeracy, for the master crafts and learners so as to improve skills acquisition
v. Requires skills upgrading for masters-equipping them with teaching skills, calculation, measurement, reading of drawings and training on new equipment not available in their workshops
vi. Requires evaluation and certification of skills obtained

vii. Need for arrangement of post training support including marketing, access to credit

***Taking into account of the above observations, the following can constitute preliminary pilot proposals, or key issues for discussion by key MSE representatives, training providers, private sector, representatives from Government relevant departments, the ILO and other partners in the quest to provide skills training for children involved in child labour**:*

1. ☻Need to remove the cultural bias against vocational training or apprenticeship training, need to popularize the TAT system in government and the general population about its potential for employment, through an education and sensitisation campaign

2. ☻Need for technical and financial support towards definition of competencies for selected trades (e.g. carpentry, motor mechanic, computer maintenance etc) in the informal sector. This will pave the way for standardization of TAT training through focus on competency based skills training that will enable award of certificates to completers of selected competencies applicable to particular trades. This proposal fits within the TVET policy draft 2003 provision for trade testing for skills either formally or informally acquired. It will be a boost to government, which is trying to mobilize resources for this exercise to be done.

3. ☻Support in the development of training programme and curriculum for proposed community polytechnics so that the training can benefit the TAT system through these institutions. The TVET policy proposes to make them community friendly and allow for the development of flexible programmes to address the training needs in the rural communities regarding technology adoption. So it would be necessary to support this initiative with technical support and mobilisation of resources for the polytechnics to be established. A pilot project can be tried out in at least 2 of the operational polytechnics, with modular – competency based training and where possible training linked with production.

4. ☻Another programme can be built around the existing master craft training programme being implemented by UNIDO, USSIA and Gatsby Trust, for technical skills upgrading, teaching skills and entrepreneurship. Enhancing the capacities of craft masters, will directly benefit apprentices who could be involved in child labour. They can as a result be better prepared to pass on the skills to their learners.
5. ☻Income support programme for families vulnerable to child labour, this takes into account of poverty as the principle cause of child labour ad should seek to empower families to have income generation options that do not expose children to child labour

6. ☻Re-integration of children into school system is a viable option especially for the very young ones. A programme focused on this should enable children have

subsidized education, be able to raise tuition where necessary and have the necessities to study effectively.

7. ☻A policy focused programme can be designed to influence government policy to address training needs for IS more practically and also taking into account of the need for skills training for elimination of child labour, since the TVET policy is still in its draft form.

☻Existing programmes such as COPE, BEUPA, integrated skills programme (ISP) can be influenced to incorporate skills training for children involved in child labour. The fact that many are running on a pilot basis provides an opportunity for inclusion of the target group.

List of Tables

Table -1.2.1 a:	Working Children in Uganda, by age group and by region (5-17)
Table-2.1b:	Gender differentials in Net Intake Rate
Table 2.1.c:	Gross Enrolment Ratio
Table -4.1.3.a:	Selected ESIP Investments: Indicative allocations (US$ million) and targets
Table-5.1.a:	Influencing policies out lined
Table-5.1.b:	Synopsis of the policy context and emerging opportunities
Table-5.1.c:	Integrating TAP issues in the TVET policies
Table-5.1.d:	New projects/existing/proposed
Table-5.2. a:	Indicative activities for operationalisation and concretisation
Table-5.5.a:	Pilot proposals continued

1. The dimensions and dynamics of child labour in the urban informal sector

1.1 The Urban informal sector

1.1.1 Introduction

There is no generally accepted definition of the urban informal sector. However, the sector has peculiar characteristics distinct from those of the formal sector. The urban informal sector is regarded as having two segmentations: Micro enterprises employing 1-5 people, utilizing family labour mostly or own account employees, having a low productivity and limited in skills; and the small enterprises employing more than 5 up to 20 people (for Uganda case), sometimes up to 50 (in other countries). Compared to micro-enterprises, small enterprises tend to use better technology, usually operate from a fixed location, attempt to maintain records and employ more of wage labour (ILO 1991; MoGLSD 2002; Walakira 1999; Haan 2001).

1.1.2 The urban informal sector and employment

Globally, the ability of nations to create and offer employment to their citizens is a very serious matter. Data from ILO suggests that unemployment and underemployment is a problem being grappled with by all countries, both developed and developing countries alike. According to the ILO global employment trends, the USA had an employment to population ratio of 62.7% with a higher unemployment rate among the youth in 2002. On the other hand most of the Asian nations recorded an employment to population ratio of 50-70%. Latin America returned a dismal figure of 48.5%. Data on sub-Saharan Africa was not accessed.

In the case of Uganda, the labour force is apparently growing at a high rate of 3.4 % (Republic of Uganda, 2002). Notwithstanding, there has been a decline in public sector employment from 300,000 in 1990 to only about 160,000 jobs by 1998. Private sector growth has also been rather marginal.

It has also been noted that only 3.6% of the economically active population is employed by the private sector; of which only 39% are female. More so, 63.4% of the employment is in central Uganda (MOFPED, 2003:11-12). UBOS (2002a) notes that while data on employment in Uganda is scanty, and not up to date, information based on a national household survey conducted in 1997 indicate that unemployment rate in Uganda stands at 7.4%. Rural unemployment was estimated at 5.1 % while for urban centers it was a significantly higher figure of 21.7 %. The unemployment rate for Kampala city alone stands at 31.1%. No data on underemployment was given, but MOFPED (2003:11-12) notes that 45% of Uganda's population are economically active, of which 79.6% of the sub-set are "either self-employed or unpaid family workers".

Although the statistics do not give data on under employment, most of the people categorized as "self-employed or unpaid family workers" could be better described as under employed or unemployed (see MOFPED 2003:12). Ekongot (2000) and Keating (2000) provide rather anecdotal data, which suggests that up to 40% of Ugandans are either unemployed or under employed.

In the context of all these, the informal sector has emerged as the alternative employment option for the majority of Ugandans (Republic of Uganda, 2002; Haan 2001). According to the MSE policy, 1999, there are an estimated 800,000 informal MSEs in Uganda who together employs over 1.5 million people. The Informal sector thus provides employment to over 90% of "total non farm private sector workers". It should also be noted that the rural and urban informal sector collectively accounts for over 80% of Uganda's production units (MoGLSD, 2002:8). See also MOFPED (2000a: 47). The Informal Sector thus absorbs a significant percentage of the labour force each year. Considering the high growth rate of the labour force and the massive absorptive capacity of the informal sector, measures need to be developed to strengthen and modernize the informal sector for better performance.

1.1.3 Characteristics of the informal sector

Although there is no current available statistics on the current size of the urban informal sector in Uganda, there is evidence to suggest that the sector is growing very fast and becoming more pronounced by the day (see Republic of Uganda, 2002:33; UBOS, 2002a; Haan, 2001:64-68). The urban informal sector thrives on the readily available local demands, it can be found both within the modern part of the town/city or on the fringes of the urban centers like the shantytowns and in the slums.

The informal sector in Uganda is segmented into two distinct categories; the micro enterprises consisting of 1-5 people, mostly family members, possessing very little capital, employing a few hired workers and with a very low level of productivity. The informal small scale enterprises usually having more technical skills, employing more than 5 people and up o 20, paying some taxes and keeping records (Walakira, 1999; Haan, 2001).

Collectively these informal sector enterprises generally have little capital, use labour intensive method of production, utilize low technology and are highly responsive to local demands. In addition some of the informal sector enterprises operate from fixed premises while others are more or less mobile (MoGLSD, 2002:33; ILO, 1991, APT Design and Development, 1992).

The informal sector employs mostly people with either low level skills or none at all. In most cases the skills needed for operation are acquired on the job (ILO, 1991; Republic of Uganda, 2002). Some of the people including children work as part timers while others work full time (RYDA, 2000). More so, the employees in the informal sector are not members of any trade union, and lack social security provision (Luyima, 2001; ILO, 1991). Many urban informal sector enterprises employ children below 18 years (see RYDA, 2000; Baguma and Matagi, 1995). The informal sector employees live in very squalid surroundings, mostly in the slums around town as the wages they are paid is too low to afford decent accommodation (RYDA, 2000).

1.1.4 Opportunities and prospects for the informal sector

The informal sector is increasingly drawing international attention and interest. The initial attitudes of some developing countries of ignoring the sector, thinking that it would disappear have been apparently reversed (see ILO, 1991, Haan, 2001:21).

The vibrant and growing economy (economic growth above 6%) is an opportunity for the informal sector MSEs as it presents potential markets for the enterprises (see MOFPED, 2003). In close connection with the foregoing is the economic policy of liberalization being pursued by the Ugandan Government. This provides opportunities for the emergence of new technology through improved access to imports. It thus potentially ensures the availability of appropriate technology to the informal sector enterprises, which technology could be more cost effective and fast in responding to the demand within the informal sector. Enterprises which could benefit are those working in the plumbing, construction, woodwork, and welding fields. There is no evidence as yet however, to qualify this scenario for the private sector, but it may be looked at as a presented opportunity, which should be exploited by the informal sector enterprises. Perhaps the lack of a strong capital base could be a constraint in procuring better equipment (see Haan, 2001:64).

Another favourable opportunity that can be exploited in Uganda is the favourable government policy environment. Although much needs to be done to operationalise some of the policy ideas formulated, the general politico-economic will is good for informal sector development (See Republic of Uganda, 2002; Haan, 2001; Walakira, 1999; MoFPED, 1997).

The establishment of the MSE policy unit and the Informal micro and small enterprises national coordination committee, to address the unique concerns of the micro and small enterprises (1996/1997) are all indications of the policy goodwill of the government towards the development of the informal sector (see MOFPED, 2000a; MOFPED, 2000b).

Some strategies and institutional frameworks have also been developed to look into the linkages and collaborations between the micro and small enterprises and the larger scale enterprises, e.g. through FIT Uganda.

Government is also trying to implement vocational training through establishing community polytechnics. Perhaps with time some of the graduates from these programmes would enhance the skills base of the informal sector. However whether the children will be trained in needed and most relevant skills is another thing.

Other opportunities are the development of interest of some of the training institutions to cooperate with the informal sector enterprises in technology and capacity development, e.g. Uganda Gatsby Trust, Makerere (Haan, 2001:75) to strengthen operation of MSEs.

Anecdotal evidence also points to the mushrooming of many micro finance institutions, which have come up to specifically target informal sector enterprises. These can thus meet the MSEs need for development and expansion capital.

1.1.5 Constraints

Despite a largely flourishing economy, MSEs in Uganda still have to contend with problems such as fragile banking system, the aversive and inconsistent tax regime that forces many enterprises to operate underground; and the prohibitively high rates of interest of 41% for commercial activities (Walakira, 1999:12-13).

Moreover the MSEs also face very stiff competition from both local and external producers (Walakira, 1999:12). The Republic of Uganda (1997:33) acknowledges that the Informal MSEs "currently operate under serious legal, institutional and policy constraints, lack of access to entrepreneurial and technical skills, and information hampers high productivity and consequently reduces competition of MSEs."

Other constraints have been identified as lack of access to credit, serviced premises as well as the absence of effective demand. The Poverty Eradication Action Plan, 1997 details government strategies for the development of the informal MSE sector. This include among others ensuring conducive legal, regulatory and policy environment; promoting inspection and awareness raising campaign on occupational health hazards; providing MSEs with physical facilities such as land, connected to water and electricity, sanitation; supporting the provision of training programmes, technical and extension support and providing access to relevant information to equip entrepreneurs with skills needed for their operation.

