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Conflicts, Poverty and Human Development in Northern Uganda

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Abstract

The long-running conflict in northern Uganda has led to major violations of human rights against civilians, destruction of infrastructure, reduced access to social services, and paralysed economic activity. Creating peace and fostering reconciliation in the region have not been successful either, thereby hindering development and relief activities, which are further constrained by insufficient funding, and lack of capacity at the district and community levels. The main challenges for reconstruction in northern Uganda are therefore to: (i) achieve peace and reconciliation (ii) provide basic social services to the affected areas (iii) strengthen government capacity to coordinate development and relief activities and (iv) harmonize interventions by the various stakeholders to achieve increased flexibility and transparency.

Keywords: conflict, insecurity, poverty, human development, northern Uganda

JEL classification: D74, O18, O55, H5
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1 Introduction

Northern Uganda has long been plagued by violent conflict and insecurity. The brutal and relentless war between Uganda government forces and the rebel group, the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA), has lasted nearly 19 years. Karamojong pastoralists and tribesmen have also raided and terrorized neighbouring districts in the northern and eastern parts of Uganda for over four decades. The results have been gross violations of human rights, especially those of women and children, destruction of infrastructure, paralysis in economic activity, and a general social and cultural breakdown. As a result the northern region remains the poorest area of Uganda with an estimated 63 per cent of the population living below the poverty line in 2003 (UBOS 2003b). With the failure to achieve peace impeding the restoration of service delivery, the region’s human development lags significantly behind the national average.

This article discusses the effects of conflict on poverty and human development in northern Uganda. It consolidates results from the region’s reconstruction efforts to-date, and draws some lessons for ongoing and future operations in post-conflict areas. The paper is organized as follows: section 2 provides a background to the conflicts in northern Uganda while section 3 discusses its effects on poverty and human development. Section 4 outlines the reconstruction efforts being carried out in northern Uganda, and identifies the pitfalls. Section 5 concludes and draws recommendations.

2 Background to the conflicts in northern Uganda

The northern part of Uganda comprises 13 districts located in five sub-regions (Figure 1).1 But the political boundaries encompass five other districts in Teso sub-region, that have suffered under armed conflicts although they are statistically included in the eastern region (Katakwi, Kaberamaido, Soroti, Kumi, and Pallisa) (MFPED 2004). Thus, northern Uganda is politically defined to include 18 districts, of which Gulu, Kitgum and Pader, Lira and Apac, Kotido, Moroto and Nakapiripirit have been devastated the most by conflict.

2.1 Background to conflicts in the Acholi and Lango sub-regions

The current conflict in Acholi and Lango sub-regions between the LRA and the Uganda government has deep historic roots resulting from ethnic hostilities, colonial-era marginalization of the north, institutional weaknesses, troubled politics during the post-independence period when military sectors of different ethnic groups aspired to regain power from a succession of Uganda governments, as well as from certain external factors.

The main tribe in the northern region, known today as the Acholi, are a merger of the luo speaking Nilotes and Nilo-hamites. ‘When the British colonialists entered Acholi in the 18th century, they did not find any strong central administrative system in Acholi from which to start, unlike in Buganda and Bunyoro where there were centralized

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1 The districts are Gulu, Kitgum and Pader in the Acholi sub-region; Apac and Lira in the Lango sub-region; Moyo and Adjumani in the Madi sub-region; Arua, Yumbe and Nebbi in the West Nile sub-region; and Kotido, Moroto and Nakapiripirit in the Karamoja sub-region.
monarchies’ (PACMU 2002: 26). The British created socioeconomic divisions between the north and the Bantu-dominated south, by establishing in the south (Kampala and Jinja) more productive ventures such as agricultural plantations, industrial and commercial centres. The north and other regions of Uganda became economically marginalized, and the northerners, especially the Acholi, provided the plantation and industrial labour while southerners were preferred for white-collar jobs.

