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**Free Movement
of Persons and
Transhumance
in the IGAD Region**



UGANDA

Country report

▶ **Labour
Market
Assessment**

*with focus on migrant
workers from the
IGAD region*



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Labour market assessment with focus on migrant workers from the IGAD region:

Uganda country report

Free Movement of Persons and Transhumance in the IGAD Region: Improving Opportunities for Regular Labour Mobility

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▶ Abbreviations and acronyms

BTVET	business, technical and vocational education and training
CEACR	Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations
CMW	Committee on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families
COBATI	Community Based Tourism Initiative
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
EAC	East African Community
EEMIS	External Employment Management Information System
GDP	gross domestic product
GEM	Global Entrepreneurship Monitor
GNI	gross national income
HDI	Human Development Index
ICLS	International Conference of Labour Statisticians
ICT	information and communication technologies
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority on Development
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IOM	International Organization for Migration
MGLSD	Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development
NEP	National Employment Policy
PPP	purchasing power parity
TVET	technical and vocational education and training
UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council

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▶ Foreword

The ILO in close collaboration with the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) Secretariat has produced this report titled ***Labour Market Assessment with a Focus on Migrant Workers from the IGAD Region: Uganda Country Report*** as part of the project on Free Movement of Persons and Transhumance in the IGAD Region: Improving Opportunities for Regular Labour Mobility financed by the European Union. The report forms part of the knowledge-generation component of the project, and provides an evidence base for improving labour migration and mobility governance in the IGAD region.

This Uganda country report sheds light on the overall economic, labour, employment and migration dynamics in the country. The report differs from typical labour market assessments, as it focuses on the participation of migrant workers from IGAD Member States in the labour market in Uganda. It draws on available secondary data and primary information collected as part of the study, including through quantitative interviews, focus group discussions and key informant interviews with migrant workers, government officials, employers' organizations, workers' organizations, international organizations, non-government organizations and other relevant stakeholders.

The report examines labour force characteristics, current and future demand for skills, and job creation patterns, and identifies sectors that have high potential for job creation for nationals and migrants in an integrated regional labour market. It also looks at labour market efficiency and functionality by reviewing institutional arrangements and processes, including policies, legislation, labour market information systems and employment services, among other things. The report then identifies key challenges and opportunities related to improving labour market and labour migration governance and to supporting employment and job promotion for nationals and migrants in the IGAD region. At the end, the report proposes a number of key strategic recommendations to improve access to the labour market in Uganda by migrant workers from IGAD Members and to improve labour migration governance in the region. We advise you consult, in addition to this Uganda country report, the regional report covering an analysis of the IGAD labour market and its inclusiveness of migrant workers from Member States.

We believe that this series of labour market assessments focused on migrant workers will be instrumental towards the implementation of the road map of the IGAD Protocol on Free Movement of Persons. Understanding the challenges migrant workers face and implementing the recommendations proposed in these reports will also pave the way for increased opportunities for regular labour mobility and regional integration.



H.E. Dr. Workneh Gebeyehu
Executive Secretary, Inter
Government Authority on
Development (IGAD)



Alexio Musindo
Director, ILO Country Office
for Ethiopia, Djibouti, Somalia,
South Sudan, Sudan and Special
Representative for AU and
UNECA

▶ Executive summary

The ILO is implementing the European Union Emergency Trust Fund-financed project entitled Free Movement of Persons and Transhumance in the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) Region: Improving Opportunities for Regular Labour Mobility. The overall objective of the project is to improve opportunities for regulated labour mobility and decent work within the IGAD Member States through the development of models of intervention. In the long-term, the project is expected to extend decent work opportunities to current and potential migrants within the region, as well as contribute to regional integration, strengthen links between economic growth, climate change and job creation; and enhance the social and economic integration of migrants.¹

This report is an analysis of Uganda's labour market with a focus on migrant workers from IGAD Member States. The report is one of a series undertaken in IGAD Member States (Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan and Uganda) to understand the overall economic, labour, employment and migration dynamics in these countries. It focuses on migration-prone areas, particularly places of origin, transit and destination. This analysis falls under a knowledge-building component of the ILO project, which seeks to deepen understanding of migration and labour market dynamics in the region.

The analysis presented in this report looks at labour force characteristics, job creation patterns, and challenges and opportunities for improved labour market governance to support employment and job promotion. It considers labour market information, employment services and migrant workers, as well as labour market efficiency in the wider socio-economic context. Primary data was collected to help inform the analysis, consisting of 439 quantitative interviews with migrant workers from IGAD Member States; 40 key informant interviews with government officials, employers' organizations, workers' organizations, international organizations, non-government organizations and other relevant stakeholders; and eight focus group discussions with Ugandan communities and migrant workers. Data collection took place between February and March 2019 in Kampala, Jinja, Gulu and Mbale. The report concludes with recommendations at the strategy, policy and intervention levels, respective to each of the social partners and other migration stakeholders.

▶ Overview of migration and labour market trends

Uganda is a member of a number of regional economic communities and is a major recipient of refugees, resulting in relatively unique migration characteristics in the country. Uganda is a Partner State of the East African Community (EAC) which allows free movement of persons under the Establishment of the EAC Common Market Protocol. It is also a member of the Common Market for East and Southern Africa (COMESA), for which there is the Protocol on the Gradual Relaxation and Eventual elimination of Visa Requirements, 1985. Uganda is also the largest recipient of refugees in Africa, and third in the world, hosting 1.4 million refugees (UNHCR 2019), accounting for the vast majority of total migrants in the country (around 1.6 million total migrants estimated in 2017 (UNDESA 2017b)). The Government has begun to integrate refugees more comprehensively into national development planning (Igoye 2020).

An increasing number of Ugandans are also going to the Middle East. Much of the labour migration through this corridor is composed of female domestic workers and those going to work in private security (RMMS 2016). According to primary data collected as part of this study, the significant driving factors for Ugandans going abroad are socio-economic, and include the lack of jobs and opportunities at home. Concerns about treatment and exploitation of Ugandan migrant workers abroad, particularly domestic workers in the Gulf States, has prompted a number of actions and bilateral agreements in recent years. However, forced labour and trafficking is commonplace for Uganda, in its role as a country of origin, transit and destination of migrants, and includes men, women and children (US State Department 2017).

¹ For more information see the project landing page at: https://www.ilo.org/africa/technical-cooperation/WCMS_631153/lang--en/index.htm.

While just over half (9.9 million) of the working-age population were in the labour force in 2016–17, an extra 33 per cent were own-use production workers, that is, subsistence workers (UBOS 2017). It is worth noting that Uganda is one of only a few countries worldwide that has already applied the recommendations of the 19th ICLS in a labour force survey. The majority (around 65 per cent) of the labour force are located in rural areas and are engaged in largely traditional agriculture, along with the own-use production workers who are typically small-scale farmers in rural areas. The high share of the working-age population engaged in subsistence agriculture reflects Uganda's overall lack of progress in terms of structural development and limited capacity to transfer from low-productivity activities to higher productivity. Working poverty is rampant, and those working in agriculture are highly vulnerable to unpredictable weather patterns, such a drought. While about a third of employment is in wage and salaried jobs, the vast majority of the employed (outside of agriculture) are in informal employment.

Population trends suggest that around 740,000 young people are expected to enter the labour market each year over the next decade, applying considerable pressure on the labour market.

While the unemployment rate for the age group 14–64 is estimated at 9.7 per cent, other metrics, such as labour underutilization (particularly among youth) and working poverty, reflect the extent to which there are a lack of opportunities in the labour market. Relatively low levels of educational attainment are apparent across the labour force. For instance, around 64 per cent of the labour force had no more than a primary level of educational attainment. Women tended to have lower levels of educational attainment than men (figure 6), with higher shares of both less than primary and primary levels of educational attainment.