But it must be noted that the role of MSEs in macro economic development of Uganda has been recognized for quiet sometime now. Way back in1992, ApT Design and Development were commissioned to conduct a study on MSEs and they recommended that government role should be in creating an enabling environment/ framework. APT Design and development (1992) also noted that the investment code gives larger enterprises unfair advantage over the smaller MSEs within the informal sector. This has to be addressed in a bid to make MSEs more competitive.

1.2 Child labour in the informal sector

1.2.1 Child labour and child work in the informal sector

The distinction between child work and child labour is a rather difficult one in practice. However the understanding of child work in Uganda has to do with work that is light enough that takes into consideration the mental, physical and psychological wellbeing of the child. In other words child work is socially and culturally sanctioned as a normal expectation of children. For example the performance of light domestic work by children is generally accepted in most parts of Uganda. On the other hand child labour refers to the economically exploitative and all sorts of work which are hazardous, affects the health, education, development and general psychosocial wellbeing of the child (see UBOS, 2002a:vi).

UBOS (2002: v) observes that Uganda lacks comprehensive data on child labour, which is hampering implementation of the national programme on the elimination of child labour. Data which covers comprehensively the situation of child labour in the country is thus unavailable at present and the statistics available only gives us an overview of children involved in work generally. No differentiation has been given by the UBOS (2002a) study between number of children involved in exploitative child labour and children engaged in non-hazardous economic activities. This is thus a major shortcoming of the present study. But reliance has also been made on other studies (e.g. Baguma and Matagi, 1995; RYDA, 2000) which attempts to give some information on the proportion of children involved in child labour. However the limitations of such studies are that they lacked national coverage and the samples used are in most cases too small for generalization. This is also compounded by the fact that the magnitude of the problem of child labour varies across districts and towns.

Table 1.2.1a, below shows the number and age category of working children. The majority of working children falls into the age category 5-14 years. Eastern region registered the highest number of working children.

Table -1.2.1 a: Working Children in Uganda, by age group and by region (5-17)

Age	Central	Eastern	Northern	Western	Total
5-9	132,400	364,300	113800	235,500	84600
10-14	448800	391,600	221,500	393,300	1,455,200
15-17	169900	64100	64900	76500	375,400
Total	751,100	820,000	400,200	705,300	2,676,600

Source: UBOS, 2002a: 24.

There is an estimated 2.7 million working children in Uganda. This is 34.2% of all children aged 5 and above. 54% of these children fall in the age category 10-14 and yet one third of the working children are below 10 years old (UBOS, 2002: ix). Generally up to 46% of all children 10-14 are working, and 30% of all children in the age bracket 15-17 are also working. 20% of all working children have no education at all. The exact number and percentage of children working within the urban informal sector is missing[2]. But the prevalence of child labour within the urban informal sector has been documented by various studies (see for example RYDA, 2000; Baguma and Matagi, 1995). RYDA study which looked at the situation of working children within Kampala city informal sector found that 36.7% of working children fall in the category 15-17; 35% were in the category 9-14.. In terms of the origin of children the RYDA (2000) study suggests that the majority of the working children in three Kampala markets of Owino, Nakasero and New Nakivubo road (Kisekka) markets come from Western Uganda (45.4%), while those coming from Central region were 31.8%. 9.1% were from the North and 13.6% from the East.

According to the same study (RYDA, 2000) the majority of the children working in the three markets of Owino, Nakasero and new Nakivubo road had attained a maximum level of education of P.4 (45.5%). 18.2% had studied up to P.7, and those with qualifications above P7 were 36%.

The minimum age for employment in Uganda is 14; but as shown by the RYDA study, employers were flouting these laws-some employing children as young as 5 years old (UBOS, 2002a:24). Many of the children who were working in Kampala at the time of the RYDA study had run away from home because of the insecurity prevailing in their hometowns. Examples here are the children from the north and western Uganda. This shows the structural causes of child labour. Many of the children expressed interest of taking up vocational training or rejoining basic education, when given the chance.

In terms of the activities, boys are mostly engaged in garage work, vending, washing cars, acting as intermediaries between traders and suppliers, loading, working in saw mills, carpentry and offloading, carrying garbage; whereas the girls are mostly involved in selling food, and other activities (Luyima, 2001; RYDA, 2000; Baguma and Matagi, 1995). These children work under very deplorable situation (ILO, 1991:7; RYDA, 2000; Baguma and Matagi, 1995). They are thus exposed to a number of hazards in the pursuance of their work.

1.2.2 Causes of child labour

Ample evidence exists to suggest that one of the primary push factors for child labour is lack of school fees. The pursuit of school fees and other educational requirements have forced many children onto the streets of the urban centers to look for employment

[2] ILO has commissioned studies on the incidence and magnitude of child labour in the urban Informal sector in Uganda. These studies will be completed by the end of this year.

(Luyima, 2001; RYDA, 2000: 9-10; Baguma and Matagi, 1995). Some of the children have tried studying and working part time, but the necessity to provide for their other needs has made most of the part timers to drop out of school altogether (see RYDA, 2000). Other children dropped out of school even after UPE was introduced due to intra-school factors such as lack of sanitary facilities, inadequate supervision of teachers, overcrowding of children, inadequate facilities and poor instruction methods (see MOFPED, 2002:11; RYDA, 2000; Education for all, 2000). It has also been suggested that apart from the above problems some of the children simply had no interest in school (RYDA, 2000:10).

Luyima (2001:3-5) cites the apparent perceived irrelevance of the education system as one factor for children dropping out of school and into exploitative child labour. This could be due to fact that the curriculum is more theoretical than practical. Some children would thus find education boring and unhelpful. According to Luyima (2001:3) the rate of retention of children in school, even in the midst of UPE, is as low as 35% in spite of the high enrolment rate of 105%. Other factors for drop out appears to be failure of parents to meet the other expenses e.g. uniforms, books, transport and lack of sanitary facilities.

1.2.3 Other "push" and "pull" factors for child labour in the urban informal sector

Poverty has remained the foremost reason for children engagement in child labour. 35% of Ugandans fall below the poverty line, although the situation is worse for other regions like the insecurity-plagued north where the percentage of people living in absolute poverty is as high as 67% (MOFPED, 2003; Save the Children, 2002:28-29). The attempts to supplement family income have thus pushed children into employment. RYDA (2000:10) study reveals that 75% of girls disclosed having been pushed into employment to support their family.

The HIV/AIDS pandemic and many civil wars that have plagued Uganda have led to a high number of orphans. Most of the young children falling within this category have thus been forced into child labour to provide for their younger siblings or fend for themselves (UBOS; 2002a: 27; Luyima, 2001; RYDA, 2000:10).

The other factor is the backward culture and belief which tends to push children into child labour (Luyima, 2001:8). It is believed that children must work as part of their social obligations, but some of the responsibility allocated to children is beyond their mental and physical ability.

Some children also take up employment after becoming deviant and opposing parental authority. These are categories of children who do not want to be corrected (RYDA, 2000:10).

Luyima (2001:9) also identifies the erosion of the community and family traditional support values/mechanisms, early marriages and unbalanced distribution of social services as some of the potential causes of child labour. The African extended family used to have mechanisms of providing social protection for the children after death of parents, but these values are increasingly being eroded.

On the "pull" side, the factors causing child labour ranges from the apparent docility of the children and their perceived hard work and obedience to employers to ignorance of employers about children rights and laws on employment. It has been noted that ignorance about children rights and other legal instruments which protects children appears to be quite pronounced in Uganda (see RYDA, 2000; Luyima, 2001).

More so, the problem is compounded by the nature of operation of the informal sector enterprises. They operate more or less outside the legal framework. There is weak law enforcement and monitoring by the labour inspectors. Thijs (1997) identified this scenario in Asia but this seems to be the case in Uganda as well (Luyima, 2001).

Peer pressures which emanates from the testimonies of the working children when they visit their villages appears to be a contributory factor as well in the drawing of children to urban informal sector employment (RYDA, 2000).

1.2.4 Constraints of working children

The children engaged in child labour have a number of constraints. First of all, national statistics suggest that 20% of all working children have no education at all (UBOS, 2002a). Available studies have also suggested that majority of the working children did not go beyond P.4 level of education (RYDA, 2000). The implication for all these is that the children will be left with very few options and could continue into exploitative and hazardous child labour without recourse to another alternative (see UBOS, 2002a: ix).

In terms of skills many of the working children lack any form of skills, which they can sell. Moreover the amount of money the children are paid is not enough to meet their basic needs (RYDA, 2000:11).

The working children within the urban informal sector are further exposed to harassments by the City/town official. They are also not covered by any form of social security (see ILO, 1991; RYDA, 2000). Incase of a contingency, they may have no where to fall back to. This is compounded by lack of savings for future purposes and lack of membership to an employee's trade union (RYDA, 2000:12).

1.3 Worst forms of Child labour in the urban informal sector

1.3.1 Dimension

The subjection of children to worst forms of child labour within the informal sector has been acknowledged (see UBOS, 2002a, Luyima, 2001; RYDA, 2000; Baguma and Matagi, 1995). The problem which apparently is only beginning to be addressed has resulted from the lack of proper regulatory framework and other prevailing peculiar factors within the informal sector (see RYDA, 2000; Baguma and Matagi, 1995). The children work for long hours and throughout the week with very little pay. Furthermore the children are made to carry heavy luggages; are exposed to dangerous substances like acid, paint, petrol, excessive heat and dust (see UBOS, 2002, Luyima, 2001; RYDA, 2000; Baguma and Matagi, 1995). Most of the children fall within the age bracket 9-16 (RYDA, 2000).

These children work in the markets, saw mills, motorcar garages, carpentry workshops, and on the streets as self employed, mainly by hawking items. They also work as loaders and garbage collectors. A child as young as 9 works; yet the minimum age for employment is 14 for light work. Children are not supposed to be engaged in dangerous work at all. The commercial sexual exploitation of children encompassing both prostitution and pornography exist in the informal sector. Walakira (2002) notes that children as young as 12 engage in commercial sexual activity. These children are exposed to a number of risks; examples include HIV/AIDS and other STDs, unwanted pregnancies, violence and other forms of physical abuse. It has also been suggested that children at the greatest risk of worst form of child labour are those from disadvantaged social and economic background (see Walakira, 2002; RYDA, 2000).

1.3.2 Characteristics of worst forms of child labour in the Informal Sector

The nature of activities constituting worst forms of child labour in the urban informal sector includes begging, cleaning cars, scavenging, welding work in garages, prostitution and other forms of commercial sexual exploitation of children, carrying luggage, loading, removing garbage and others. These activities endanger the health and general wellbeing of children.

The children work in very poor conditions, devoid at times of even the basic sanitation facilities. There is lack of washing and toilet facilities (RYDA, 2000:16). It has also been noted that this work does not correspond to the payment offered in return: the children are overworked and paid less money. This includes very long hours of work and in some cases they are made to work all days of the week (Haan, 2001; Luyima, 2001; RYDA, 2000; Baguma and Matagi, 1995). Hazards that children face at the workplace are of psychological, physical and moral nature (see RYDA, 2000). For the case of girls many of them have engaged in prostitution to survive (see Walakira, 2002, RYDA, 2000, Baguma and Matagi, 1995). Furthermore the Informal sector child workers do not have social security protection and their low level of education makes them particularly vulnerable (UBOS, 2002a: ix).