Collier and Hoeffler (2001) argue that rebellion can typically be explained by severe grievances such as inequality, lack of political rights or ethnic and religious differences in society. These factors might partly explain why the division between the north and south caused friction between their populations, rather than between Ugandans as a whole and the colonialists. In addition, the development of the southern regions at the expense of the north led to an economic imbalance, and subsequently to higher rates of army recruitment among northerners as they attempted to improve their livelihoods. This imbalance persisted well into the post-colonial era; the Acholi dominated the army as Uganda became increasingly militarized.
From the early post-independent period onwards no effort was put into making the army a national institution; it was used instead to promote the political survival of the governments in power. Collier and Reinikka (2001) argue that repression, particularly by using the military, for ‘solving’ political problems indicates that Uganda at independence lacked resilient democratic institutions. The army was not only biased in favour of northerners but also tribally skewed towards the Acholi, Langi and West Nilers.

The first prime minister, Milton Obote, was overthrown by his army commander Idi Amin in 1971. During Amin’s regime (1971-79) Langi and Acholi soldiers, perceived to be Obote’s agents, were treated harshly. Amin was overthrown by rebel Ugandan soldiers and the invading Tanzanian army in 1979. Contested national elections brought Milton Obote back to power in 1980, only to be overthrown again in July 1985 by Acholi officers in the Uganda National Liberation Army (UNLA) led by Tito Okello Lutwa. Meanwhile, Yoweri Museveni had started the National Resistance Army and Movement (NRA/M), which overthrew the UNLA government led by Tito Okello in January 1986. Okello’s military junta of Acholi dominated forces withdrew to their homelands in northern Uganda and later to Sudan where they formed the Uganda People’s Democratic Army (UPDA) to oppose the NRA. The NRA was renamed the Uganda Peoples Defence Force (UPDF) in 1995.

Since taking power in 1986, the NRA has faced continuous opposition from armed rebel movements. In 1985, Alice Lakwena (Auma), an Acholi from northern Uganda, created the Holy Spirit Movement, but these forces were defeated in late 1986. When the UPDA finally called off hostilities in June 1988, the majority of these troops joined the government to fight other rebel groups.

In April 1987, Joseph Kony started his own military movement by drawing support mostly from the Acholi UPDA deserters. His movement, first called the Lord’s Salvation Army and later the United Democratic Christian Force, became the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA) in 1994. The LRA is said to have no political aims beyond opposing the National Resistance Movement government (NRM), but it is conducting a reign of terror mainly against the local Acholi in Gulu, Kitgum and Pader, who are accused of being supporters of the government. This has effectively disrupted normal life, as the LRA is said to be the most brutal rebel group in Sub-Saharan Africa.

It is rumoured that the LRA received military equipment, medicine and food from the Sudanese government particularly in the 1990s, which may partly explain why the northern insurgency has persisted. Sudan also offered the LRA a safe haven in return for assistance against the rebel Sudan People’s Liberation Army (SPLA) based in the south, and apparently as retaliation for Uganda’s support to the SPLA.

2.2 Background to conflicts in the Karamoja sub-region

Karamoja (consisting of Kotido, Moroto and Nakapiripirit districts, Figure 1) is a semi-arid region with scant rainfall, located in north-eastern Uganda, bordering on southern Sudan and northern Kenya. It has a population of some 921,000 people (UBOS 2003a) and is dominated by herdsmen: the Dodoth in the north, the Jie in the centre, and the Bokora, Matheniko and Pian in the south. The Tur speaking Labwor inhabit the west and a Kalenjin speaking group, the Pokot, live in the southeast. Karamoja is
marginalized and isolated—economically, socially, and culturally. It also has the worst socioeconomic indicators of wellbeing in Uganda.

Karamoja has long been plagued by persistent insecurity, unrest and instability primarily because of the tradition of cattle raiding and the widespread availability of small arms amongst the herders of the region. Until the beginning of the 1960s, guns were not available to the Karamojong cattlekeepers, there was no cattle raiding, and hostilities, mainly over waterwells during the dry season, were traditionally fought with spears.

This changed in the 1970s as the Turkana from the west and the Toposa of northern Kenya and Southern Sudan, armed with modern weapons, launched frequent cattle plundering trips into Karamoja. By the late 1960s the Karamojong began in self-defence to manufacture homemade guns. They also supplemented their stocks after Amin’s overthrow by looting an army armoury in Moroto in 1979, and with illegal trade in small arms across the Sudan-Kenya borders. Once armed, the Karamojong began to retaliate with cattle raids and terrorizing the Katakwi, Pader, Kitgum, Kumi and Lira districts, as well as neighbouring Kenya and Sudan, particularly when pasture in Karamoja became scarce. These raids have persisted despite attempts by successive governments to disarm the Karamojong and establish peace.