Migrant worker characteristics from primary data collected

Migrant workers from the sample tended to have a higher level of educational attainment on average than their Uganda counterparts. By migration status and length of stay ², there were significant differences, with a higher share of migrant workers who had been in Uganda for less than six months having a primary or lower level of education (figure 9); while among longer-term migrant workers (more than six months), average levels of educational attainment were higher for those with regular migration status than those without. In fact, 30 per cent of those in Uganda for more than six months and with regular migration status had a tertiary level of education, considerably higher than the national average of the Ugandan labour force.

A number of key informants highlighted the high-skilled nature of migrant workers in Uganda.

While this is partially captured in the primary data collected as part of this assignment, key informants indicated that it is common for firms (particularly foreign-owned firms) to bring in migrant workers to help train up and pass on skills to the other employees. Given the high levels of investment from Asia, these workers are likely to be from outside of the IGAD region and therefore not interviewed as part of this study. Migrant workers who had been in Uganda for more than six months (long-term migrant workers) with regular migration status were more likely to be in high-skilled occupations (35 per cent), than long-term migrant workers with irregular migration status (8 per cent), or than those who had been in Uganda for less than six months (short-term migrant workers) (12 per cent) (figure 10).

The majority of migrant workers in the sample were in informal employment, that is, without access to social security and/or paid leave. According to key informant interviews, it is common for companies (foreign-owned and Ugandan) to recruit migrant workers on a short-term basis (up to 90 days) in order to work on a business visa without a work permit. Despite the relative ease of hiring without work permits, the majority of migrant workers interviewed (74 per cent) were in informal employment. The share in informal employment was highest (9 out of 10) among long-term migrant workers with irregular migration status (figure 4), consistent with the notion that the irregular migration status of these migrant workers puts them at a disadvantage in accessing decent and productive opportunities.

² The lack of data on migrant workers in Uganda was addressed via primary data as part of this study, exposing differences by length of stay and migration status. Primary data identified migrant workers' migration status and length of stay, namely, those that were in the country for more than six months in terms of whether the migrant had official documentation (regular migration status) or not (irregular migration status). Migration status was not captured for those in the country for less than six months.

▶ Job creation and the business environment

While a number of sectoral initiatives are in place, they often focus on the economic benefit rather than job creation potential. In the National Development Plan III, the focal sectors that are considered from this perspective of economic benefit include mining and steel and iron ore. Nonetheless, despite the capital intensity of these industries, there are job creation spillovers both in terms of production linkages (for example, steel and iron ore for the manufacturing sector) and consumption linkages, such as spending on services near large projects. Migrant workers have potential to benefit from such spillovers.

Agriculture is likely to remain a key source of jobs for the medium to long term. Initiatives to improve the productivity of the sector are outlined in the National Development Plan, however, major constraints in the sector, including widespread subsistence activities, are likely to continue to hamper the shift to more value-added activities. Nonetheless, focus on cash crops and productivity-enhancing inputs can start to raise incomes and facilitate both greater food security along with value-added growth.

Other growth sectors include tourism and ICT, which can both serve to bolster employment creation in services. Growth in tourism already is contributing to significant job creation but has been significantly affected by the restrictions of movement imposed in response to COVID-19. Manufacturing growth has significant potential for job creation; however, improvements in the business environment are needed to facilitate entrepreneurship and the ease of doing business.

▶ Recommendations for decent and productive employment and jobs promotion in Uganda

Strategic recommendation 1: Develop a National Employment and Jobs Strategy.

An evaluation was conducted on the Government's employment strategy, in which a running theme that emerged was the lack of implementation capacity in the Government and the inability of ministries, departments and agencies to fulfil the responsibilities and requirements that are placed upon because of capacity constraints. There is also the question of to what degree the 2011 National Employment Policy has been implemented at all. Accordingly, a strategy on job promotion and job creation would help re-energize and re-consolidate the Government's efforts around jobs and could help with the reallocation of resources. The first recommendation would therefore be to develop and adopt a National Employment and Jobs Strategy which would update and effectively operationalize Uganda's National Employment Policy.

- ▶ **POLICY:** Develop and adopt a National Employment and Jobs Strategy, in support of the National Employment Policy and in line with a labour migration policy.
- ▶ **POLICY:** Appoint a centralized ministry, department or agency responsible for coordinating and monitoring the National Employment and Jobs Strategy.
- ▶ **INTERVENTION:** Build the capacity of the members of the National Steering Committee.
- ▶ **INTERVENTION:** Collect information on the labour and skills needs of the private sector, including on migrant workers.

Strategic recommendation 2: Support statistics, research and analysis on migrant workers in Uganda's labour market.

While there is emphasis on expansion and strengthening of labour market information outlined in the National Development Plan III and the Social Development Sector Plan, the targets on achieving multiple surveys per year are unlikely due to capacity constraints. The Labour Force Survey 2016/17 and Manpower Survey 2016 both had flaws that undermined the rigour of information collected. It would be more appropriate to focus on improving the quality of a fewer number of reports than to instead target more reports.

Further, data on migrant workers needs to feature more prominently in a system of labour market information and analysis in order for comprehensive policies to be devised. Notably, the Government noted to the ILO Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations' General Survey on Fair Migration that "the ILO could provide technical support, including capacity building for staff and enhancing cooperation, in relation to labour market information systems or data collection, management and sharing" (ILO 2016).

- **POLICY:** Make more explicit and effective the data collection and analysis on migrant workers in National Development Plans, as part of wider strategies to strengthen labour market information.

- **POLICY:** Establish the design of a labour statistics framework to capture key information on migrant workers.

- **POLICY:** Provide technical expert advice and support to the improvement of labour market information and analysis, particularly around migrant worker data.

- **INTERVENTION:** Incorporate a labour migration module into the Labour Force Survey.

- **INTERVENTION:** Support the systematic sharing of information on migrant workers.

- **INTERVENTION:** Encourage, facilitate and disseminate third-party research on migrant workers and their analysis.

Strategic recommendation 3: Adjust and redesign labour market governance mechanisms to better incorporate migrant workers.

Employment services are largely oriented around Ugandan migrant workers going abroad. While there have been significant improvements to licensing and monitoring of private employment agencies, which have accompanied the Government's steps to improve protection of its migrant workers abroad, there are also a number of shortcomings as identified in an audit of the Government's regulation towards labour externalization. This includes, again, capacity constraints that prevent the fulfilment of the obligations of different ministries, departments and agencies.

From data collected as part of this assignment, migrant workers bring benefits to the labour market, particularly in terms of skills and knowledge transfers from placement in higher-skilled occupations. However, the Ugandan policy approach towards migrant workers is largely focused on Ugandan migrant workers going abroad under its "labour externalization" programme. This approach operates in terms of labour market functionality, as the lack of job creation for the growing population is relieved temporarily by Ugandans going abroad; furthermore, labour governance is focused on migrant workers' treatment abroad. Migrant workers within Uganda receive less attention both in terms of labour market functionality and protection of migrant workers, with equal treatment predominantly limited to regular migrant workers only. Part of the challenge is the lack of a labour migration policy, which should be developed based on appropriate and comprehensive information on migrant workers in the context of market and labour market dynamics. Against this backdrop, labour migration needs to be well governed to be beneficial for Uganda's development in the long run – that is, through flexible labour policies that target skill gaps and labour shortages.

- **POLICY:** Embed the integration and protection of migrant workers into the national development agenda.

- **POLICY:** Ratify and comply with the Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97). This will entail developing an appropriate labour migration policy (see ILO 2020a for recommendations in this regard).

- **INTERVENTION:** Provide sufficient resources for labour inspections of migrant worker workplaces and cooperate with inspections.