1.3.3 Educational status of working children

Few studies have been accessed which examine the education status of working children within the urban informal sector. However the general level of agreement is that the level of education among the working children is quiet low indeed. It has also been noted that the educational system does not provide them with the skills they may need to apply in the enterprises in the informal sector (see for example UBOS, 2002a; Luyima, 2001; Haan, 2001; RYDA, 2000). None of the studies accessed gives a gendered dis-aggregation of the level of education of the children working within the informal sector. It has thus been difficult to distinguish the level of education of the boys and girls working in the urban informal sector. However studies (e.g. RYDA, 2000:19) suggest that the majority of the working children had attained a lower education level of P.4. Although there are some children with P.7 education, most of them have never gone beyond P.7. Only 18.2 % of the children interviewed had attained P.7 level of education. But 36.4 % had some post primary training.

Other studies (see for example UBOS, 2002; Education for All, 2000; Baguma and Matagi, 1995) have also confirmed a low level of education among the working children in the country generally and the urban informal sector in particular. Haan (2001:68) particularly identifies low level of skills among the workers in the informal sector (children inclusive).The low level of education among the informal sector children is also conditioned by their background-most of them come from poor families. This therefore means that the opportunities of these children for better employment may be limited as a result of the low level of education and training. Luyima, (2001:4) observes that the non enrolment of children in school as well as the high drop out rates are serious precursors to child labour. Unless policy measures and programmes are initiated to address the current challenges to education, many of these children will continue to be drawn to exploitative child labour.

2. Prevention of child labour through education

2.1 Primary formal education in theory and practice

Recognising that limited access to basic education is an encumbrance to national development and a root cause of poverty and consequently problems including child labour; the government has since 1997 been implementing the popular UPE (Universal Primary Education) Programme which currently covers all primary school going children in Uganda (see UBOS, 2002a: 25; Education for all, 2000). The general expectation of UPE is the improvement in the general wellbeing of children in Uganda, promoting their access to education and keeping them out of exploitative child labour as a result (UBOS, 2002a; Education for All, 2000; Republic of Uganda, 1998).

In terms of access, the UPE programme has seen significant increase in enrolment to over 105% (Luyima, 2001:3). Total enrolment increased from around 2.7 million in the pre-UPE 1997 to 6.9 million in 2001. Enrolment for the year 2002 was 6.5 million children (UBOS, 2002:6).

Table-2.1.b: Gender differentials in Net Intake Rate

Year	M	F	M&F
1990-1995	33%	31.7%	33.2%
1997	93%	90%	92%

Source Education for all, 2000:20

Education for all report (2000) notes that there is virtually no significant gender disparity in net intake rate for both boys and girls; only 1.2% for the 1990-1995 period (see table 2 above).

Table 2.1.c: Gross Enrolment Ratio

Year	M	F
1990	77%	61%
1996	86%	74%
1998	129%	114%

Source: Education for All, 2000:20

There was a much more significant increase in the gross enrolment Ratio for girls between 1990-1996, compared to that of boys (13% increase for girls and 9% for boys). But for the period 1996-1998, boys registered a higher increase in the gross enrolment ratio, 43% against 40 % for the girls.

Education for All (2000) also observes that the expenditure on education as a percentage of total public expenditure was raised from 6.94% ion the 95/96 fiscal year to 7.96% in the fiscal year 98/99. Education for All (2000) further observes that the expenditure on education as a percentage of total public expenditure was raised from 49% of GDP in 1995/1996 to 62% of GDP in 1999/2000 fiscal year. However the quality of education being provided under the UPE programme is being questioned. The pupil to teacher ratio increased from 34.1 pupils per teachers in 1995/1996 to 61 pupils per teacher in 1999/2000 (Education for All, 2000). The pupil to teacher ratio in some schools could be worse than these figures. It is thus doubtful whether teachers would be able to attend to individual needs of each child. But the government has embarked on a recruitment drive for teachers to reduce the high pupil-teacher ratio.

Other problems which have affected the implementation of the UPE programme are inadequate teacher supervision, inadequate school facilities in forms of buildings and equipment and inability of parents to supplement government contribution by providing uniforms and books to their children. The quality of UPE is further affected by irresponsible head teachers, poorly trained or untrained teachers, lack of text books, big classes, financial cost and long distance to schools. The mismanagement of UPE funds has also been reported in addition to traditional and cultural practices, which affects enrolment and retention (MOFPED, 2002:11; Luyima, 2001; Education for All, 2000). This has led to a very low retention rate for children in school. Luyima (2001:3) estimates the number of children retained in school to be as low as 35%. Education for All (2000) also observes that of the children who began primary education in 1986, 70% had dropped out by 1992, only 25% were able to join secondary education. It would thus be plausible to argue that the 75% would find their ways into child labour although some few would manage to enroll in other vocational schools. It must also be noted that few of the factors leading to a high rate of drop out within this period have changed with the introduction of UPE. In some cases the pressures and some of the problems peculiar to UPE have made the situation even worse (see MOFPED, 2002:11).

In terms of relevance, the introduction of a new curriculum has incorporated new subject such as Swahili, mother tongue, art and craft, and an attempt to vocationalise primary education and make it more relevant to local and national needs (see Education for All, 2000). But shortage of teachers trained in the new subjects and other problems have hampered the implementation of the new curriculum (see The Monitor, September, 1, 2003).

Moreover the UPE approach has not been replicated to secondary school level, and the facilities at secondary school level have not yet been expanded to cater for the increased number of pupils enrolled. Therefore apart from providing some basic literacy, it is doubtful whether the UPE programme will succeed in helping children acquire skills, which can be used to make them marketable and avoid exploitative child labour.

2.2 Alternative educational approaches to combat Child Labour

Alternative and remedial educational approaches have been encouraged by the government to cater for children out of school and those who dropped out of school for one reason or the other (Education for All, 2000:19). These alternative educational approaches have been implemented in collaboration between the state and non governmental organizations. One of the most prominent alternative education approaches is the ABEK (Alternative Basic Education for Karamoja). This is an approach being spearheaded by an NGO, Save the Children Norway, with collaboration of the government to make education more culturally sensitive to the needs and situation of pastoral nomadic Karimojong tribe in North-eastern Uganda (Education for All, 2000). Targeting out of school children, ABEK aims at bringing literacy and basic numeracy to the children in Karamoja using local instructors and teaching the children from their kraals. ABEK had enrolled 9,265 children by 1999, of which 67% were girls.

Another approach being tested on a national scale is COPE (Complementary Opportunities to Primary Education), which has been designed to help dropped out children to acquire basic literacy, numeracy and practical skills they can use to be employed. COPE integrates some vocational training for these children. This is being tried out on a pilot scale in about 8 districts. This approach has apparently been helpful in keeping younger children (10-16) out of exploitative child labour as well as providing them with skills, which could enhance their chances in the job markets. This approach is flexible in that hours of instruction are made short (only 3-4) in a day to give these children chance to be involved in other economic activities if they can. It also appeals to children who find staying in the school a whole day difficult and those in need of practical education (see Education for All, 2000). COPE is being supported by UNICEF.

The third alternative education approach is the Basic Education in Urban Poverty Areas (BEUPA) being executed on a pilot scale in some slummy areas of Kampala. It targets children 6-16 years and seek to provide them with literacy, numeracy, life and employment skills (Education for All, 2000). It may be observed that this approach could significantly reduce the incidence of child labour as it targets children who could be at highest risk. By providing practical training it gives the children some skills which they can sell and thus keep out of exploitative child labour. Initiatives to reduce child labour within the urban informal sector could thus build on some of these approaches.

Other positive measures to target children with disabilities is the special opportunities given to them through the passing of the UNISE (Uganda National Institute of Special Education) Act which encourages the inclusion of people with disabilities in the local councils to ensure that policies handled at all levels take into consideration the needs of the disabled children (see Education for All, 2000). The disabled children are also given special consideration in enrolment. The disabled are a vulnerable category that if not targeted could easily get involved in child labour.

Education Strategic Investment Plan, 1998-2003 (MOES, 1998:24-25) foresees and takes into consideration what it calls "a balanced partnership between government, funding agencies and communities/parents". Parental contribution to cover some of the shortfalls expected to the tune of 80 billion shillings is envisaged to cover school work, exercise books, school meals, transport and others.

2.3 Child labour relevant support services

Except for the ILO/IPEC action programmes, there are no direct intervention support services targeting children in child labour. Interventions however, through the education system that seek to make it more relevant to the learners and have been on going. Perhaps, indirectly they help to address some of the possible causes of child labour. These are briefly examined:

- Focus on the enhancement of the quality of education through encouragement of community participation in monitoring the quality of education. This is being done through an improved role of School management committees and making schools accountable to the communities (Education for All, 2000:58). This has not however totally eliminated the mismanagement of funds for improvement of education at the school level (see MOFPED, 2002).

- The revision of the curriculum for primary education to take into consideration essential skills which children should acquire such as integrated production skills, agriculture, business studies, mother tongue, entrepreneurship education, art and technology. All these are attempts to make primary education more relevant and retain children in schools (Education for All, 2000). Shortages of teachers for the newly introduced subjects have been noted, as well as the preoccupation of some schools on pupils simply passing examinations (Education for All, 2000; The Monitor, September 1 2003). These have hampered the implementation of the improved curriculum. The government is nevertheless in a process of addressing these problems.

- Educational facilities are being expanded such as classrooms, toilets and construction of more schools to cater for the increased enrolment through UPE. Other supportive programmes have been organized for teachers such as Basic education, Child care and adolescent development to improve the handling of pupils and attend to adolescent special needs. The teacher development and management services (TDMS) under primary education training development Programme which focuses on closer interaction between the schools, communities, district authorities in improving educational administration and quality is being implemented. Another part of the programme is to ensure availability to schools of high quality instructional materials.

- The government has also stepped up its efforts to reduce the high pupil per teacher ratio. This has been done through support to Primary teacher colleges to expand their capacity and recruitment drive for teachers.

- Child rights awareness activities are being promoted mainly by NGOs and training of teachers on child rights issues, starting up child right clubs in schools and encouraging debates on the best interest of the child. Many NGOS have also devoted their resources in organizing awareness about the importance of girl-child education and encouraging parents to give equal access to education of both boys and girls.

Despite all these efforts, government attempts to improve educational qualities still face the problem of resource mobilization. Some communities like the nomadic tribes still have unfavorable attitudes towards enrolling their children. The new syllabus/curriculum is also still posing significant problems; teacher training is not at present at par with the demands (Education for All, 2000).

3. Functioning of skills training in the urban informal sector

3.1. Overview on skills training sector

The skills training sector like other sectors, is undergoing reform. In 1999, the government developed a draft TVET policy document. This policy draft has recently in August 2003 (MoES 2003), been revised to capture the current thinking i.e. designing training policies and programmes that are employment oriented and which target the training needs for the urban informal sector. The 1999 draft policy proposed quite a number of reforms including the content and delivery of training, financing and the institutional framework. The recent TVET policy draft 2003; is more explicit on TVET system reform, but proposes many institutions some of which are yet to have clearly defined roles. However, it is more emphatic on training for the informal sector, providing for competency-based training, and trade testing for both skills acquired formally and informally.

An important ingredient in the economic policy framework is the appreciation of the role of informal sector in absorbing employment as indicated in the Draft Employment Policy 2003; MSE policy 1999; PEAP; PMA and Medium term competitiveness strategy for the private sector. Despite the positive promise from the policy framework, the informal sector is till inadequately targeted by services including technical training, financial, marketing among others which are needed to increase productivity and quality of output. More over, the proposed training interventions will still only marginally benefit training for the informal sector at least in the short and medium term due to the predominance of TVET systems and training deliveries that discriminate TAT. The huge cost of investment required to re-orient the training systems, is almost prohibitive. Financing alternatives are only being explored like having public private partnerships in funding training, implementation of a training levy and leaving the private sector to meet the training costs; there is not yet any conclusive option considered.