Poverty and a harsh environment also perpetuate insecurity in Karamoja. Prolonged drought and shortages of food and water are facts of life in this region. During a prolonged dry spell, herdsmen leave permanent homesteads and move their animals to search for pastures, water and disease-free land, often crossing into neighbouring tribal territories or countries. This has induced a conflict-prone environment, as the struggle for the control of these natural resources escalates.

Unemployment and inadequate economic opportunities also generate conflict and insecurity. Well armed with illegal guns, the only source of livelihood for the 15-35 year old youth is cattle raids on other clans or tribes.

3 Effects of conflicts on poverty and human development

3.1 Displacement of people

Continuous acts of violence by LRA rebels and Karamojong warriors have displaced more than 1.4 million people in northern Uganda, who now reside in camps mainly in the districts of Gulu, Kitgum, Pader and Lira (Table 1). More than 80 per cent of the population in Acholiland are displaced, consisting mainly of women and children. The level of displacement increased dramatically from July 2002 after a government order for all Acholi residents to move to protected camps or centres, in efforts to protect the civilian population from rebel attacks and abduction.

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2 Short rains come during April and the longer rainy season extends from June to early September.
Table 1
Geographical distribution of IDPs in Uganda

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Districts</th>
<th>Oct-98</th>
<th>Dec-99</th>
<th>Nov-00</th>
<th>Dec-01</th>
<th>Jul-02</th>
<th>Nov-03</th>
<th>Jan/Feb-04</th>
<th>March-05</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adjumani</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bundibuo</td>
<td>11,000</td>
<td>101,000</td>
<td>105,000</td>
<td>63,000</td>
<td>87,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gulu*</td>
<td>261,206</td>
<td>237,710</td>
<td>370,000</td>
<td>292,160</td>
<td>368,417</td>
<td>419,258</td>
<td>438,000</td>
<td>515,309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kibaale</td>
<td>12,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kabarole Kenjojo</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>14,595</td>
<td>15,416</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kapchorwa</td>
<td>5,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kasese</td>
<td>35,000</td>
<td>16,000</td>
<td>18,000</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katakwi *</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td>88,500</td>
<td>77,000</td>
<td>104,254</td>
<td>160,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kitgum *</td>
<td>122,121</td>
<td>93,000</td>
<td>82,645</td>
<td>82,645</td>
<td>133,000</td>
<td>281,372</td>
<td>228,883</td>
<td>269,809</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lira *</td>
<td>13,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>79,097</td>
<td>283,709</td>
<td>299,283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masindi</td>
<td>46,958</td>
<td>5,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaberamaido *</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>97,561</td>
<td>97,561</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kotido *</td>
<td>67,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kumi *</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>59,207</td>
<td>3,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pader *</td>
<td>17,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>229,115</td>
<td>229,859</td>
<td>279,589</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soroti *</td>
<td>136,112</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>109,441</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>474,327</td>
<td>560,668</td>
<td>610,240</td>
<td>559,721</td>
<td>682,717</td>
<td>1,405,976</td>
<td>1,548,453</td>
<td>1,363,990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acholi land</td>
<td>383,327</td>
<td>330,710</td>
<td>452,645</td>
<td>374,805</td>
<td>518,417</td>
<td>929,745</td>
<td>891,742</td>
<td>1,064,707</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Districts in northern Uganda are marked with *;
The number of IDPs (as of March 2005) can fluctuate according to the security situation. The number here reflects those receiving food from WFP and is not necessarily the total IDPs for the whole country. Night commuters are also excluded.