Chapter 1

▶ Introduction

The Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) region is characterized by a range of migratory movements driven by political, economic and environmental factors, and encompassing different categories of migrants, including economic migrants, refugees and forcibly displaced persons. To date, IGAD and its Member States have already taken numerous steps to govern and address the issue of migration in the region, including adoption of the IGAD Regional Migration Policy Framework and the Migration Action Plan and promising steps taken towards the adoption of the IGAD Protocol on Free Movement of Persons. Both the Regional Migration Policy Framework and the Migration Action Plan have identified the facilitation of labour mobility, transhumance and free movement of persons as a strategic priority. In addition, in 2013, the Summit of IGAD Heads of State and Government adopted a Minimum Integration Plan to serve as a roadmap for regional integration, in which the free movement of persons is a key pillar. To this end, IGAD Member States endorsed in February 2020 a Free Movement and Transhumance Protocol, and steps are underway to accelerate the adoption of a roadmap for implementation of the protocol.

In order to support IGAD and its Member States aspiration towards a free movement regime, the ILO is implementing the European Union Emergency Trust Fund-financed project Free Movement of Persons and Transhumance in the IGAD Region: Improving Opportunities for Regular Labour Mobility. The overall objective of the project is to improve opportunities for regulated labour mobility and decent work within IGAD Member States through the development of models of intervention, in the broader context of free movement of persons and labour mobility in the region. In the long term, the project is expected to extend decent work opportunities

to current and potential migrants within the region, as well as contribute to regional integration; strengthen links between economic growth, climate change and job creation; and enhance the social and economic integration of migrants. The project has two major components: (i) knowledge-building and (ii) operational implementation. One of the main focal areas of the project is to deepen understanding of migration and labour market dynamics in the region, including the constraints and opportunities for employment creation and causes of skills shortages. As part of this knowledge generation component of the project, labour market analyses have been undertaken in IGAD Member States to understand the overall economic, labour, employment and migration dynamics in the countries, focusing on migration prone areas, particularly places of origin, transit and destination.

In this regard, the ILO has commissioned MarketShare Associates to conduct these labour market analyses in IGAD Member States: Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan and Uganda. These are captured in country reports and a regional synthesis report. Each report consists of an analysis of labour force characteristics, job creation patterns, and challenges and opportunities for improved labour market governance to support employment and job promotion. It considers labour market information, employment services and migrant workers, as well as labour market efficiency in the wider socio-economic context. Notably, each of these areas is focused on their relevance to employment and jobs promotion. Finally, the reports provide recommendations on each of these components, at the strategy, policy and intervention levels, respective to each of the social partners. Both primary and secondary data are used in this analysis.

Chapter 2

- ▶ **About
the report**

This chapter is structured as follows: Section 2.1. outlines the study objective and structure of the report; Section 2.2. provides an overview of definitions and concepts used in the study; Section 2.3. provides an overview of the primary data approach; Section 2.4.

provides an overview of the secondary data approach; Section 2.5. addresses the stakeholder consultation concerning the finalization of the report; and Section 2.6. presents limitations to the study.

▶ 2.1. Objective and structure of the report

This labour market assessment (henceforth also referred to as “the report”) aims to help deepen understanding of the labour migration and labour market structures and dynamics in the IGAD region. Against this backdrop, the report provides an analysis of Uganda’s labour market, paying particular attention to labour migration and opportunities for productive employment for migrants and nationals.

Accordingly, the report provides an analysis of labour force characteristics, an overview of job creation and private sector development, and areas for improved governance for

employment and jobs creation. It draws from available secondary data and new primary data and information collected as part of the study. This primary data and information consist of quantitative information collected through a questionnaire and qualitative data from interviews and focus group discussions with key stakeholders and seeks to fill information gaps and validate secondary data findings. The structure of the main body of the report and the main source of information are as follows in table 1:

▶ **Table 1. Structure of main body of report and types of data used**

Section of report	Type of data
3. Socio-economic context	
3.1. Socio-economic context	Secondary data
4. Labour force characteristics	
4.1. Labour force	Secondary data
4.2. Migrant workers	Secondary data and primary data
4.3. Skills composition	Secondary data and primary data
5. Job creation and the private sector	
5.1. Economic growth and trends	Secondary data
5.2. Private sector development	Secondary data
6. Labour force characteristics	
6.1. Employment policy and legislation	Secondary data and primary data
6.2. Labour market information	Secondary data and primary data
6.3. Employment services	Secondary data and primary data
6.4. Migrant workers	Secondary data and primary data

The report concludes with recommendations and next steps at the strategy, policy and intervention level, addressed at each of the

social partners, that is, the Government, employers' groups and workers' groups.

▶ 2.2. Concepts and definitions

Appendix IV provides a glossary of definitions and concepts used in the study. As detailed in this section, the labour market definitions are consistent with the 19th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS)

resolution on statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization (ILO 2013, and see box 1 below). For clarity, the definition of migrant workers as used in this study is presented below.

▶ Box 1. The importance of compliance with ICLS definitions and guidelines

The ICLS is the global standard-setting body in the area of labour statistics that convenes every five years. The ICLS sets guidelines for concepts and definitions that allow for consistent measurement and use of terms for all social partners, including labour ministries and national statistics offices, employers' groups and workers' groups. In the context of this study, secondary sources of labour market statistics and primary data and information were collected and compiled. It is important to highlight that these statistics and information are consistent with ICLS standards to allow for effective policymaking in Djibouti and comparability of findings among IGAD Member States.

Source: ILO 2018b.

"Migrant worker" or "international migrant worker" refers to all persons of working age (in this case, aged 15+ is used) present in the country of measurement, who were during the specified reference period in one of the following two categories:

- i. usual residents – International migrants who were in the labour force of the country of their usual residence, either in employment or in unemployment; or
- ii. Not usual residents (or "non-resident foreign workers") – Persons who, during

a specified reference period, were not usual residents of the country, but were present in the country and had labour attachment to the country, that is, were either in employment supplying labour to resident producer units of that country or were seeking employment in that country.

Given the primary data collection element of this study, this definition is in line with the 20th ICLS Guidelines Concerning Statistics for International Labour Migration (ILO 2018b).

▶ 2.3. Primary data collection

Under the terms of reference specifications for this assignment, primary data collection was prescribed at 400 quantitative interviews, 40 key informant interviews and eight focus group discussions, per country. Data collection focused on migrant prone locations. These quotas were fixed, and a sampling process and fieldwork plan were devised to maximize the value of the data gathered for both for the objectives of this study and for the wider research community. The following subsections provide information of the data collection for each component. Primary data collection took place between February and March 2019.

▶ 2.3.1. Quantitative interviews

Quantitative interviews were conducted in Kampala (237 interviews), Jinja (54 interviews), Mbale (51 interviews) and Gulu (105 interviews). Enumerators were trained as part of the fieldwork process in each site and were briefed on the objectives of the assignment, the data collection tools and the selection process. Pilots were conducted in each location and verified by team leaders.

Interviews were conducted face-to-face with a standardized questionnaire (provided in Appendix II). The questionnaire was designed to capture the necessary information to be able to calculate variables that complied with ICLS adopted labour statistics concepts and definitions (see Section 2.2.). It should be noted that the structure of the questions is similar to a Labour Force Survey questionnaire in order to allow comparability, however the primary data collection was fundamentally different in that it was conducted as an individual assessment and not a household survey, and was focused only on a subset of variables with additional questions to capture information on migrant workers. The questionnaire contained four modules to capture information in the following areas:

- ▶ **Module 1:** Socio-economic characteristics of labour migrants

- ▶ **Module 2:** Labour force status of labour migrants

- ▶ **Module 3:** Characteristics of employed labour migrants

- ▶ **Module 4:** Nature of labour migration

The locations of Kampala, Jinja, Mbale and Gulu were proposed for quantitative data collection during the inception phase of the study and agreed upon with the ILO. Each location was selected because it was a major recipient of migrant workers.

The questionnaire allowed for the identification of migrant workers from IGAD Member States, their migration status and length of stay. The migration status is only indicated for long-term migrant workers who have been in the country for more than six months and is assessed in relation to whether the migrant has official documentation (regular migration status) or not (irregular migration status). It was not captured for short-term migrant workers who have been in the country for less than six months. While typically a migrant worker's migration status is attached to his or her work permit status, it cannot be assumed in all cases, and so data is only presented by migration status, not migrant worker status.