3.2. Main training providers (except traditional apprenticeship)

Prior to the implementation of the macro-economic reform policies which commenced in the second half of the 1980s, the skills training sector was mainly dominated by government and the not for profit providers who are predominantly church based. However, following the implementation of the reform policies, the skills training market has attracted a considerable number of suppliers who are mainly profit driven. Important to note is that many of the private for profit providers are more involved in the provision of technical and business education and limited vocational training. In addition, many of them are poorly equipped with the necessary facilities when compared to government institutions and moreover their graduates neither easily find employment in the formal sector nor in self-employment (Walakira 2002).

3.2.1 Government

The government remains a key provider of TVET to a large number of trainees though mainly for the formal sector. Presently, the government has 24 technical schools, 30 technical institutes and 5 technical colleges under the Ministry of Education and Sports. It has only 4 well-established vocational training centers it is running. These are; Lugogo, Nakawa, Jinja and Masulita Vocational training institutes. Two of them namely; Lugogo and Nakawa are well equipped following rehabilitation and capitalization by donors, GTZ and JICA respectively and these are largely providing skills for wage employment in the formal sector. The introduction of UPE in 1997 by the NRM government, has meant that the existing TVET centers will not be able to absorb the large number of primary and secondary school dropouts. Consequently, it has worked out a strategy in the TVET policy 1999, of increasing the provision of vocational training by establishing a vocational training center in every sub county, to absorb mainly, UPE graduates who may not go beyond primary or secondary levels. These centers are referred to as community polytechnics under the 1999, TVET policy draft. It is anticipated that these will provide low cost training, which will, meet the needs of communities including MSEs; and that they will be the key centers to spur rural development. These suggestions are still on paper and it is difficult to conclude that they will be of great benefit to training for MSEs.

3.2.2 Private Providers

Up to 600 private TVET providers are registered with the Ministry of education (Keating 2000). Majority, are church based and provide training for modern sector employment, which is moreover supply driven. The inadequacy of training equipment and other facilities has undermined the quality of TVET among many private providers. Many are increasingly providing general skills, which are transferable across tasks such as computer literacy, abstraction, management and little to do with technical skills associated with for example, machine maintenance, product design and development, and use of specific tools (see Walakira 1999; 2002). Although they are indeed filling part of the vacuum left due to inability of government resources in the TVET, they have failed to adopt quickly to labour market demands in respect of vocational training needs (see Haan 2001). Hence, greater interest in training for the informal sector, lies more with TAT and partly with adhoc programmes from NGOs providers, which relate to production of specific products.

3.3 Traditional apprenticeship training

Traditional apprenticeship is a form of on-job training in MSEs offered under the supervision of a more experienced worker who acts as the trainer or master crafts (wo) man. This training is most common in small manufacturing enterprises such as those involved in metal work, foundry, black *smithing*, carpentry, and car repair, maintenance and construction. In spite of the weaknesses associated with TAT such as training in narrow and traditional skills and lack of theoretical content (Walakira 1999; Haan 2001; World bank 1993), traditional apprenticeship has until recent, been the most wide spread form of training reaching out to the MSE sector.

3.3.1 Dimension

Uganda's TAT compared to other training providers, is by far the largest training provider to the vast majority of young people involved in the informal sector employment. Information is lacking on the actual size of the sector in terms of training providers and enrollment. But the estimated 800,000 MSEs that employ approximately 1.5 million people (MSE Policy 1999) rely or source majority of their skilled labour needs from traditional apprenticeship system rather than the formal system.

Available information from the USAID 1995 MSEs Survey (pp.40) by Impact Associates of about 5000 MSEs workers indicates only about 9% had skills obtained formally. It further indicates that up to 16% obtained their skills through apprenticeship, while up to 67% did not have any skills. Apprenticeship (traditional) appears to have been more associated with activities in manufacturing activities in this study. However, it could also have been important for the study to investigate the general skills or education attainment for the category that had no skills so as to know how these people manage to run their activities, the possibility being that they rely on knowledge acquired in primary or lower secondary education.

With about 340,000 young people joining the labour market annually, only about 10,000 are equipped with skills from universities and other tertiary institutions (Employment Policy 2002). The 1988/89 manpower survey results for example indicate that the formal technical and vocational system produces few graduates meant for the modern sector. During the survey period 1988/89, the formal TVET system produced only 2,000 artisans, 2,500 craftsmen from technical institutions and about 1,000 technicians form technical colleges.[3] Existing policy documents nonetheless, underline the limitations of the manpower surveys by pointing out that they leave out informal sector apprenticeship, which is the main source of skills, and hence caution, and therefore could be misleading. Comprehensive information on skills profiles for the informal sector is still lacking.

3.3.2 Actual functioning

Apprenticeship training in Uganda like elsewhere in Sub-Saharan Africa constitutes a main entry point into the informal sector for the vast majority. It has been observed in the various studies (Haan 2001; Walakira 1999; Birks et al 1994) that apprenticeship in training is not well organized in East and Southern Africa as compared to West Africa.

[3] The survey also revealed critical shortages of skilled manpower, with technicians and associated professionals at 38%, sales and service workers at 19%, crafts and related workers at 7%.

However, the common characteristics of apprenticeship training in Uganda do not appear to differ from those in any country in Sub-Saharan Africa except for a few such as the quantity of the sector and specific intervention efforts. The following characterize apprenticeship training in Uganda (see Walakira 2002; *EFA 2000*):

- Few initial skills, experience or qualifications are required for entry.
- The apprentice merely has to locate a willing master, often a relative,
- The type of skills provided are work specific and correspond with the nature of activities the masters are directly involved into. The skills mainly cover the activities as indicated in matrix below.
- TAT involves teaching and learning by both doing and observation
- Payment of fees is very limited instead, trainees (apprentices) in most cases receive training in exchange of labour
- Apprentices are mainly young and unemployed people
- At times apprentices receive a small pay from their masters
- No certificates are given after the training
- The duration of the training varies between individuals depending on how fast some one can learn.
- Trainees can be retained at the end of the training
- The training is highly flexible and non-scheduled
- Training can last for less than a quarter of a year for activities like hairdressing to up to a year or two for repair work, metal working and other related activities
- Apprenticeship trainers can take on between 2-5 or more trainees depending on their capacity

Examples of the skills provided by the informal sector (see Walakira 2002)

Key skills imparted

- Mechanics/Repair work: Motor-vehicle/automobile repair, driving, panel beating, servicing, wiring, other repair work
- Woodworking skills: Carpentry, joinery, furniture making etc
- Textile/Garments skills: Tailoring/sewing, designing, knitting, etc
- Metal work skills: Welding, fabrication,
- Hotel/Restaurant skills: Catering
- Computer skills: Typing, data processing, use of window packages
- Business skills: Marketing, book keeping, cost calculation
- Others: Hair dressing, electricity wiring, etc

3.3.3 Participants in TAT and accessibility

TAT largely involves young people between 14 years and 25. Majority are primary school dropouts. Technical training under TAT predominantly constitutes boys rather than girls. Traditionally, there are fewer females compared to males involved in technical activities. The interplay of social and cultural constraints such as discrimination, denial of access to education and resources, and employment; deny many women entry into many productive activities including those in urban small-scale industry. Consequently, even TAT training in the urban informal sector is a domain for males especially in manufacturing activities and repair works. Females are more involved in the service sectors involving hairdressing, tailoring, and food preparation. The more vulnerable young people involving the very poor and the disabled will have access to training only if their parents, guardians or close friends of their parents are the ones involved. Only in a few instances have NGOs developed partnerships with TAT providers to enable the disadvantaged street children receive this form of training[4].

3.3.4 TAT interventions

Particular training programmes largely in business development services (e.g. by FIT Uganda, FIT Africa, BSMD)[5] have been organised to benefit owners of MSEs-TAT providers; albeit, by private providers and mostly with support from donors. The few technical training interventions such as the master craft (wo) men-training programme supported by UNIDO, and the Gatsby training involving entrepreneurship development and technical skills upgrading for MSEs also target MSEs owners. Hence, existing interventions for MSEs, have targeted owners of the establishments rather than the TAT system in general. The advantage with the interventions though, especially in the case of master craft (wo) men training is that, it has been standardized and training modules for technical skills are *competence based* which provides a basis for standardizing training within the TAT system or framework. Indeed, owing to the fact that the master crafts (wo) men training curriculum has been incorporated into the leading VTC curriculum (Nakawa- VTC) and its recommendation for inclusion in the school curriculum by MOES (UNIDO 2002), it provides a good ground for its formalisation.

Policy interventions explicitly targeting TAT have only recently been integrated into the TVET policy draft. Discussions with members of the Permanent BTVET steering Committee (PSC[6]) under the MoES, indicated that there is apparently greater attention to incorporate skills up grading for TAT and its incorporation into the TVET policy. The proposals for revision of existing TVET policies to incorporate TAT, are based on the consultancy report for the study on Business, Technical, Vocational Education and training (BTVET) (see Nalumansi et al. 2003), funded by the EU. One of the key proposals is to reform the TVET system, make skills training demand driven, introduce competence based training, add value to TAT through modular-competency based training, allow for testing of competencies both formally and informally acquired and

[4] An example is The Katwe One Youth-Youth Development Project consisting of local businessmen with small workshops which offered training to young people with support the foundation for the Advancement of small Enterprises and Rural Technologies (FASERT) (see Haan 2001)

[5] FIT (Firm Implements and Tools) Uganda and FIT Africa largely supported by ILO and other donors have been the leading agencies providing or facilitating the provision of BDS. More recently, Business Services Market Development (BSMD) project supported by DFID is also working to complement services offered by other BDS providers.

[6] The committee is presently head by Prof. Lugujjo of Makerere University, with members or representatives from MOES, DIT, the Private sector and Donors. The committee meets regularly to discuss policy issues for TVET.

give authority to the private sector for trade testing through the relevant authority (see Nalumansi et al. 2003). Training that target the informal sector is particularly given greater relevance.

3.3.5 Formalization/standardization of TAT, management skills training

As already pointed out, the TAT system in Uganda is neither formalized nor standardized. Individual providers offer skills training based on their knowledge and work experience. Standardized apprenticeship training only applies to the modern sector enterprise based training, which is provided for under the 1972 Industrial Training Decree. Neither the Education white Paper 1992, nor the TVET policy 1999 provided for standardization of TAT. Information from interviews however, suggests that the latest TVET policy draft 2003, (only recently discussed-second week of September 2003), provides for a competency based TVET system oriented to a modularized form of training. That the system will allow for testing and certification of skills acquired both from the formal as well as non-formal skills training. That the private sector involving employers, in partnership with other partners will be responsible for developing occupational standards based on their needs, these will be developed into competencies which can be tested, and certificates of proficiency issued. A person who meets the qualifications for several competencies can become a crafts (wo)man and receive an intermediate certificate, the Uganda certificate or Master craftsman certificate, after testing through the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) involving the National Qualifications Authority (NQA)

3.3.6 Training of master-craftsmen (-women)

The government has an apprenticeship skills training programme offered under the DIT for training of master crafts (wo) men (see section 4.1) eligible to persons who have attained 16 years and a minimum standard of education of senior secondary II and who are medically fit. The training which involves on the job and off the job training can lead to the award of various certificates including one for intermediate certificate, the Uganda certificate and Master craftsman certificate. While eligibility requirements are not very tight, still they leave out a number of people on the basis of education attainment and age. The training is regulated by the Industrial training decree No. 2 of 1972 and industrial Training (apprenticeship) regulations of 1973.