3.2 Security and abuse of internally displaced persons

Although intended to protect civilians from rebel hostilities, internally displaced persons (IDPs) do not appear to be adequately protected in the camps, as these are attacked regularly by the LRA. Property has been destroyed or looted, homes burnt, people remaining behind in the villages killed, and vehicles ambushed. All this has increased vulnerability within the IDP camps and has added to the trauma and to the numbers of IDPs and ‘night commuters’, the children who flee at night to the safety of the cities. It has also restricted movement of people and caused inter-ethnic clashes among the Langi in Lira district and the Acholi,\(^3\) thus, posing a potential threat for further violence.

The UPDF forces are also alleged to have inflicted on northern Ugandans inhumane cruelties of torture, rape and sexual assault, child recruitment, and instant execution during detention. The UPDF are rarely prosecuted for these crimes, and investigations of abuse are not made public, creating the appearance of impunity, with a subsequent loss of public trust.

Intertribal clashes, armed robberies and ambushes on the roads by the Karamojong raiders have caused considerable anxiety in Karamoja and neighbouring districts,

\(^3\) The Langi and Acholi groups clashed following an LRA attack on a camp in Lira district, because the LRA is composed mainly of ethnic Acholi.
particularly the bordering Katakwi, where more than 70 per cent of the population was displaced in February 2004 (Table 1). The raids can be very violent; killings, rape, theft of animals, and malicious destruction of property have occurred.

### 3.3 Abductions

The LRA has abducted over 40,000 civilians; it is estimated that at least 25,000 are children, the main target of the armed conflict (Human Rights Watch 2003; UNICEF 2004; Liu Institute for Global Studies 2003) to be exploited as front-line soldiers, forced labour or forced to carry out extreme forms of punishment, such as killing fellow child captives trying to escape. Many are still believed to be in captivity, others have died in battle or from mistreatment, disease and hunger. Girls are coerced into sexual slavery to become the ‘wives’ of LRA commanders and subjected to rape, unwanted pregnancies, and sexually transmitted diseases.

Fearing abduction, every evening about 40,000 children in northern Uganda (the ‘night commuters’) pour into towns where they seek sanctuary under poor conditions in hospitals, schools, or mission grounds; they return home in the morning. No official assistance is provided to these children, and they can be abused as they make the nightly treks between home and shelter.

### 3.4 Access to education

With the destruction of schools, looting of supplies and shortage of teachers, education in northern Uganda has been severely affected by conflict. Schools have been closed or relocated, and those still operating have been forced to limit their teaching times to those considered to be safe for children to attend (10 am to 3 pm). Many are not attending school for fear of LRA killings and abductions while others, teachers included, have moved to more secure districts where they add to the congestion of the towns. This has created shortages of shelter for teachers and students, scholastic materials, classrooms, drugs, water and sanitation, and recreation facilities.

In addition, the learning and effective participation of children in the classroom is affected by their traumatic experiences. Moreover, universal primary education is not matched to the curriculum needs of traumatized or displaced children. The skills of teachers in particular are limited for coping with these children. Traditional support mechanisms have been greatly weakened and efforts at school-based counselling are

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2</th>
<th>Education statistics, 2003</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ratios</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pupil-to-classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kitgum</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pader</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lira</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

easily eroded by other community factors such as lack of shelter, abuse and poverty (UN 2003b: 69). As Table 2 indicates, the quality of education in the affected districts is generally lower than the national average. For example Pader has a pupil-to-classroom ratio of 151, a pupil-to-teacher ratio of 80, a 41 per cent failure rate of examinations for leaving primary school and a 6.3 per cent dropout rate. These are much higher than the national averages of 87, 52, 26 and 4.5 per cent, respectively. Limited access to quality education denies children their basic human right, and restricts their future involvement in mainstream economic and social life, also compromising the overall development prospects of the country.

3.5 Water and sanitation

The forced resettlement of people into camps in an effort to protect the population has resulted in overcrowding and woefully inadequate basic facilities, including water and sanitation. Latrine coverage is estimated at over 145 persons per latrine stance as compared to the standard of 20 persons per stance, for emergency situations. Availability of water from non-rain water sources is currently at 4-12 litres per person per day when the emergency standard is 15 litres (UN 2003b: 42). This situation is particularly acute in Pader, Lira and in areas of Teso and Soroti where a growing number of displaced people are living in newly established camps where water and sanitation facilities are still being developed.