▶ 2.3.2. Description of the sample

The sample sought to capture information on migrant workers from IGAD Member States on a range of basic demographic characteristics (see Section 2.6. for sampling process and limitations). Table 2 below provides an overview of the sample, by region, sex and selected indicators. The largest proportion of the migrant workers that were interviewed as part of the study originated from Kenya (30 per cent), followed by Somalia (20 per cent), Eritrea (20 per cent), South Sudan (16 per cent), Ethiopia (9 per cent) and Sudan (5 per cent).

The sample consisted of 326 men (74 per cent) and 113 women (26 per cent), the median age was 28 years old and around 50 per cent were married. The migrant workers of the sample were mainly adults over the age of 25 (358 out of 439, or 82 per cent). A very large share of the sample was constituted of long-term migrants with regular status (72 per cent). This is consistent with the notion that Uganda is relatively open to migrants, both via the East African Community (EAC) and through agreements with other neighbouring countries, which seems to have a positive impact on the integration of migrant workers in Uganda. In terms of educational attainment, migrant workers with secondary or tertiary levels of education made up a substantial share of the sample (57 per cent) although women were at a disadvantage, as 58 per cent had a primary education or less level of educational attainment.

In terms of labour force status, 88 per cent were classified as employed. The fact that 12 per cent of the sample (51 respondents) were classified as outside of the labour force may seem surprising considering that the methodology specifically targeted migrant workers. This can be explained by the fact that a strict definition of unemployment has been used to classify respondents. According to this definition, three criteria need to be fulfilled to define a situation of unemployment: not having a job, being actively searching for a job,

and being immediately available to start a job should an opportunity arise. In labour markets that are largely informal, these criteria cannot always be fully observed, and the application of this strict definition results in classifying more people as out of the labour force than if a relaxed definition were to be applied.

A total of 129 respondents (33 per cent of those classified as being in employment) were own-account workers or contributing family workers, and could therefore be considered as vulnerable workers. Here too, women were at a disadvantage, as 47 per cent of employed women in the sample were in this situation, compared to 28 per cent of employed men. Yet, only 13 employed women (12 per cent) were classified as working in low-skilled occupations. Overall, only 8 per cent of employed respondents were classified as working in low-skilled occupations, and 92 per cent were classified as working in middle- or high-skilled occupations, which is consistent with the findings related to educational level.

Informality was widespread, with 74 per cent of respondents employed informally, and 49 per cent being employed in informal units. The concurrent analysis of these two measurements indicates the blending of formality and informality in the world of work, as it shows that people were likely to be employed informally in formal units.

► **Table 2.** Overview of the sample by sex, location and selected indicators

Location or indicator	Male	Female	Total
Location	326	113	439
Gulu	78	25	103
Jinja	38	13	51
Kampala	183	52	235
Mbale	27	23	50
Age	326	113	439
15–24	66	15	81
25+	260	98	358

Migration status	326	113	439
Less than 6 months	59	9	68
Irregular status (more than 6 months)	36	19	55
Regular status (more than 6 months)	231	85	316
Educational attainment	326	113	439
Less than primary	12	6	18
Primary	113	60	173
Secondary	109	30	139
Tertiary	92	17	109
Labour force status	326	113	439
Employed	281	105	386
Unemployed	2	–	2
Out of labour force	43	8	51
Status in employment	281	105	386
Wage employed	153	43	196
Employer	46	12	58
Own account worker	59	39	98
Contributing family member	21	10	31
No response / unclassifiable	2	1	3
Occupational skills level	281	105	386
Low-skilled	16	13	29
Medium-skilled	179	71	250
High-skilled	85	21	106
Not elsewhere classified	1	–	1
Informality	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Informally employed	200	86	286
Working for an informal unit	126	62	88

– = nil; n.a. = not applicable.

Source: Primary quantitative data collection

2.3.2. Key informant interviews

A total of 40 key informant interviews were conducted for Uganda, all of which took place in Kampala due to the centrality of many of the key informants targeted.

Interviews were conducted face-to-face in a semi-structured format (see Appendix III). However, interviewers were encouraged to probe outside of the semi-structured guides depending on the type of stakeholder and depending on how the interview was going. A core semi-structured interview guide was focused on identifying key drivers of labour migration in the broader economic context, including economic disparities and decent and productive work deficits; formal and informal rules around labour migration governance; and the role of employment services to facilitate labour migration. Each interview lasted a maximum of one hour. The topic was

also sometimes perceived to be a sensitive topic, and key informants occasionally were reluctant to elaborate on or provide detailed answers to questions.

Interviews were conducted with a wide range of key labour market stakeholders at local, regional and national levels. Consultations with government officials in each locality were also used to identify respondents who could provide information. Respondents included government officials; economists and specialists focusing on rural development and migration; employers across a variety of sectors, community members who are economically active or part of the potential labour force; as well as civil society organizations and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) working in this area. Table 3 below presents an overview of the types of stakeholders interviewed, and the full list of interviewees is presented in Appendix I.

► **Table 3.** Overview of stakeholder interviews

Type of stakeholder	No. of interviews	Examples of stakeholders interviewed
Social partners		
Government	14	Head of External Employment Unit, Ministry of Gender Labour and Social Development; Principal Labour Officer, Ministry of Gender Labour and Social Development
Employers and employers' groups	11	Manager, Linkage International Recruitment Agency; Employment Relations Officer, Federation of Employers
Workers and workers' groups	2	Head of Department of Partnership and Resource Mobilization, Uganda National Farmers Federation; Director of Research and Trainings, National Organization of Trade Unions
Other		

Type of stakeholder	No. of interviews	Examples of stakeholders interviewed
NGOs and civil society	7	Director of Monitoring and Evaluation, Catholic Relief Services Uganda; United Nations Service Centre
Academia	3	Department of Policy and Development Economics, Makerere University; Operations Manager, Makerere University Private Sector Forum
Other	3	Chairman, United Somali Community Uganda; Community leader, Kisingiri;

▶ 2.3.4. Focus group discussions

Focus group discussions were conducted in Kampala (four group discussions), Gulu (two group discussions), Jinja (one group discussion) and Mbale (one group discussion).

Discussions were conducted in groups of eight to ten people, with a facilitator who used a semi-structured guide to steer conversations

around specific areas. The discussions were conducted with host communities and migrant workers, in male and female split groups to prevent social-cultural norms from undermining open discussions. The discussions sought to gather perspectives around labour migration, including the perceived impact on the economy and local community. Each discussion lasted on average one hour.

▶ 2.4. Secondary data collection

▶ 2.4.1. Desk review

A comprehensive desk review of secondary information was conducted to understand the situation and trends related to labour markets and labour migration in Uganda. The labour market analysis took into consideration information published in key planning documents as well as recent labour market analysis and research conducted. It also reviewed labour migration relevant legislation and policies as well as institutional mechanisms related to employment services. A full list of resources reviewed as part of this study is provided in the bibliography

▶ 2.4.2. Secondary statistics

A wide range of available secondary statistics were compiled from key statistics sources to support the identification of socio-economic issues, labour market dynamics and labour migration corridors that offer decent and productive employment growth potentials. The main secondary statistics sources used are listed in table 4 below (please note, this does not include primary data or reports that were not focused on statistics):

► **Table 4.** Structure of main body of report and sources of secondary statistical data used

Section of report and type of data	Main source(s) of secondary statistics
3. Socio-economic context	
Gross domestic product (GDP)	International Monetary Fund (IMF) – World Economic Outlook Database – April 2019.
Population	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA), Population Division – World Population Prospects: The 2017 Revision.
Urbanization	UNDESA, Population Division – World Urbanization Prospects: The 2018 Revision.
Poverty and inequality	World Bank, The Uganda Poverty Assessment Report 2016, 2016
Human development	UNDP – Human Development Indices and Indicators: 2018 Statistical Update.
Migrant stock	UNDESA. Population Division – Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2017 Revision
Refugee stock	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) – UNHCR Population Statistics Database
Remittances	World Bank – Migration and Remittances database, 2017
4. Labour market supply	
Labour force	Uganda Labour Force Survey 2016/17; ILO Modelled Estimates
Job creation	Manpower Survey 2016/17
Skills composition	Uganda Labour Force Survey 2016/17;
5. Job creation and private sector	
Economic growth and trends	IMF – World Economic Outlook Database, April 2019; United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) – UNCTADstat database.