Other training interventions targeting master crafts (wo) men, are initiated by donors, but private participating organisations are owning them up. UNIDO for example is currently running a hands on skills transfer experience programme for master crafts (wo) men that benefits MSEs owners who are members of the umbrella organisation for small scale industrialists, the Uganda small-scale Industry association (USSIA) as it is called. Participants in the training receive Trainer of Trainers training (TOT) in priority sectors including metal working, carpentry and masonry, electrical installation and electronics, textiles, food processing and leather products. The training is organized at different sites namely, at VTCs (such as Lugogo VTC), in plant enterprise study for practical purposes, and training organized at selected venues. The main topics for master crafts people trained also as advisors, include adult learning principles, setting of training objectives, different training methodologies, training needs assessment (TNA) and task analysis, curriculum development and demonstration techniques.

3.3.7 Post-training (self-) employment related support

Credit support

Uganda has experienced miserable losses in attempting to access credit to small-scale producers through public finance institutions such as Uganda Commercial Bank (now sold to Stanbic Bank, owned by South African Investors). The past publicly financed credit schemes as well as the most recent ones such as *entandikwa Credit Scheme* (ECS) have had a poor performance, in terms of loan recovery. Apparently, the financial sector is showing good signs of recovery following the crisis of collapse of a number of banks in the 1990s. While banks are still few in the countryside, micro finance institutions are playing a surrogate role of filling the void. Indeed, there about 600 registered MFIs in Uganda (BOU 2002) and owing to their proliferation in number, the government is recognizing the importance of MFIs. With competition for supply of MF services intensifying, banks are showing signs of easing their lending conditions to make it possible for MSEs to obtain loans without collateral security and which has been a major impediment[7]. The government strategy since implementation of reforms, has been to promote the growth of micro finance institutions to provide credit and other non-financial services on terms and conditions acceptable to MSEs (GOU 1998; MoFPED 1999). The Bank of Uganda policy to regulate the MFIs was approved by government in 1999.

Cooperative support

The cooperative movement in Uganda failed as it did in other Sub-Saharan countries. However, of the recent, the government has been trying to revive cooperatives among farmers. The USSIA is also mobilizing MSEs to work together to access common services and/facilities at district levels through their associations. It is foreseen that through these associations, they can collectively mobilize support for training, marketing and other services.

[7] See The New Vision of September 9th 2003, pp.31, Vol.18 No. 216. 'Barclays Bank offers hand' of support to SMEs to borrow money between Ug. Shs. 5-10 million without collateral, as long as owners show satisfactory cash flow statement, books of accounts and a letter of registration (story by Ricks Kayizzi)

3.3.8 Monitoring and evaluation

There is no monitoring and evaluation of the TAT system owing to the absence of any formal intervention. Once formalisation and standardization are effected, then monitoring and evaluation can follow.

3.3.9 Monitoring and evaluation of skills training system

The Technical and Vocational Training Authority proposed under the TVET policy is mandated to develop TVET policies, coordinate activities and ensure the quality of the training system. The authority working under the MoES is further mandated to oversee the evaluation of the training system, to ensure that it adopts to changing labour requirements.

4. Description of relevant policy context

4.1. *Government reform policy for the IS and vocational skills training sector*

4.1.1 Macro and microeconomic policies

Uganda's economic policies since the second half of 1980s have been designed to attain sustained growth through macro economic stability and reforms. With greater support of the Brettonwood institutions, there has been elimination of restrictions on foreign trade and on investment. Price controls have been removed. The foreign exchange system has been liberalised and reforms in the public sector have been undertaken. Tax reforms as well as deregulation of the financial system has been initiated. While the benefits of the macro economic reforms to the MSE sector in Uganda have not been isolated, it has been noted generally that restructuring has been accompanied by the expansion of the informal sector in form of MSEs new start ups (see Mead D. et al. 1998:61-5; MSE policy draft 1999). Albeit, other observers have alluded more to the expansion as evidence of poverty multiplication (Moser et al 1993; Prenze, 1998).

4.1.2 MSE policies and institutions

The policy environment is gradually improving for the informal sector in Uganda and this owes largely to the positive attitude towards the sector –partly because of the recognition of its contribution to the economy. The commitment of the government in supporting the informal MSEs growth and development has been demonstrated in the creation of a Micro and Small Enterprises policy unit in MOFPED in 1996, to ensure that a policy is formulated to address the need of the MSEs. An Informal sector enterprises committee has also been established to take care of the need of these enterprises (see Haan, 2001:64).

As evidence of growing incorporation of MSEs needs into economic policy priorities, the government in the MSE policy 1999 and the Medium-term competitive strategy 2000-2005 for the private sector (MoFPED 2000; 1999); has singled out targeting reforms to benefit both MSEs and the large corporate sector. These include among others, reforms in infrastructure provision, strengthening the financial sector and improving access, commercial legal sector reforms, institutional reforms which include dealing with corruption, reforms in public procurement, simplifying administrative procedures and improving tax administration, and removing export sector specific impediments.

Institutional Framework for MSE sector

The Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development is responsible for developing MSE policies and their integration into the general economic policies. An

MSE policy unit was created for this purpose under the ministry. It works in partnership with the Private Sector Foundation (PSF) to create a favorable MSE business environment and increasing access to vital services. To promote coordination of the sector, a National Coordinating Committee for MSEs (MSENCC) has been put in place. Collaboration with umbrella and private associations such as USSIA, FUE, UWFT, UMA, UNCCI, DENIVA,[8] is also being enhanced (GOU/MSE Policy Paper, 1999). Technology institutions such as The National Council for Science and Technology (NCST) and The National Agricultural Research Organisation (NARO) are also earmarked to support MSEs in developing technological capability.

4.1.3 Vocational skills training

As a way to strengthen the human resource capacity for the informal sector, the government has proposed in the TVET policy 1999, the vocationalisation of the school system to introduce components that link the school curriculum to the world of work, and the increasing support to existing vocational training centres and farm institutes. Further more, the policy recommends putting in place of community polytechnics to absorb primary school completers and equip them with key work skills and also to enable the community, including MSEs entrepreneurs, to utilise these centres and benefit from skills upgrading and access to appropriate technologies.

Table -4.1.3.a: Selected ESIP Investments: Indicative allocations (US$ million) and targets

Programme	**FY 98/9-99/0**		**Fy00/1-02/3**		**Total**
	Indicative cost	Outputs	Indicative cost	Outputs	
Vocation education: expanding opportunities	**30**		**35**		**65**
Quality improvement/assurance devt	5	TVET action plan operational	10	Capacity built	15
TVET management and governance devt	5	District guidelines ready	5	District mgt systems in place	10
Provision of community polytechnics	20	CPs in 23 districts	20	CPs in other 22 dsitricts	40

Source: MoES (1998) Education Strategic investment plan (pp:34)

[8] DENIVA- Development Network of National Indigenous Voluntary Organisations, UWFT - Uganda Women's Finance Trust, FUE- Federation of Ugandan employers, USSIA- Uganda Small Scale Industries Association, UMA- Uganda Manufacturers Association, UNCCI- Uganda National Chambers of Commerce and Industry

The MoFEPD (2002) suggests in PRSP, that 800 polytechnics will be established, at least one for each sub county (pp.60). The proposals in TVET policy require a great deal of investment (see table below) that the country is not likely to afford at least in the foreseeable future. Total allocations to the vocational training amount to 9.1% of the USD 710m allocated to the education sector.

4.1.4 Apprenticeship training

The MoES has an apprenticeship section responsible for establishing and administering training programme both on job and off job, registration and maintenance of all contracts apprenticeship, inspection of apprentices and organising courses. Every apprentice is required to complete a pre-determined number of years under a contract of apprenticeship during which time he attends the off-job craft training courses of about six weeks duration each year. The remaining period is spent in industry. A person becomes eligible for apprenticeship if (s) he has attained 16years, has reached a minimum standard of senior secondary II, has been certified medically fit. The vocational training institutes of Lugogo, Nakawa and Jinja provide artisan up-grading courses for grade II trade test holders to enable them achieve a Grade I test standard in trades such as machining, machinery fitting, welding and flame cutting, sheet metal work, electrical installation, electrical fitting, motor vehicle repairing, brick/block laying, carpentry and joinery, electronics, painting/decorating and driver basic mechanics. Candidates who successfully complete trade testing can receive: i) The intermediate craftsman certificate; ii) The Uganda craftsman certificate and iii) The Master craftsman Certificate.

4.1.5 Institutional framework for skills training

Vocational training

The vocational skills training sector is coordinated by the Ministry of Education and Sports through the directorate of Industrial Training (DIT). The proposed TVET authority will take over the responsibilities of DIT and over see the formulation of policies, revision and quality assurance. Existing vocational training centers run by government (4) and up to 600 TVET private institutions, which offer vocational training, train on the basis of government curriculum.

4.2. *Linkages of TVET to other components of a comprehensive employment promotion policy*

The government vision of expanding employment has been reflected in almost all existing interventions including inter-alia; the Plan for Modernization of Agriculture (PMA) 2000, the Poverty Eradiation Action Plan (PEAP), 1997 and 2001; the Draft

Employment Policy 2002; Medium- term Competitiveness Strategy for the private sector 2000-2005; the MSE Policy Draft, 1999; and the TVET policy draft, 1999 (MoFEPD 1997; 2000; 2002; MoES 1999). In all these efforts, there is a conscious attempt towards integrating and/ demonstrating the link between employment creation and TVET interventions.

Realising that unemployment was posing a big challenge–both economic and political, the government sought to comprehensively address it through vocational training. Hence, it adopted the recommendation of the education white paper report 1992, of vocationalising the school system, so that learning would be directly linked to the world of work. The TVET policy has incorporated this recommendation, although it is evident that this may not actually address the problem of unemployment as implied in several studies (World Bank 1991; 1993; 2002; Haan 2001) which suggest that TVET training in the school system is supply driven, costly and has been less adoptive to changing labour market needs –as in the case of self employment. The policy nonetheless proposes the establishment of community polytechnics to meet training needs of primary school completers to be absorbed into employment and to meet local training and technology needs of communities. These need to adopt a curriculum that benefits not only pre-employment training, but also post employment training if they are to be beneficial.

The employment policy 2002, puts emphasis on employment creation through sustaining high levels of economic growth, prioritizing skills training including; management training, technical and vocational skills, and supporting the MSEs sector as a segment of the economy with greater potential to absorb labour through self employment. Concerns for training needs of the MSE sector in relation to TVET show more *intention than extension*, since they have not proposed practical training that addresses the needs of MSEs. This also applies to the training proposals in the PMA, PEAP/PRSP, MSE polic and TVET policy.

4.3. Global and other sector development policy frameworks, funds

Skills training in Uganda fits squarely in the global development strategies including among others, the Poverty Reduction Strategies, Education For All (EFA). Uganda's poverty reduction strategy prioritises investment in human resources by expanding access to basic education as well as increasing investment in TVET. The PRSP, 2002, shows that the education sector receives the largest allocation of the sectoral budget up to the average total of 25.6% for the financial years between 1999-2001. Up to 9.1% of the allocations to the education sector, was earmarked for TVET according to the Education Strategic investment plan for 1998-2003. However, no allocations have been made to non-formal skills training for example skills transfer through TAT. Instead, priority has been concentrated on vocationalisation of the school system. This only awaits implementation, but the huge cost involved and the growing evidence that vocationalisation of school systems may have limited impact on effectiveness of training with regard to employment (Laugulo et al 2001), serves to undermine the strategy.