3.6 Health and nutrition

Health services in the affected areas are faced with shortages of drugs, health workers, food supplements, medical equipment and infrastructure. Consequently, the health and nutrition conditions of the conflict areas are said to be very poor in comparison to the rest of the country. For example, BCG immunization rates in the districts of Kitgum and Pader fell almost by half over the period 2001-03 (Table 3) while the national average increased from 90 to 96 per cent. Infant mortality stands at 290 per 1,000 for Gulu, and 274 per 1,000 births each for Kitgum and Pader. The national average is 88 per 1,000. In Kitgum and Pader in 2002 there were on average 70 and 68 health centres per one million people, respectively, compared to the national average of 124.

Malnutrition is acute in the affected areas because of food insecurity, and is considered to be the underlying cause of death at present, although parents also report cases of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3</th>
<th>Immunization rates against major diseases (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>National</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bacillus Camete Guerin (BCG)</td>
<td>2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measles</td>
<td>2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diphtheria, whooping cough &amp; tetanus</td>
<td>2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2003</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

diarrhoea, fever and respiratory infections. For example, assessments in the IDP camps of Gulu and Kitgum indicate that the malnutrition rates of children under-five are 31.6 per cent and 12.5 per cent, respectively (UN 2003b: 36).

Although the overall prevalence of HIV in Uganda has reportedly declined substantially in recent years from its previous peak, this is a considerable problem for northern Uganda. An antenatal site (Lacor hospital) in Gulu district registered 11.9 per cent, the highest HIV prevalence among pregnant women in 2002, compared with 10.8 per cent for the western region, 8.5 per cent for the central region and 6.3 per cent for the east (Figure 2). Several factors are seen as causing the spread of HIV/AIDS in the north: (i) disruption of the cultural and social system so that children lack proper parental instruction; (ii) increased sexual activity due to over-crowding in camps and redundancies from jobs; (iii) rape, sexual abuse and exploitation of girls and young women; and (iv) lack of concern over health issues resulting from traumatized experiences (Human Rights Watch 2003). It is therefore essential to increase awareness among the IDPs to prevent the spread of HIV/AIDs in the camps.

Figure 2
HIV infection prevalence rates (%) at selected antenatal sites

Note: Data on HIV prevalence are obtained from the four respective districts; Nsambya for central region, Mbarara for the western regions, Tororo for the eastern regions and Lacor for the north.
3.7 Decline in the social and cultural structure of society

The conflict situation has led to a breakdown of social and cultural values in northern Uganda. Displacement and resettlement in camps caused a degeneration in social values and order, resulting in such behavioural changes as neglected responsibilities, increased crime rates, high rates of alcohol and drug consumption, and lack of respect for traditional values. Separation, orphanhood and increased domestic violence have disrupted the family structure (UN 1999).

3.8 Poverty and human development

Northern Uganda lags behind the rest of the country in terms of human development. The insecurity of the north has led to gross human right violations, loss of productive assets of the poor, retarded economic activity, and restricted access to social services and markets. The human development index (HDI) for northern Uganda in 2001 was 0.350, which is lower than 0.449, the national average, or 0.552 for the central district, for example (UNDP 2002). The region has also persistently had the highest incidence of poverty at an average of 66 per cent over the last ten years (Table 4). This is much higher than the national average of 46 per cent or that of the other districts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>1992/3</th>
<th>1993/4</th>
<th>1994/5</th>
<th>1995/6</th>
<th>1996/7</th>
<th>1999/00</th>
<th>2002/03</th>
<th>Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>55.5</td>
<td>52.2</td>
<td>50.1</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td>46.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>65.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>53.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>43.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Estimates for 2002/03 exclude Kitgum, Gulu, Pader, Kasese and Bundibujio. Estimates for the poverty line were based on seven household surveys; the Integrated Household Survey, 1992/93, four subsequent Monitoring Surveys (1993/4-1997/8) and the 1999/00 and 2002/03 Uganda National Household Surveys (UBOS).

4 Reconstruction efforts

Reconstruction efforts in northern Uganda include development initiatives, emergency relief and preparedness and peace and reconciliation.