ILO modelled estimates were used sparingly for regional and country comparisons. The modelled estimates use a combination of data from available household surveys applied to other wider datasets, including UN World Population Projections. Nonetheless, data from ILO modelled estimates are not always

comparable with the underlying labour force survey data due to deviations in definitions among other considerations. Therefore, they are not presented in a comparable manner and footnotes are applied to draw attention to this.

▶ 2.5 Final technical revision and virtual consultation

In its finalization phase, the report underwent a technical revision exercise and was presented to a broad group of stakeholders during a virtual workshop. The technical revision addressed the fact that, due to exceptional circumstances, such as the advent of the COVID-19 pandemic, the publication date of the report was delayed, with the effect that some of the data and information informing the socio-economic and policy sections of the report had to be updated. However, this delay allowed the technical review team (composed of two national and one international experts) to include some last-minute information

about country responses to the pandemic (see Section 3.5.).

The report was then further enriched with comments collected during a final consultation workshop which brought together a large group of stakeholders. In line with restrictions adopted in the wake of the COVID-19 pandemic, the workshop was held virtually. It was organized around four parallel sessions, giving participants the opportunity to intervene in structured discussions along the themes of the report.

▶ 2.6. Limitations and considerations to the study

The above sections have listed the limitations according to each methodological component to the study; however, it is necessary to clarify what this Uganda labour market analysis is and what it is not.

Firstly, it should be noted that owing to the focus on migrant workers, this report is not a standard labour market analysis. This labour market analysis places emphasis on the role of migrant works in the wider labour market and socio-economic context and considers how migrant workers can contribute to improved decent and productive employment in Uganda.

Secondly, while a labour force survey exists for Uganda and provide descriptive information of the labour force, a shortage of data and information on migrant workers in Uganda is addressed through new primary data and information collected on migrant workers, providing new and unique insights into the characteristics, drivers and motivations of labour migration in Uganda.

Thirdly, it was initially envisioned that the quantitative interviews would be conducted

with migrant workers and national workers in order to allow for comparison between the two groups. This would have been conducted using a random sampling process. However, the required sample of 400 interviews was considered too small to have statistical significance in analysing the differences between the two groups, especially when disaggregating the data further. It should also be underscored that a representative sample was not feasible with 400 interviewees. As a result, the sample targeted migrant workers only using purposeful sampling. Enumerators with local context were able to identify individuals who were engaged in some form of work or actively looking for and available to work, and then to conduct interviews. Oversampling (a total of 439 interviews were eventually conducted) allowed for the eventuality that some of those who were interviewed would ultimately not be classified as migrant workers according to the ICLS guidelines. Those who were classified as out of the labour force are still included in the dataset for analysis of labour underutilization.

Finally, labour migration governance is very relevant to this analysis; however, a parallel study was also commissioned entitled An Assessment of Labour Migration and Mobility Governance: Country Report for Uganda (ILO 2020a). With this in mind, this Uganda labour market analysis seeks to complement rather than replicate this other report. The two reports should be seen as accompanying

each other. It should also be noted that in this Uganda labour market analysis, migrant workers are considered from the perspective of the labour market and not from a migration perspective. The aforementioned ILO (2020a) report also looks at labour migration governance in the context of wider migration policy and should be consulted to get more information related to this angle.

Chapter 3

▶ Socio-economic context

Uganda is a landlocked country bordering the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Kenya, Rwanda, South Sudan, Rwanda and Tanzania. It sits on Lake Victoria, has fertile soils and experiences regular rainfall. It has deposits of gold and copper, as well as recently discovered oil. Nonetheless, agriculture is the mainstay for the vast majority of Ugandans, including

growing of sorghum, maize, cassava and groundnuts as well as rearing of livestock. Certain cash crops are grown, including cotton and tobacco, but the most prominent is coffee, which accounted for around 20 per cent of merchandise exports in 2018 (only behind gold at 23 per cent) (UNCTAD 2019).

► 3.1. Economic performance

Uganda is the fourth-largest economy among the IGAD Member States, but is classified as a -low-income economy according to the World Bank Atlas method. Uganda's GDP is estimated at US\$28 billion in 2018, slightly lower than Sudan at \$33 billion (IMF 2019a). For the fiscal year 2019, lower-income economies were categorized as those with a gross national income (GNI) per capita in 2017 of less than \$995 (World Bank n.d.). Uganda's GNI per capita (current US\$) was estimated at \$620 in 2018 (latest year with data available), one of the lowest levels worldwide (World Bank 2019a).

Uganda exhibited growth of 4.3 per cent per annum between 2012 and 2018, representing a significant decline from the 8.3 per cent per annum growth experienced between 2001 and 2011 (IMF 2019a). A number of factors have contributed to the slowdown, including the drought and disrupted export demand from some of Uganda's main export partners, including South Sudan and the Democratic Republic of the Congo. A significant factor has also been ineffective management of large-scale public projects. Externally

financed through concessional loans, poor management of these projects has impacted the country's investment climate and placed greater pressure on government borrowing (World Bank 2018). With tax collection already low, and reflective of Uganda's largely informal economy, the sustainability of Uganda's debt is a major risk to macroeconomic stability and growth in the medium to long term.

Despite its endowments, the country is relatively undeveloped. Agriculture is characterized by subsistence farming, and being rain-fed, is highly vulnerable to unusual weather patterns such as a major drought in 2016–17. The manufacturing sector is limited and reliant on imported production inputs such as fuel and equipment, and overall productivity is hampered by supply-side constraints, including underinvestment in agriculture. At the same time, Uganda has a fast-growing population, putting increasing pressure on job creation and public services. Such conditions put at risk Uganda's aspirations to transition from a low-income country to a middle-income country (Government of Uganda 2013).

▶ 3.2. Uganda's population is growing rapidly

Uganda's population was estimated at around 44 million in 2018 (UNDESA 2017a), and is expected to more than double by 2050, to 106 million. This corresponds to a population growth rate of 5 per cent per annum. Uganda has a relatively young population with more than two-thirds aged below 25 years old. Higher fertility rates are contributing to the rapid population growth, with an average of nearly six births per woman, according to

the latest data available (World Bank 2019a). Household size is also closely correlated with poverty incidence in Uganda (World Bank 2016). Population growth is likely to contribute to migration to urban areas. In 2015, around 22 per cent of Uganda's population was estimated to be living in urban areas (up from 15 per cent in 2000), and this is forecast to reach 45 per cent by 2050 (UNDESA 2018).

▶ 3.3. Human development is low, and inequality is increasing

Uganda's poverty headcount increased from 19.7 per cent in 2012 to 21.4 per cent in 2016 (Government of Uganda 2017). This represents a reversal of a longer-term downward trend. The drought of 2016–17 significantly impacted rural households. This also reflects a significant urban–rural split with regards to poverty. According to World Bank (2016), 90 per cent of the poor lived in rural areas in 2013. This corresponded to one in four rural Ugandans living in poverty, compared to one in ten urban Ugandans. Two regions account for much of the country's poverty: the northern region, which accounted for around 47 per cent of the poor in 2013 and the eastern region (37 per cent). In the North, access to basic services and markets is limited and sparse and rainfall is volatile, which impacts the vulnerability of households; while those in the eastern region are highly sensitive to fluctuating maize prices.