Other sector development frameworks such as the plan for modernization of agriculture and the poverty eradication action plan have all given due emphasis to developing the human resource capacity. But the bulk of the investment in human resources has been made in increasing access to basic education through the introduction of universal primary education in 1997. As a result of UPE, enrolments increased from 2.3 million pupils in 1996 to 5.3 million pupils in 1997. Latest figures from the headcount exercise carried out in March, 1999 show that enrolment stands at 6.591 million pupils, showing an increase of 180 percent in the same period (EFA Assessment Report 2000). Since it is evident that many UPE graduates may fail to make it beyond primary school level, the government‘s concern about skills training has been translated into the recommendation to establish community polytechnics to absorb them and also to strengthen vocational training centers including those that are privately sponsored.

4.3.1 Technical cooperation interventions for MSE sector

The donor community is increasingly shifting from project support to budget support within the framework of the sector wide approach. This implies that quite a number of activities that were previously implemented by individual donors, having a number of projects some of which were duplicated; are being harmonized through central budget support so as to ensure efficiency and effectiveness. This not withstanding, individual partners still express preference for support to particular sectors through the project approach. Skills training though paramount, it appears that greater emphasis by international Organisations (IOs) has been put on supporting the increased access to education through the UPE programme introduced by government. The support to the MSE sector at present (including the modern sector) is geared at promoting the private sector institutions and developing private sector training markets, as well as creating a conducive and enabling legal environment through the regulatory reform. A few of the programmes aimed at supporting the MSEs have entailed any of the following:

- Promotion of savings and micro finance institutions to benefit micro enterprises by the UNDP through the programme (UGA/97/001) for Poverty Eradication through Decentralised Governance and Private Sector Development. The programme is implemented with active participation of micro enterprise associations and District Private Sector Promotion Centres and Village Savings and Credit Institutions. The Second Country Cooperation Framework (2001-2005) maintains the focus with regard to private sector development on income generation and sustainable livelihoods; the district private sector promotion centres are being strengthened to provide better business development services, including e-commerce.

- The government is being helped to establish a regulatory framework for micro-finance institutions, whose ability to transform lives of poor people for the better have been demonstrated beyond doubt. The programme is also assisting high growth small and micro-enterprises to become profitable and serve as models for other entrepreneurs.

The UNDP points out that despite some successes achieved with the existing programmes, their real impact in creating a critical mass of SMEs with high growth potential has not been realised. This is partly due to the limited scope of services provided under these programmes, coupled with the lack of any structured mechanism for screening and selecting companies that are likely to make effective use of technical assistance and credit facilities.

Other programmes included:

- Regulatory reform supported by DFID. The overall objective of the programme is to provide a conducive and favourable legal and regulatory framework for businesses to operate and expand; in particular to facilitate the Micro & Small Enterprise sector in Uganda to grow and become competitive.
- BDS services supported by EU to benefit MSEs such as Business Uganda Development Scheme (BUDS). This is a cost share grant project that is funded by the European Union, implemented and managed by the Private Sector Foundation Uganda, PSFU. In its bid to encourage the development and competitiveness of the Private Sector in Uganda, PSFU through the BUDS-SSE provides financial assistance for eligible costs associated with training, use of business development services through a cost sharing arrangement. This facility is specifically tailored to the needs of micro, small and medium enterprises all over Uganda. BUDS-SSE training activities supported include book-keeping, day to day business management, better farming methods, IT, customer care, marketing, product improvement and improvement of consultants skills. The EU further more supports access to financial services through the apex scheme financed by the European Investment Bank. MSEs can write proposals in potentially very successful activities and receive soft loans.

- The ILO with partner organisations has also supported a number of interventions for MSEs particularly centered on BDS, through FIT Uganda, FIT Africa and lately, the BMDS. One of the most recent and visibly appealing programme focuses in promoting and facilitating MSE information sharing, marketing their products and enhancement of both horizontal and vertical linkages for MSEs for the enterprise sector, through the media.

- The ILO through the IPEC programme has also been piloting action projects through partner organisations focused on prevention, withdrawal, and rehabilitation of children involved in commercial agriculture, street work, commercial sex exploitation, child domestic work and stone crushing. Evaluation of the programmes suggests greater impact created, albeit, there is limited sustainability for the achievements due to shortage of resources by the participating institutions (Brand and Aguma, 2003). Further interventions in the area of policy and advocacy have been successful. The ILO conventions 182 and 138 for example have been ratified, a draft National Policy on Elimination of Child Labour is already in place and undergoing a financial impact assessment, and creation of a National Platform for Prevention and Elimination of child labour.

- GTZ has been more actively involved in facilitating the development of a TVET policy and working with government agencies at different levels. Areas of priority for GTZ include system reform to ensure that TVET reacts to labour market demands. GTZ is implementing a programme, albeit in the start up phase called Programme for employment Oriented Vocational training (PEVOT) which has three components namely; a) The establishment of Uganda Vocational Qualifications Framework; b) TAP Programme (adding value with out altering the system); c) Teacher training; and d) Promotion of private training providers.

- UNIDO has had a hand in master craft (wo) men training, as indicated in section 3.3.6, while JICA and GTZ have extended direct support to vocation training centers of Nakawa and Lugogo respectively, helping in provision of training equipment and rehabilitation of existing facilities.

- Activities of NGOs are varied and widespread. However, as indicated much earlier, church based institutions have been the most instrumental in establishing vocational training centers which have benefited skills training for young people. Majority of the other NGOs provide skills training which is project oriented, or product based and these are several. Some provide exlusively vocational training, while others provide project oriented training accompanied with support services like micro credit so as to help the beneficiaries enter income generation activities. Examples of these include; RYDA, AMREF and UYDEL.

For the case of RYDA its overall objective is to ensure that street and vulnerable children' opportunities and potentials are enhanced by helping them to access both formal and non-formal education. Its vocational training programme targets specifically children aged 15 to 18; the younger children are supported to rejoin basic primary or secondary education. The vocational training programme of RYDA aims to enable the trainees to acquire skills in craftsmanship (including carpentry), catering, tailoring, art and design; and electronics. In addition to providing vocational training, RYDA has also been training these children in entrepreneurship (see Brand and Aguma, 2003). The objective is to help these children to be self-reliant and equip them with skills to start their own business in relation to the skills gained. The ILO through IPEC pilot project on elimination of child labour in the urban informal sector has provided some support to RYDA. In spite of the success attained, it has been pointed out that the support rendered created much expectations in the communities that could not be satisfied by the existing limited support. Further more, the delays in disbursement of funds hampered the smooth running of activities. Nonetheless, quite a number of children up to 250, benefited from vocational training (50) and basic education including primary and secondary education (210). AMREF and several other organizations have provided both materials and financial support to RYDA in this endeavour. RYDA has also attempted to formalize its vocational training activities to enable the trainees acquire certificates.

The relevance or effectiveness and sustainability of RYDA's approach remains to be thoroughly evaluated. However, greater impact has been created within the communities where the organization operates. A few of the initiatives within RYDA's training programme involving an integration of production with training in respect of vocational training and the introduction of tailor made courses that respond to employment needs of trainees need to be strengthened if the programme is to create greater impact or even be more relevant for self-employment effectiveness.

With respect to RYDA's role for IPEC skills training programme for elimination of child labour in the informal sector, RYDA can be instrumental in identification of children affected by child labour, mobilization and training of craftsmen to train children apprentices and designing remedial programmes for children who are to be re-integrated into the school system for basic primary and secondary education.

For the case of UYDEL, the organization aims at improving the lives of street children, targeting specifically children at risk of CSEC. UYDEL's programme aims at withdrawing children from commercial sexual exploitation, rehabilitating and counseling them, placing them with local Artisans and other vocational training centers to gain employable skills (e.g. in tailoring, hairdressing and others) and providing them with training kits. The community including parents of children at risk of commercial sexual exploitation is actively involved in identification of the children and identification of volunteers and other resource persons who could facilitate the reintegration of these children. The response to this programme has been considerable with hundreds of children accessing the services provided. The challenges to this programme as depicted by Brand and Aguma (2003) is that some of the girls targeted for vocational training had interest of rejoining formal education, whereas for those interested in undertaking formal vocational training low level of academic standards attained limits this option. For children with low level of academic attainment, their age (15 and above) further constrains their efforts/interest to rejoin formal education. This latter category is thus left with no option but to undergo informal skills training through apprenticeship. An assessment of the UYDEL programme reveals further problems (Brand and Aguma, 2003). Although the placement of the trainees with local artisans was helping them to acquire employable skills, some of the placements were taking longer than expected. More over, if not closely monitored, there is a possibility that placements with craftsmen may turn into another form of child exploitation.

AMREF has also been involved in identifying children at risk of CSEC. Through its programme of training traditional birth attendants (TBAs) and other community health workers (CHWs) in Kawempe division, Kampala, AMREF came into direct contact with this problem. The trained TBAs and CHWs would identify the children and refer them for medical support to AMREF clinics in the project area. These children would in turn be used to convince other children at risk of CSEC to come for medical support at AMREF clinic. However AMREF has been mainly collaborating with RYDA to whom it would refer the identified children for other forms of rehabilitative support. It has also provided some monetary support to RYDA for effective reintegration of children at risk of CSEC (Brand and Aguma, 2003).

NGO's interventions in general for elimination of child labour have been marginal but their results have been promising. The major limitation though is linked to funding and sustainability of the efforts.

5. Identification of opportunities and good practices and development of country strategy proposals for the IPEC skills training programme.

5.1. Influencing policies

IPEC skills training proposals come at a time when Uganda's skills training needs are almost becoming insurmountable. With up to 60%[9] of the primary school completers failing to make it either to the secondary schools or to the TVET system, the alternative available to this 'forgotten majority' is to acquire skills training informally through apprenticeship training in the informal sector. If the informal sector is the largest absorber of this big percentage of the labour force, then, what opportunities exist within the policy context and or existing programmes to incorporate skills training that targets the population of interest.

5.1a: Influencing policies

- *The draft Child labour policy 2003*
- *The Draft MSE policy 2003*
- *The draft employment 2002*
- *The draft TVET policies 1999, 2003*
- *The Draft orphans policy 2003*
- *PEAP 1997*
- *PRSP1999-2003*
- *PMA 2001*

In the first case, the government has recognised the role of the informal/MSE sector as the driving force of the economy and the largest absorber of labour in the urban areas. It also recognises the need for skills upgrading for this sector not only to expand opportunities for increased returns to labour (through increased productivity and quality improvement which assures increased incomes and reduction in poverty) but also; as a measure for enhancing the competitiveness of the sector so as to increase its contribution to the economy. As an intervention measure, the government put in place an MSE policy 1999, presently in draft form. This, coupled with the ongoing TVET policy 2003, under draft, there is a good opportunity to incorporate skills training that targets the informal sector and more particularly, the children involved. Policy proposal for incorporation into the TVET policy, can be channelled through the PSC with representatives from MoES, private sector and the donor community. Ongoing policy arguments on skills training suggest the adoption of expert advice based on study commissioned by the EU that supports system reform, a paradigm shift for skills training –giving more responsibility to the private sector to determine training content, focus on competency based training and putting in place a NQF/A.