4.1 Development initiatives

In collaboration with development partners, the government of Uganda has implemented several programmes in the northern region. The aim has been to empower communities by enhancing their capacity to systematically identify, prioritize, and plan for their needs and to implement sustainable development initiatives through various projects to improve socioeconomic services and opportunities. Examples of such projects are the Northern Uganda Social Action Fund (NUSAUF), EU-Karamoja and...
EU-Acholi. Programme activities include: (i) institutional development to strengthen project management capacity, disseminate information, monitor and evaluate activities; (ii) capacity-building at the local government and community level, to undertake bottom-up planning, deliver and manage services, mobilize and organize communities for peacebuilding and conflict management; (iii) infrastructure development; (iv) vocational training for war returnees and orphans; (v) promoting time- and labour-saving technology in IDP camps; (vi) development of micro credit schemes; and (vii) community counselling and training.

The programmes have, however, only achieved limited success due to a number of problems:

- Insecurity has retarded the speed at which projects are implemented and monitored, by hindering access to communities, limiting contributions from the community, and increasing the costs of project implementation;
- Lack of capacity at the district- and community levels;
- Cross-cutting issues such as gender discrimination and environmental concerns exist, making it difficult to integrate women, for example, into programme activities;\(^5\)
- The issue of survival has made many people focus more on the basics of daily life rather than on community development. This has contributed to inflexibility and a narrow scope in the programmes;
- Integration, conflict management and reconciliation as part of the development agenda are lacking in many communities, organizations and institutions, e.g. the NUSAF project;
- The nomad nature of the communities in Karamoja, combined with insecurity, makes it difficult to provide services or gather information to better address development needs (e.g. EU-Karamoja projects).

### 4.2 Emergency relief and preparedness

Several international and local organizations provide emergency relief and follow-up assistance to IDPs. These include the distribution of food and non-food items and support to the social sectors (education and health) in the form of essential drugs; support to HIV/AIDS infected persons; psychosocial, socio-economic and nutrition support; provision of water and sanitation facilities; provision of temporary classrooms, scholastic materials, school sanitation and water supply; teacher skills training for psychosocial care; tracing abducted children and their reintegration into the community;

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\(^4\) The EU-funded projects are being implemented by the Karamoja Projects Implementation Unit, which was established in 1995. Communities are required to contribute 25 per cent of the estimated costs of the projects (see RoU and EC 2001). Similarly, the community contribution in the EU-Acholi Programme is 25 per cent. This programme covers Gulu, Kitgum and Pader districts and its projects work through the local government structure.

\(^5\) Acholi communities have a predominantly patriarchal society with the men as figureheads in all sectors of the community.
immediate care and psychosocial support through counselling; promotion of sports and games in schools; and peace education and community-based reconciliation.

Emergency relief to improve the welfare of IDPs in the camps has, however, been insufficient due to financial constraints. For example, the WFP currently faces a funding gap of US$50 million in providing food relief assistance to about 1.3 million IDPs in northern Uganda through December 2005 (WFP 2005). Other constraints to programme implementation include:

- The insecurity, which limits regular humanitarian assistance to the affected areas, means that there is no sustainable health, education and other basic services;

- Although in effect since August 2004, the national policy on internal displacement enacted to establish the operational principles for the government, and humanitarian and other development agencies in providing assistance and protection of IDPs in Uganda is not yet implemented;

- Lack of capacity at relevant government departments6 for humanitarian affairs limits the effective coordination and facilitation of these activities as well as hinders the collection of relevant information concerning the affected population;

- The government recently announced its intention to have the line ministries, the districts and other stakeholders implement recovery efforts primarily through their own budget frameworks. This raises concerns over how the additional resources needed for the reconstruction of northern Uganda will be reconciled within the budgets and the overall balance (e.g. sector ceilings) of the national budget.

4.3 Efforts to create peace and reconciliation

The government of Uganda and actors from the national, regional and international communities have undertaken numerous initiatives towards creating peace and reconciliation in northern Uganda. A combination of methods has been tried, including disarmament, amnesty, military operations, peace negotiations, community mobilization, political education, and research.