Owing to the sensitivity to rainfall among the rural poor, climate change is contributing to a greater risk of poverty. Uganda has social protection programmes (including direct transfers) and these are progressive and concentrated among the poorest households, but they are also small and have limited coverage (Mejia-Mantilla et al. 2019). With regards to pro-poor government spending, these consist of direct transfers (social

protection programmes) and in-kind transfers (education and health), which collectively represent around 22 per cent of total fiscal spending, with additional spending on water and agricultural inputs. A study by Mejia-Mantilla et al. (2019) found that the balance of fiscal policy was likely to worsen poverty incidence.

Inequality, as measured by the Gini Index, increased between 2004 and 2015, but is still relatively low by global standards. The Gini Index for Uganda was estimated at around 0.41 in 2005 (where 1 is perfect inequality and 0 is perfect equality), 0.4 in 2012, and 0.43 more recently in 2016 (World Bank 2019a).

Human development indicators suggest that progress has faltered in recent years. The UNDP Human Development Index (HDI) put Uganda at 0.516 in 2017, placing the country in the bottom third of countries worldwide (162nd of 189) and classifying Uganda in the low human development category (UNDP 2018). Uganda's HDI had grown substantially over the past few decades, however it has registered only marginal gains since 2010. Further, when discounted for inequality, the HDI drops by a third, representing the inequalities in the distribution within different indices, including gender inequalities in education and health.

▶ 3.4. Migration dynamics in Uganda

Uganda is primarily a country of origin and destination for migrants. Uganda is on the northern migration route, which sees migration via Sudan and onwards to North Africa and Europe. Like many other countries in the region, it is also on the Middle East route for migration to Yemen and the Gulf States. Uganda is a Partner State of the East African Community (EAC), which allows for free movement of persons under the EAC Common Market Protocol. It is also a member of the Common Market for East and Southern Africa (COMESA), for which there is the Protocol on the Gradual Relaxation and Eventual Elimination of Visa Requirements, 1985. According to the ILO (2020a), this is in force but has not been fully implemented. Uganda is also the largest recipient of refugees in Africa, at 1.4 million (UNHCR 2019).

▶ 3.4.1. Migration outflows and the labour externalization programme

Uganda is a net-outward migration country. According to United Nations estimates, around 740,000 Ugandans were living abroad in 2017 (UNDESA 2017b). In terms of IGAD Member State destinations, around 330,000 Ugandans were in Kenya and 146,000 in South Sudan. Other Ugandan diasporas are located in Rwanda (93,000), Europe (79,000) and North America (58,000). According to primary data collected as part of this assignment, significant driving factors for Ugandans going abroad are socio-economic, and include the lack of jobs and opportunities at home and the need to look elsewhere for such opportunities. An additional push factor for emigration among youth is the difficulty of obtaining land for agriculture (DAI Europe and Eurotrends 2015).

An increasing number of Ugandans are also going to the Middle East, with a number of men going to work in private security and women going as domestic workers (RMMS 2016). Migration of Ugandans for domestic work (predominantly by women) to the Middle East was banned between 2016 and 2017, but

irregular migration continued, particularly via Tanzania and Kenya (ILO 2020a). This ban was lifted in 2017 with the establishment of bilateral agreements with Jordan, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates to promote regular labour migration. Nonetheless, the US State Department's Trafficking in Persons Report still states that forced labour and trafficking are commonplace in relation to Uganda, in its role as a country of origin, transit and destination of migrants, and affects men, women and children (US State Department 2017).

“Sometimes migrants are being tricked to work without pay. They are convinced to enrol into rebel and terrorism activities, or they are sexually abused – especially the girls. There is a lot of human trafficking.” – Key informant

▶ 3.4.2. Refugees

According to the latest UN estimates of migrant stock, Uganda hosted around 1.7 million migrants in 2019 (Migration Data Portal 2019), many of these refugees. South Sudan accounted for the largest share (53.4 per cent), followed by Democratic Republic of the Congo (17.7 per cent). Of other IGAD Member States, Sudan accounted for 5.4 per cent and Kenya 3.6 per cent. Administrative data on formal work permits issued in the 2012–13 financial year revealed that, in terms of country of origin, the highest numbers of work permits were issued to nationals from India (38.6 per cent), followed by China (14.9 per cent), the United States of America (6.1 per cent) and Kenya (5.5 per cent) (IOM 2013). In terms of overall numbers, data made available by the Directorate of Citizenship and Immigration Control showed that 11,533 work permits were issued in the 2016–17 financial year, 10,698 in the 2017–18 financial year, and 15,689 in the 2018–19 financial year.

Uganda's refugee policy has been lauded as one of the most progressive in the world (RMMS 2016). As of September 2019, Uganda was hosting 1.4 million refugees with continuous arrivals from the Democratic Republic of Congo, South Sudan and Burundi. Around 86 per cent of the refugees from South Sudan in Uganda are either children under the age of 18 (over 64 per cent) or women (18 per cent) (UNHCR and Government of Uganda n.d.). A number of refugees will treat Uganda as a final destination before eventually returning home; others will remain in these refugee settlements on a temporary basis as they look to relocate. Uganda is regarded as having one of the most generous and progressive approaches to hosting refugees in the region, with refugees given relative freedom of movement; equal access to primary education, healthcare and other basic

social services; access to land for cultivation; and the right to work and own a business. The Government is also integrating refugees into national development planning (UNHCR 2018).

3.4.3. Remittances

Migration is a major source of remittance inflows and underscores the importance of effectively managing migration. Remittances accounted for around US\$1.3 million in Uganda in 2017 (World Bank 2017), equivalent to a marginal amount of GDP. Ugandans in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland accounted for around 27 per cent of all official remittance inflows to in 2017, followed by South Sudan (20 per cent), Rwanda (18 per cent) and the United States (10 per cent).

3.5. COVID-19 and migrant workers³

3.5.1. Impact of the pandemic on migrant workers in Uganda

Migrant workers, like national workers, are likely to have suffered from the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic, such as loss of jobs in the hospitality sector and in manufacturing, and as low-skilled workers whose employers were no longer able to pay their wages. However, there has not been any report of xenophobic reactions against migrants in Uganda. On the contrary, during the pandemic, Uganda opened its borders to refugees fleeing violence in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (UNHCR 2020).

Furthermore, there has not been any discrimination with regard to COVID-19 treatment. Everyone infected with COVID-19 has received treatment regardless of migration status. Refugees live side by side with Ugandan communities and share the

same services. Due to the porous nature of Uganda's borders, irregular border crossings continued during lockdown and the ensuing official border closure. All those found crossing the border irregularly, whether foreigner or Ugandan, were taken for 14 days of mandatory quarantine, regardless of migration status.

3.5.2. Impact of the pandemic on Ugandans working abroad

Two Ugandan migrant workers are reported to have died of COVID-19, but the number of reported cases remained under 100. Some workers have lost their jobs and had to be repatriated, while many others remained stranded in their country of employment, mostly in the Middle East, with limited or no resources due to loss of jobs or non-payment of wages.

³ This is an early qualitative assessment, following the methodology set out by the ILO Policy Brief of April 2020 "Protecting Migrant Workers during the COVID-19 Pandemic - Recommendations for Policy-makers and Constituents". This brief is available at: https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_protect/---protrav/---migrant/documents/publication/wcms_743268.pdf.

▶ 3.5.3. Migrant-specific responses in Uganda

Following presidential lockdown directives and ensuing restrictions on international travel, the Directorate of Citizenship and Immigration Control temporarily suspended its operations in March 2020. This affected services in the areas of citizenship, work permits, residence permits, and visas and passes. However, all those whose migration status was irregular or whose visas expired, were allowed to stay in Uganda without any penalties (Kiiza 2020).

There were regular and frequent media briefings at the Uganda Media Centre to provide migrants with information on how to contact the Government, notably with regard to immigration status.

▶ 3.5.4. Protective measures for Ugandans working abroad

As a result of the COVID-19 crisis, the labour externalization programme was suspended from March 2020, which halted the recruitment of Ugandan migrants and the sending of remittances. In some countries, such as Saudi Arabia, Ugandan authorities have had to activate their missions to provide shelter and assistance to stranded Ugandans.