The effectiveness of TAT in the informal sector cannot be exclusively enhanced by skills upgrading. The apprenticeship graduates while may have the requisite skills; they may

[9] Only about 30% succeed to join secondary education and only about 10% join the TVET system. The 60% therefore finds recourse in the informal sector skills training modes.

not be able to apply them in the absence of an employer, or access to equipment necessary to gain entry into self-employment. The present policy context for support of MSEs sector, provides for creation of an enabling environment for MFIs to operate and extend financial services to MSEs to start up or even expand existing enterprises. The MFI services are being complimented by government loan schemes such as the Entandikwa Credit Scheme (ECS) for support to income generation.

Table-5.1.b: Synopsis of the policy context and emerging opportunities

Policies/strategies	**Existing opportunities**		
	Opportunity for revision/ influence	Institutional framework *Structures in place:*	Consultative process
TVET policy 2003	Still in draft form,	MOES, DIT, PSC, PSF,	On going, monthly
MSE policy 1999	Still in draft form	MSE policy Unit, MSE NCC, PSF, MoFEPD, UMA, USSIA	Open
Employment policy, 2002	Still in draft form	MoGLSD,	On going
Child labour policy, 2003	Still in draft form	MoGLSD, National Platform for child labour, child Labour Coordination unit	On going
Strategies, laws, etc			
PEAP, PRSP	Periodic review	MoFPED,	Periodic review
PMA		MoFPED, MoAAF,	Periodic review
OHSA, 2002	Draft form	MoGLSD,	Ongoing

Table-5.1.c: Integrating TAP issues in the TVET policies

<table>
<tr><th>Policy</th><th colspan="4">Existing opportunities</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="10">TVET policy draft, 2003</td><td>Issues raised</td><td>Opportunities for TAT, MSE sector</td><td>Proposals</td><td>Funding opportunities</td></tr>
<tr><td>Issues raised</td><td rowspan="9">Ideas still being incorporated, an opportunity to influence exists</td><td rowspan="9">☻ popularization of TAT
☻ skills upgrading for master crafts (wo) men
☻ on site and off site training recommended
☻ involvement of master crafts men in defining competencies</td><td rowspan="9">EU, GTZ,

Comments LDGD, require district influence</td></tr>
<tr><td>Training for informal sector</td></tr>
<tr><td>Competency based training</td></tr>
<tr><td>Establishment of community polytechnics</td></tr>
<tr><td>Open access</td></tr>
<tr><td>Trade testing</td></tr>
<tr><td>Establishment of NQF</td></tr>
<tr><td>Demand driven training</td></tr>
<tr><td>Modular based training</td></tr>
</table>

The case for skills training as a strategy against child labour gains more credence with the existence of the UPE programme. The government recognises that the estimated 6.9 million children currently enrolled under UPE, will soon complete primary school but then need to be absorbed into skills training, because only a handful will manage to join secondary school or the formal TVET system. And while the World Bank, DFID and other partners have keen interest to support UPE, some EU partners are raising the case for supporting technical training.

Other policies that provide an opportunity to incorporate skills training for the target group include the Medium Term Competitive Strategy for the Private Sector (MOFPED, 2000a) which recognises the importance of training in improving the productive capacity of the MSE enterprises. The draft national employment policy (still undergoing formulation) recognises the need for skills development so as to address the problem of poverty, creation of employment and increasing the productivity of the private sector. The policy for elimination of child labour is also under draft, and provides an opportunity to incorporate skills training proposals for the informal sector.

Table-5.1.d: New projects/existing/proposed

New projects: existing/proposed	**Existing opportunities**		
	Target group	Institutional framework	Funding sources
BDS, FIT U, FITA	MSE entrepreneurs, media houses, consumers	USSIA, UMA, UEPB,	Private sector, ILO, etc
BSMD	MSE entrepreneurs, traders	ILO/DFID, USSIA,	ILO/DFID
PEVOT components *(start up/inception phase)*			**Possible source**
a) The establishment of Uganda Vocational Qualifications Framework;	System reform, MOEs	GTZ, MoES	GTZ, EU
b) TAT Programme (adding value with out altering the system);	Actors, master crafts (wo) men, apprentices	GTZ, MoES	GTZ, EU
c) Teacher training; and	TVET system teachers	GTZ, MoES	GTZ, EU
d) Promotion of private training providers	Private providers	GTZ, MoES	GTZ, EU
ILO/IPEC pilot	**Child labourers**	**ILO/USAID**	**Funder-**

programmes *(winding up)*			**ILO/USAID**
• CSEC	Children in CSEC	" " "	
• Informal sector	Children in inf. Sect	" " "	
• Street children	Children on the street	" " "	
Master crafts programme	Master crafts (wo) men	UNIDO, USSIA, GATSBY, MoES	UNIDO
GATSBY loan savings scheme	MSE entrepreneurs	GATSBY Uganda, UK	GATSBY Uganda, UK
EU/EIB, financial support to MSEs	" "	MoFEPD, PSF, EU, BOU, MoFPED	EU/EIB
Regulatory framework Projects	Legal environment	DFID/Worldbank	
Master craftsman training		UNIDO, USSIA, GATSBY	
Youth Entrepreneurship scheme (YES)	Youth	UNDP, District/Local Governments	UNDP
Complementary opportunities for primary education (COPE)	Children, out of school, never attended school 10-16 years (8 districts)	UNICEF, MoES	UNICEF, GOU
Basic Education in Urban Poverty Areas (BEUPA)	Children out of school 6-16 years, Kampala Slum areas	GTZ	GTZ

The Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) also Uganda's poverty reduction strategy paper (PRSP) outlines strategies of reducing the incidence of poverty among Uganda's populace. The PEAP/PRSP has four main pillars: 1. Sustainable economic growth and structural transformation; 2. Ensuring good governance and security; 3. Increasing the ability of the poor to raise their income and 4. Improving the quality of life of the poor. This involves among others increasing people's opportunities and access to resources, training and others. Progress towards the achievement of the goals of the PEAP/PRSP is reviewed annually through the production of an annual progress report which is informed by continuous monitoring coordinated by the Poverty Monitoring and Analysis Unit in the Ministry of Finance, planning and Economic development. In addition to that every two years the government of Uganda produces a Poverty status report which acts as a precursor for a more comprehensive and participatory review of the PEAP/PRSP. With regards to the informal sector, PEAP/PRSP also recognises the capacity improvement of the MSEs for better performance. Although it lacks a child labour component (MoGLSD, 2002), the PEAP/PRSP can still be influenced to more specifically consider incorporating the training needs of the Child workers. This is because the PEAP/PRSP has mechanisms of periodical participatory review based on the changing realities on the ground (see MoFPED, 2003b; MOFPED, 2002). Civil society organisations play an active role in the review of the PEAP/PRSP. Incorporating the objectives and strategies of ILO/IPEC in combating child labour can thus either be directly through participating in the PEAP/PRSP review workshops or through lobbying the various CSOs to include relevant issues within their proposals. The PEAP/PRSP could also present an opportunity for children to acquire training and start–up funds for income generating activities.

5.1.1 Good practices?

There are not so many cases to talk about that implement skills training programmes that particularly aim to benefit children involved in child labour. However, existing programmes much as they predominantly target MSE entrepreneurs with BDS and technical training programmes, they can be adopted and re-oriented to target children involved in child labour in particularly selected sub-sectors. A few of the cases that can be taken to be good practices based on any of the following: their efficiency in targeting beneficiaries; innovative tailor made skills training programmes; and ability to provide for parallel forms of assistance including technical support, financial services to the beneficiaries are discussed below.

5.1.2 The case of Master crafts wo (man) training

This programme funded by UNIDO and implemented in partnership with USSIA/Gatsby targets selected crafts (wo)men for skills upgrading *(both on site and off site –as in the case of use of existing VTCs like Lugogo)* who in turn act as trainers and advisors to other MSE operators. Without going into details discussed under 3.3.6, the advantage with the programme is that it has been designed and implemented in partnership with members of the MSEs through their umbrella association –USSIA. This partnership has directly influenced the content of the training as well as implementation for future sustainability. The decentralization component of the project is organised in such a way that committees are formed at district levels with members from USSIA, UNDP private sector development programme, Gatsby Trust. Gatsby and USSIA keep members interest in the initiatives through formation of business clubs through which members can access loans on one hand, and industrial extension services including skills upgrading courses on the other.

The advantage with this initiative is that it involves demand driven initiatives, has great participation of MSE establishments owners; provides competence based training; and at least it enjoys the support of existing initiatives by donors. Working through this programme, skills training interventions for apprentices who are mostly child labourers in the informal sector can be initiated and implemented. The training however, needs to be done in conformity with the ongoing initiatives to introduce competency-based skills training in the TVET system (see TVET policy draft 2003). The apprenticeship training can be organised on a pilot basis in selected sub-sectors, through a consultative process with the key stakeholders.

5.1.3 Life skills training initiatives

A pilot project –Complementary Opportunities for Primary Education (COPE) is being run by UNICEF and the government of Uganda, targeting children out of school – dropped out, or have never been to school to access them with basic numeracy and literacy skills. Girls are particularly targeted. The programme has a flexible curriculum which is responsible to the community needs and a short learning time of 3 to 4 hours a day. This leaves plenty of time for the children to participate in the socio-economic activities for their benefit. This programme is running in 4 districts with an enrolment of over 3,600 children and is expanding to 4 more districts. The impact of this programme is yet to be ascertained. However, it targets children many of whom are involved in child labour. There is an opportunity to incorporate practical skills training into the programme for children who are working. The same applies to the plot programme by GTZ (BEUPA).

5.1.4 Financial and other support services initiatives for MSEs

Organisations that provide financial and non-financial services to MSEs in form of BDS, help to address some of the supply and demand side constraints that affect their success. It is important that these become partners in the event that skills training programmes targeting working child are designed. They can be of help in accessing parallel services to children or their trainers in the informal sector that can lead to gainful employment.

5.2. Integration of target group into existing programs and projects

Table-5.2. a: Indicative activities for operationalisation and concretisation

Component 1: Policy context

	Proposals and/activities	Implementing agencies/responsible agencies	Existing mechanisms and structures	Requirements
	Integration of TAT -skills training in existing draft policies for elimination of child labour in UIS (see table-5.1.b above on draft policies)	IPEC office, Child labour coordination unit (MoGLSD) and National coalition for child labour[10]	1. See Table-5.1.b (above) 2. Explore opportunities for periodic review	1. Create task force 2. Develop TOR 3. Convene national stakeholder meeting to discuss preliminary proposals

[10] A committee comprising NGO representatives, researchers and media consultants involved in child labour issues. The coalition was just recently formed to champion the cause of elimination of child labour.