The Karamoja Disarmament Programme was initiated by the government in December 2001. Its main objectives were to (i) enlist support of the people at the grassroots level for the peaceful disarmament, with sensitization programmes; (ii) end the terrorism of the armed Karamojong; (iii) stop illegal trafficking of guns from Sudan/Kenya and work closely with Kenya to ensure a concurrent disarmament of the Turkana and Didinga; (iv) resettle and rehabilitate those voluntarily surrendering their arms; (v) train and deploy security forces (UPDF and local defence units, LDUs) at strategic areas in Karamoja and along various border-points to stop armed incursions and gun trafficking;

6 The office of the prime minister is responsible for the overall coordination and monitoring of the implementation of the government strategies, in partnership with the ministry of finance planning and economic development, which has the key role for the financial aspects of the recovery.
and (vi) support the police and judiciary to ensure peace and administration of justice. Some 11,000 guns, out of an estimated total of 40,000 held by the Karamojong warriors, have been relinquished to date. But the exercise has encountered difficulties:

− The programme, received with mixed feelings, has also generated panic among the pastoral communities who are reluctant to surrender weapons for fear of attacks from neighbouring tribes (ADOL 2000);

− Weak enforcement of law and order in Karamoja makes it difficult to ensure timely arrests and prosecution of the offenders;

− The small arms trafficking along the Uganda/Sudan/Kenya borders erodes supervision of the warriors in the region because their activities cut across borders into states where government is non-existent. Consequently, cooperation to facilitate the control of trafficking across common borders cannot be established officially;

− Government has failed to provide a timely and effective response to the identified requirements needed for the programmes, i.e. provision of adequate funds, opening up of secure roads, and construction of wells;

− The paucity of remunerative livelihoods for the youths voluntarily surrendering their weapons has triggered a reoccurrence of cattle rustling and conflicts;

− The deployed local defence units are often ill-trained and poorly supported because of a mismatch between the timeframe and availability of resources, while UPDF forces are not adequately prepared to back up these units;

− Lack of cooperation, trust, commitment, common cause and sincerity among the senior local leadership perpetuates clashes and raids between clans;

− The insecurity of Karamoja spills over into the neighbouring districts where the Karamojongs have migrated in large numbers to search for pasture and water. Human rights violations by the Karamojongs often lead to violent clashes between these and the government forces.

To provide assurances of no retaliation and to offer incentives to all those willing to abandon the uprising, the government of Uganda, with support from donors, introduced the Amnesty Act 2000, which is overseen by the Amnesty Commission. The major goals of the Amnesty Act are (i) to improve public and political leadership with regard to conflict resolution and reconciliation; (ii) to promote dialogue and reconciliation among rebel groups; (iii) to demobilize and process applicants seeking amnesty; (iv) to provide resettlement assistance that includes psychological support and health care, and financial assistance to those seeking amnesty; and (v) to facilitate long-term social and economic integration through income-generating and skills development programmes. Since the enactment of the Amnesty Act in 2000, over 15,000 insurgents have surrendered, but only about 4,000 have received the reintegration package.

Fulfilment of the Amnesty Act 2000 goals is challenged by delays in formulating a national framework for coordinating and implementing the Amnesty. Inadequate
funding together with weaknesses in the Commission’s financial management and procurement systems have also delayed the implementation of priority activities. LRA fighters do not have enough information on the Amnesty offer because of the lack of safe zones. And ongoing investigations by the International Criminal Court (ICC) leading to the possible prosecution of the LRA leaders are said to have discouraged many potential defectors and to have instilled fear in others who have already benefited from amnesty.

There have been continuous efforts at the national, regional and international level to broker a peace agreement between the government of Uganda and the LRA. Though these efforts generally failed in the early 2000s, the situation appears to be improving to date, and there is optimism concerning the possibility of a peaceful resolution of the conflict.