The Ministry of Health and Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development (MGLSD) have established a list of standard operating procedures that recruitment and training companies must adhere to, and which provide guidelines on operations and the training of potential migrants during the pandemic.

Chapter 4

- ▶ **Labour force characteristics**
-

This chapter provides an analysis of labour force characteristics in Uganda and is structured as follows: Section 4.1. describes the overall labour force including the state of employment by sector and status; Section 4.2. provides a snapshot of the labour market characteristics of migrant workers, as derived from primary data collected as part of this study as well as secondary data; Section 4.3. examines the skills composition of the Ugandan labour market as well as the skills composition of migrant workers in Uganda; and Section 4.4. summarizes the findings of the chapter in relation to labour force characteristics in Uganda.

It is worth noting that Uganda is one of only a few countries worldwide that has applied the recommendations of the 19th ICLS in a

labour force survey. As mentioned in Section 2.2., the main difference with the 19th ICLS is the treatment of own-use production workers, or subsistence farmers, which are no longer considered part of the labour force or the employed population. For this reason, it should be recognized that labour force participation rates and employment to population ratios are considerably lower than under the previous ICLS recommendations and not comparable with the majority of countries worldwide that have yet to apply the 19th ICLS treatment of own-use production workers. It also means that unemployment rates are more elevated due to the lower count for the labour force that is the denominator. It also means that data is not comparable with the previous labour force survey for 2011–12.

► 4.1. The labour force

This section draws from secondary research to describe key characteristics of the Ugandan labour force. According to the latest survey conducted, the Labour Force Survey 2016–17, around 18.8 million Ugandans were of working-age (defined in the context of Uganda, as aged 14–64 years).⁴ Of these, around 9.9 million were in the labour force, corresponding to a labour force participation rate of 52.7 per cent. However, overall an extra 33 per cent were own-use production workers (classified as being outside of the labour force) whose main activity was production for own consumption and not for the market.

The majority (around 65 per cent) of the labour force are located in rural areas and engaged in largely traditional agriculture; however, this does not include the own-use production workers who are typically small-scale farmers in rural areas. As a result, the labour force participation rate in rural areas was lower at 47.5 per cent to urban areas at 66.6 per cent. Overall men had a higher labour force participation rate at 61.2 per cent, compared to women at 44.9 per cent; however, again, women were also more likely to be own-use production workers (38.7 per

cent of the working-age women, compared to 27.1 per cent of men).

► 4.1.1. Unemployment

The unemployment rate for the age group 14–64 is estimated at 9.7 per cent, while the rate for unemployed youth (defined in the Uganda labour force survey as those aged 15–30 years) is estimated at 13.0 per cent. Women exhibited a higher unemployment rate at 11.4 per cent, compared to men at 8.2 per cent. Given that the unemployed represent those who are actively seeking work and available to work, a considerable number are classified as potential labour force, that is, those who express an interest in work but for whom existing conditions limit their active job search and/or their availability (see glossary in Appendix IV). Taking this latter group into account, the combined rate of unemployment and potential labour force is measured at 26.4 per cent, and is considerably higher for women (31.8 per cent) than men (21.5 per cent). This implies that there is substantial unused capacity in the Ugandan labour force at present.

⁴ All labour market statistics provided in Section 4.1. are from the Labour Force Survey 2016/17 (UBOS 2017a), unless otherwise stated.

4.1.2. A high number of young entrants on the labour market every year

Population trends suggest that around 740,000 young people are expected to enter the labour market each year over the next decade. The pressure this places on Uganda is apparent in indicators of youth underutilization. Accordingly, four in every 10 young people (defined in this context as those aged 18–30) are not contributing to their fullest economic potential. The combined rate of youth unemployment and youth time-related underemployment was 19.0 per cent; the combined rate of youth unemployment and youth potential labour force was 29.9 per cent; and the overall composite measure of youth labour underutilization was 38.1 per cent. The high underutilization rate of youth is largely a manifestation of an oversupply of labour (relative to labour market demand) driven by the rapid growth of the working age population. The implication is that the existing unmet capacity in the Ugandan labour force is likely to continue growing.

“Currently, there is a growing participation of Ugandans in the labour market. This is because of the growth of population, which is outpacing economic growth. Despite high joblessness in Uganda, other youths from the neighbouring countries such as Somalia, Ethiopia, Eritrea, South Sudan and Rwanda are flooding Uganda in search for employment opportunities and better standards of living” – Key Informant

The latest labour force survey estimated that 8.9 million people were employed in Uganda in 2016–17. This corresponds to an employment-to-population ratio of 47.6 per cent. Many of these workers were in poor quality jobs, with the vast majority (84.9 per cent) of those outside of agriculture in informal employment. The informal employment rate was relatively similar for both men and women, but marginally higher for rural areas (89.6 per cent) than urban areas (80.5 per cent).

4.1.3. Status in employment

By status in employment, a total of 34.5 per cent of the employed population worked as wage and salaried employees. However, many wage and salaried employees in the private sector are in informal employment or on casual contract arrangements (if any at all), often at a per piece/day rate. While wage and salaried employment is generally considered a more stable and secure form of work, this is not the case when these workers have no contract or operate on a daily labour basis. Nonetheless, men were more likely to be in wage and salaried employment (40.8 per cent) than women (26.3 per cent). Furthermore, the share of wage employment in the urban labour market was estimated at 47.8 per cent, considerably higher than in rural areas at 27.4 per cent, which is consistent with job creation being driven by urban areas.

The share of own-account workers and contributing family workers (also known as the vulnerable employed population) was estimated at 62.6 per cent in 2016–17. The majority of which were own-account workers (52.8 per cent of all employment) with the remainder (9.8 per cent) as contributing family workers. The rates for each of these components of vulnerable employment were higher for women, with 57.8 per cent of employed women engaged as own-account workers and 14.1 per cent as contributing family workers, compared to 48.8 per cent and 6.4 per cent of men, respectively. Vulnerable employment is considered indicative of poorer quality employment, as these workers are less likely to exhibit the job security, regular incomes and labour protection of their wage and salaried counterparts.

4.1.4. Sectoral employment

Employment in services accounted for around 42.4 per cent of all employment in 2016–17. Employment in services was most prevalent in urban areas, where it accounted for 66.9 per cent of employment, compared to 29.4 per cent of employment in rural areas. Women were more likely to be employed in the service sector, at 45.8 per cent compared to 39.8 per cent of men, which was accounted for by a larger share of women in the occupational category of service and sales workers, at 30.6 per cent, compared to 17.5 per cent of men.

The share of total employment in agriculture was recorded at around 41.2 per cent in 2016–17. In previous years this figure would be considerably higher because of the inclusion of own-use production work in agriculture, forestry and fishing, but as noted above, people engaged in such work are not counted among the labour force under the 19th ICLS recommendations, to which the Labour Force Survey 2016–17 adheres. In rural areas, 56.2 per cent of employment was in agriculture, which is equivalent to 3.3 million people. The fact that this number is considerably lower than the 5.6 million people in rural areas engaged in own-use production is reflective of the largely low-productivity nature of work in rural areas.

Around 16.4 per cent of total employment was in the industry sector. Employment in industry was most common in urban areas, where it accounted for 20.2 per cent of employment, compared to 14.3 per cent in rural areas. While this is typical for countries with similar levels of industrialization as Uganda, it also reflects the lack of higher value-added activities (such as agro-processing) in rural areas. Men were more likely to be engaged in industry at 20.2 per cent, compared to 11.4 per cent of women.

4.1.5. Underemployment and working poverty

On average, workers only worked 7.4 hours per day in their main job during the reference week, which is consistent with the notion that many Ugandans working predominantly for profit are still engaged to some degree in either a second job or own-use production. This is particularly the case in rural areas, where the number of hours worked per day was 6.6 hours (compared to 8.8 hours in urban areas), which is consistent with small-scale farming activities for own use. Women also exhibited lower average hours of work (7 hours, compared to 7.7 hours for men), which reflects not only women's propensity to contribute to own-use production activities but also their household burden.