Component 2: On going projects and/proposed

	Proposals/activities	Implementing agencies/responsible agencies	Roles	Responsibilities/expected outputs/agencies
	Integrate ongoing projects into skills training for the target group	IPEC office, Child labour coordination unit, MoGLSD	-Coordination and funding	1. Liaise with relevant organizations 2. Work out modalities for cooperation 3.Explore possibilities for integration of present proposals for skills training
Projects	1. Master craftsmen project	USSIA, Gatsby Trust, UNIDO	1. Identification and mobilization of master crafts men, 2. Development of training modules	1. Implement training programme for the UIS
	Proposals/activities	Implementing agencies/responsible agencies	Roles	Responsibilities/expected outputs/agencies
	2. COPE	UNICEF, MoES	1. Technical support in design of project 2. Support in identification of target group	**IPEC office, Child labour coordination unit, MoGLSD would have to:** 1. Liaise with relevant organizations. 2. Work out modalities for cooperation. 3.Explore possibilities for integration of present proposals for skills training
	3. BEUPA	GTZ	“ “ “ “	“ “
	3. Use of new Govt community based poly	MoES, BTVET/DIT	1. Allocation of infrastructure for training in selected communities	“ “ “ “

	techniques for skills training		2. Collaborative development of training programme with selected trainers	
	4. LGDP programme supported through PRSP/PEAP framework	MoFEPD, MoLG,	2. Advocating for funding for skills training during development of district rolling plans 2.Mobilisation of support by district authorities	**IPEC office, Child labour coordination unit, MoGLSD would have to:** 1. Liaise with relevant organizations. 2. Work out modalities for cooperation. 3.Explore possibilities for integration of present proposals for skills training
	5. Proposed TAT programme (Under PEVOT)	GTZ, MoES	1. Technical support in design of project 2. Support in identification of target group 3. Development of training modules	“ “ “
	6. YES programme	UNDP, Local Governments	1. Technical support in design of project 2. Support in identification of target group	“ “ “ “
	7. ILO/IPEC pilot projects (winding up)			

	i. Withdraw of children in child labour in UIS & skills training	RYDA	Implementation of core proposals (training of children, master crafts men	**IPEC office, Child labour coordination unit, MoGLSD would have to:** 1. Liaise with relevant organizations. 2. Work out modalities for cooperation. 3.Explore possibilities for integration of present proposals for skills training
	ii. CSEC Project	UYDEL	“ “	“ “
	Iii. Street Children project	KIN	1. Technical support in design of project 2. Support in identification of target group	“ “
	iv. Sensitisation	ANPPCAN	“ “ “ “	“ “
	8. PEAP/PRSP	MoFEP	1.Integration of skills training for child labourers into PEAP/PRSP 2. allocation of funds to skills training proposals	

Component 3: Research activities

	Proposed studies	Implementing agencies/responsible agencies	Expected out puts
	1. A survey of the TAT sector in the UIS. Examine the training capacity, modes of delivery, child apprentices and prospects for improvement 2. Training needs assessment for master crafts (wo)men and child labourers 3. Research based on pilot proposals	IPEC office, to identify consultants	Baseline line information to use in implementation of pilot proposals

Additional notes on Table-5.2.a: Component 1-3

- *The government plans to establish community polytechnics per sub-county to provide locally appropriate skills in vocational subjects. Already 15 polytechnics are operational. The consultant did not get an opportunity to study the functioning of the polytechnics. However, it is envisaged that they will provide locally appropriate skills to the learners, in any particular region in the country. This is an opportunity to provide skills training to children involved in laborious activities. Carefully designed and tailor made programmes can be arranged for children with the participation of master crafts men. It is important that the courses combine training with production where possible. The government of Uganda is funding community polytechnics, but resources need to be mobilised from other willing partners.*

- *The COPE initiative being executed in a number of districts is a commendable approach as the time and methods of instructions are flexible and can even appeal to working children. Because of its skills training component, this can provide opportunities for working children to learn some skills as well as targeting children out of schools and in need of training. The limitation with this programme is that it is still being tried out on a pilot basis in about 8 districts. Replications in other districts could be considered, based on evaluation of its suitability.*

- *Another initiative is the Basic Education in Urban Poverty Areas (BEUPA). This targets the disadvantaged children in urban poor areas such as slums by providing basic literacy, life and employment skills (EFA, 2000). This approach is apparently beneficial to the children but it is limited in scale (piecemeal approach). But it appeals to and targets children at risk of worst form of child labour. Perhaps this approach can be built upon and expanded in terms of training and scope of coverage to target more children.*

- *The government is also extending grants to local governments under the local Government Development Programme (LGDP) within the PEAP/PRSP framework. The programme funded with loans from the World Bank, enables local governments to identify investment priorities in form of projects that impact on poverty. Skills training for children involved in child labour can be incorporated during the process of developing rolling plans for local governments and there by resources allocated. This however can only succeed if child labour and the need for skills training are appreciated.*

- *Most importantly, it is necessary that an opportunity is seized to influence policies many of which are in draft form to incorporate issues of child labour and the need for skills training which benefits working children. The MSE policy, TVET policy, child labour policy, Employment policy are just a few which can still be revised to accommodate the target group.*

- *Active participation in the on going TVET system reform championed by GTZ should be given priority. The key components of this reform will result into;*

    - *A national Qualifications Framework for TVET*
    - *Establishment of a National Qualifications Authority*
    - *Creation of trade testing centers nearer to where training is provided i.e at district or lower levels*
    - *Definition of competencies for existing trades*
    - *Etc*

5.3. Other strategy elements

Putting in place parallel forms of support to facilitate entry into gainful employment to trainees:

- Putting in place an innovations fund for proposals for training children involved in child labour
- Ensuring increased access to financial services for partners involving in apprenticeship training for children

Note: see unit 5.5 for a continuation of proposals for pilot project out line).

5.4. Outline of country strategy proposal

☻ *The policy context*

The policy framework that is amenable for influence for incorporation of skills training for elimination of child labour in the urban informal sector includes policies such as: *The draft Child labour policy 2003; The Draft MSE policy 2003; The draft national employment policy 2002; The Draft orphans policy 200; UPE policy; The draft TVET policies 1999, 2003; PRSP1999-2003; Mid term competitive strategy for the private sector 2000-2005; PEAP 1997 (Revised 2001); PMA 2000.*

☻ *The following opportunities should be explored in the existing policy context:*

- Influencing existing policies since they are still in draft form
- Consultative process open and participatory –private sector, civil society, etc
- Positive attitude of government towards the role of the informal sector
- Recognition of the problem of child labour
- Recognition of the need for skills training targeting the informal sector
- Regulatory reform
- The institutional framework is in place for informal sector and skills training sector

Tables 5.2.a; components 1-3; provide indicative activities and how to proceed

☻ ***Integration of target group into existing programs and projects***

☻ *The following projects provide an opportunity for consideration of present proposals, especially those that are still at the pilot phase*

- PEVOT – Promotion of employment oriented vocational training (by GTZ)
- Master crafts (wo)men training programme by UNIDO
- Youth Entrepreneurship scheme, by UNDP
- Gatsby business clubs/skills upgrading for MSE entrepreneurs
- Complementary opportunities for primary education programme, GOU, UNICEF
- Basic education for urban poverty areas (BEUPA) GTZ
- Youth entrepreneurship scheme by UNDP and GOU (Local governments)

see *Tables 5.2.a; components 1-3; provide indicative activities and how to proceed*

☻ ***Other strategy elements***

- Putting in place an innovations fund for proposals for training children involved in child labour
- Ensuring increased access to financial services for partners involving in apprenticeship training for children

5.5. *Outline of proposals for pilot projects*

Before an outline of proposals for pilot projects for skills training in the informal sector is made, it is important to make reference to conclusions from various studies or pilot projects linked to training for the informal sector. Some of the studies or existing documentation; Haan 2001, World Bank 2003, Haan and Serriere 2002; Draft TVET policy 2003; Walakira 2002) reveal among others that traditional apprenticeship:

i. Suffers from a poor image owing to the fact that it is taken up by the majority as a last resort
ii. It is not accessible to every body including boys as usually assumed. The very poor and those without kin linkages may have limited access.
iii. Its effectiveness will be enhanced once training precedes market surveys to determine from the beginning what trades and skills have market potential
iv. Requires improvement of basic education including literacy and numeracy, for the master crafts and learners so as to improve skills acquisition
v. Requires skills upgrading for masters-equipping them with teaching skills, calculation, measurement, reading of drawings and training on new equipment not available in their workshops
vi. Requires evaluation and certification of skills obtained
vii. Need for arrangement of post training support including marketing, access to credit

Taking into account of the above observations, the following can constitute preliminary pilot proposals, or key issues for discussion by key MSE representatives, training providers, private sector, representatives from Government relevant departments, the ILO and other partners in the quest to provide skills training for children involved in child labour:

Table-5.5.a: Pilot proposals continued

	Proposed interventions	**Responsible organisations**	**Requirements**
	Popularisation of TAT (awareness raising to remove cultural bias)	IPEC office MOGLSD (Child Labour coordination Unit) and MOES	Create task force Develop TOR To call for technical proposals from competent organizations
	Develop a master crafts (wo)man training programme targeting TAT in UIS	“ “ “	-Collaborate with key partners including, Gatsby Trust, USSIA, UNIDO, -Make use of their technical support
	Support programme for definition of competencies of selected trades in the UIS	“ “ “	-Collaborate with GTZ, PEVOT programme -Support with financing through IPEC office to enable competence based training and standardization of TAT,
	Skills training programme for TAT through Govt	“ “ “	-Need to develop tailor made courses to benefit child labourers

	community poly techniques		-Make training highly flexible and production oriented -Support with coordination, financing and sourcing training providers through IPEC office and task force
	Programme for re-integration of child labourers in the school system	" " "	-Collaborate with UNICEF (COPE) programme, GTZ (BEUPA) project -UYDEL and RYDA for skills training, WAYS (for youth and women services), KIN (for street children interventions. -Call for technical proposals from technical organisations
	Income support programme for families affected by Child labour in UIS	ILO/IPEC office Kampala	-Call for proposals from partners, e.g. UYDEL, ANPPCA, RYDA, WAYS, etc -source for funding

Additional notes to pilot proposals

1. ☻Need to remove the cultural bias against vocational training or apprenticeship training, need to popularize the TAT system in government and the general population about its potential for employment, through an education and sensitisation campaign

2. ☻Need for technical and financial support towards definition of competencies for selected trades (e.g. carpentry, motor mechanic, computer maintenance etc) in the informal sector. This will pave the way for standardization of TAT training through focus on competency based skills training that will enable award of certificates to completers of selected competencies applicable to particular trades. This proposal fits within the TVET policy draft 2003 provision for trade testing for skills either formally or informally acquired. It will be a boost to government which is trying to mobilize resources for this exercise to be done.

3. ☻Support in the development of training programme and curriculum for proposed community polytechnics so that the training can benefit the TAT system through these institutions. The TVET policy proposes to make them community friendly and allow for the development of flexible programmes to address the training needs in the rural communities regarding technology adoption. So it would be necessary to support this initiative with technical support and mobilisation of resources for the polytechnics to be established. A pilot project can be tried out in at least 2 of the operational polytechnics, with modular – competency based training and where possible training linked with production.

4. ☻Another programme can be built around the existing master craft training programme being implemented by UNIDO, USSIA and Gatsby Trust, for technical skills upgrading, teaching skills and entrepreneurship. Enhancing the capacities of craft masters, will directly benefit apprentices who could be involved in child labour. They can as a result be better prepared to pass on the skills to their learners.

5. ☻Income support programme for families vulnerable to child labour, this takes into account of poverty as the principle cause of child labour ad should seek to empower families to have income generation options that do not expose children to child labour

6. ☻Re-integration of children into school system is a viable option especially for the very young ones. A programme focused on this should enable children have subsidized education, be able to raise tuition where necessary and have the necessities to study effectively.

7. A policy focused programme can be designed to influence government policy to address training needs for IS more practically and also taking into account of the need for skills training for elimination of child labour since the TVET policy is still in its draft form.

8. ☻Existing programmes such as COPE, BEUPA, integrated skills programme (ISP) can be influenced to incorporate skills training for children involved in child labour. The fact that many are running on a pilot basis provides an opportunity for inclusion of the target group.

6. Conclusion

This country study has only provided key information on key policy and programme issues that present opportunities for development of a coherent country strategy for elimination of child labour through skills training. The proposals on possible action programmes are only preliminary and are subject to thorough discussions and reviews so as to come up with viable intervention proposals.

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