The chief negotiator between the government and LRA, Betty Bigombe, continues to maintain contact with LRA leaders. However, the negotiation process is fraught with difficulties, including the lack of direct face-to-face negotiations with Joseph Kony, limited logistical, political and diplomatic support. The number of security incidents has decreased over the past few months, and more LRA defectors are reporting to the Amnesty Commission. Regional security has improved. Uganda is actively participating in regional peace processes, with active diplomacy and the signing of agreements. Despite considerable problems in eastern Democratic Republic of Congo, threats from this area appear to have diminished. The relations between Uganda and Sudan have also improved over the past year, increasing the effectiveness of UPDF’s counter-insurgency effort. However counter-insurgency measures by the military are criticized for adding to the death toll of civilians, to abductions, as well as fear and displacement. The recent agreement between the Sudanese government and the SPLA in the south has also renewed hope of peace in northern Uganda; Sudan has reduced its support to LRA. Success of the Sudanese peace agreement is critical for stabilizing both the southern Sudan and the relationship between Uganda and the Sudanese government. Civil society initiatives at reconciliation and bridge-building are showing promise. Finally, ICC investigations are putting pressure on both the government and LRA. Nevertheless, total peace remains elusive in some parts of the north, thus, human suffering continues and poverty is still a major challenge.

Research carried out in the conflict areas by international and local organizations and individuals has been important to building peace. Field research, which included participatory methods, and discussions of the findings at conferences, in particular, has influenced donor and national policy interventions. It has been used as a vehicle for breaking down barriers in the community and for creating a link between the parties concerned—the region, central government, and local/state and international actors (see for example Doran 2000). However, coordination and wide dissemination of research results seem to be lacking. This study noted discrepancies in the findings of similar research studies.

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7 Acholi district representatives and religious leaders have participated in the peace talks between the government and LRA leaders.
5 Conclusions and recommendations

The insurgency in northern Uganda has done enormous economic and social damage and has hindered development and relief activities. Insufficient funding and lack of capacity at the district and community levels are further constraints to relief efforts and development. Effective action requires not only a massive injection of resources, but also a clear strategy for peacebuilding and post-conflict reconstruction, in two broad areas.

The first is peace and reconciliation. Obviously greater effort is needed by the government and other stakeholders to end the conflict. This should include increasing resources directed towards initiatives such as the Amnesty Commission and Karamoja disarmament programme, and urging both sides to pursue peaceful conflict resolution within the framework of the United Nations and regional mechanisms. The Amnesty Commission needs to link up with community-based reintegration initiatives such as NUSAF to ensure the sustainable socioeconomic reintegration of those taking up the offer of amnesty. Those guilty of crimes against civilians should be brought to justice, including individuals within the UPDF ranks. However, concerns have been raised that the investigation of LRA leaders may increase the risk that children will be targeted and prosecuted by the LRA since children are exempted from the ICC prosecution. Ensuring that the path to peace negotiations is open and unobstructed by such obstacles as possible prosecution of the LRA leadership by the ICC is important.

Civilians in the affected areas must be effectively protected, and government forces respect the rights of civilians in northern Uganda. In particular, the protection, rights and wellbeing of children must be integrated into the processes of peace, post-conflict recovery and reconstruction, with special attention to the needs and capabilities of girls. The LRA is obliged by international law to immediately cease cruel, inhuman and degrading treatment, deliberate killing of civilians or abductees; release all abductees still being detained; and allow the humanitarian agencies full, safe and unhindered access to the affected areas.

The disarmament programme in Karamoja needs to focus on strengthening the defence forces that supervise security in the region, community mobilization and sensitization at the grassroots, and cooperation among the regional stakeholders, the senior leadership and local politicians. More effective joint regional action is called for to prevent, combat or eradicate small arms trafficking.

A clear strategy is also needed in the area of relief and development interventions. It is important to strengthen capacity, particularly in the areas of participatory and bottom-up planning to reflect the priority needs of the communities as well as government capacity to coordinate development and relief activities in the affected areas. Speeding up the enactment of the Disaster Management and Preparedness Bill and implementation of the policy on internal displacement is also crucial. Two other priorities include (i) harmonizing development interventions by different stakeholders (donors, the government, NGOs and the private sector) to achieve increased flexibility and transparency (ii) addressing cross-cutting issues such as gender discrimination and environmental concerns in the implementation of the projects. This is a tough agenda but given the scale and depth of poverty in Northern Uganda, it is the bare minimum. As with other conflict-affected countries, the objectives of peace and poverty reduction in
the region must be viewed as a whole, and integrated into the cross-cutting measures that deal with the country’s overall development problems.

References


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