Around 67 per cent of the employed population of Uganda were classified as living in working poverty in 2017, that is, living at a household level on less than the international threshold for the moderately poor (less than \$3.10 purchasing power parity (PPP) terms per day in 2017), according to ILO modelled estimates (ILO 2019c). This rate underscores the lack of decent and productive jobs available to the population and also reflects the number of people who are living at a subsistence level and highly vulnerable to income shocks. The extreme working poverty rate (less than \$1.90 PPP per day) was estimated at around 37.8 per cent in 2017.

▶ 4.2. Migrant workers

This section focuses on the characteristics of migrant workers from IGAD Member States, drawing from secondary and primary research. There is a shortage of information on international migrant workers in Uganda (see Section 6.2.). Data on household members who have gone abroad is captured in the Labour Force Survey. However, data on migration in Uganda is mostly focused on internal migration. It captures information on whether a respondent previously resided in another country, but does not ascertain

their nationality and therefore cannot distinguish between returnees and migrants. The National Population and Housing Census captures information on international migration, namely country of origin and ethnicity; however, data are not publicly available for labour force characteristics by these breakdowns. At the same time, data are collected on work permits, but these are not available to the public domain and would be limited in terms of characteristics of migrant

workers, while also being limited to regular migrants only.

4.2.1. Characteristics of the migrant workers from the IGAD region

In light of this, primary data was collected on migrant workers from IGAD Member States via a structured questionnaire (see Appendix II). The data allowed for the identification of the migration status and length of stay of migrant workers. Namely, those who were in the country for more than six months (long-term migrant workers) and whether they had official documentation (regular migration status) or not (irregular migration status). Migration status was not captured for short-term migrant workers who were in the country for less than six months at the time of the interview.

Salient characteristics of the migrant workers in the sample are represented in figure 1 below. This graph is designed to put a spotlight on the main characteristics of the sample in review. Some of the labour market indicators are expressed out of the total employed (386 respondents), such as status in employment, occupational skill level, and formal or informal employment. The remaining indicators – age, migration status and educational attainment – are expressed out of the whole sample (439 respondents).

The figure shows that 286 migrant workers in the sample were informally employed (74 per cent of employed respondents), and that 129 (33 per cent of employed respondents) could

be considered in vulnerable employment (that is, as own-account workers or contributing family workers). Responses also show that most respondents (356 out of 386 employed migrant workers) were involved in mid- to high-level skilled occupations. Medium-skilled occupations include services and sales, skilled agriculture, and crafts and related activities, and high-skilled occupations include managers, professionals and technicians and associates.

This sample of migrant workers in Uganda had a high share – in fact the highest share among the seven countries included in this series of reports – of long-term migrants with regular status (316, or 72 per cent). Only 13 per cent of long-term migrant workers had irregular migration status, and the remaining 15 per cent were in Uganda for less than six months. This is consistent with the notion that Uganda is relatively open to migrants, both via the EAC and through agreements with other neighbouring countries, and that it is commonplace for refugees to enter the labour market.

“High numbers of refugee workers [come] from the neighbouring war-torn countries like Somalia, Rwanda, South Sudan and the Democratic Republic of Congo. Upon reaching Uganda they find ways of integrating into the labour market to find job opportunities to sustain their families. The differences between labour migrants and refugees can be blurry in Uganda.” – Key informant

▶ **Figure 1.** Selected characteristics of the migrant workers sampled



OAW = own-account worker. Note: The sample group for occupational skills level, status in employment, and informality only includes employed respondents (n=386). All respondents (n=439) are considered for education attainment, migration status, and age. Source: Primary quantitative data collection.

Based on the data collected as part of this assignment, many long-term migrants in Uganda with regular migration status are from Sudan, Somalia and Eritrea. Notably, despite the EAC Common Market Protocol that allows workers from any EAC Partner State to accept employment within any other EAC country (EAC n.d.), many of the long-term migrants with irregular migration status were Kenyan (accounting for nearly half of this category). This suggests that despite the relative freedom of movement, and despite the fact that Uganda and Kenya abolished high visa fees for work permits to ease the recruitment of professional workers, there

are still administrative steps to be taken that are not always complied with, or alternately, that many people are not fully aware of their rights.

“Majority of the [migrant workers] in Uganda come into the country without proper travel documents. Worst of all, [they] lack work permits. This is the case usually with Somalians, Ethiopians, South Sudanese.” – Key informant

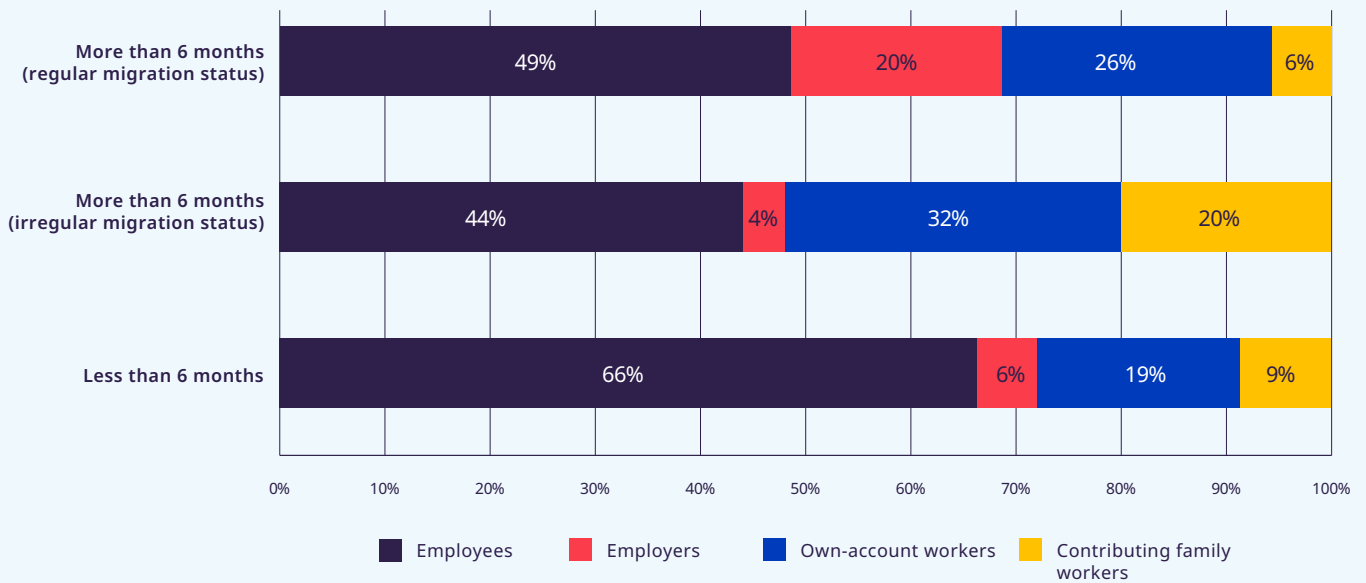
Status in employment of migrant workers interviewed

Of the migrant workers interviewed as part of this study, 51 per cent were employees, 15 per cent were employers, 25 per cent were own-account workers and 8 per cent were contributing family workers. Women were less likely to be employees than men (41 per cent versus 54 per cent, respectively) but more likely to be own-account workers (37 per cent) than men (21 per cent).

Looking by migration status and length of stay (figure 2) shows once again that irregularity of status is positively correlated

with vulnerability. More than half (52 per cent) of long-term migrant workers with irregular status were working as contributing family workers or own-account workers, compared with 32 per cent of those with regular working status and 28 per cent of short-term migrant workers. The share of employment status as employees was similar regardless of migration status (49 per cent for those with regular migration status as opposed to 44 per cent for those without). Those with regular migration status were, however, more likely to be employers (20 per cent against 4 per cent). As for short-term migrants, two-thirds of them (66 per cent) worked as employees.

► **Figure 2.** Status in employment, by migration status and length of stay (n=386)



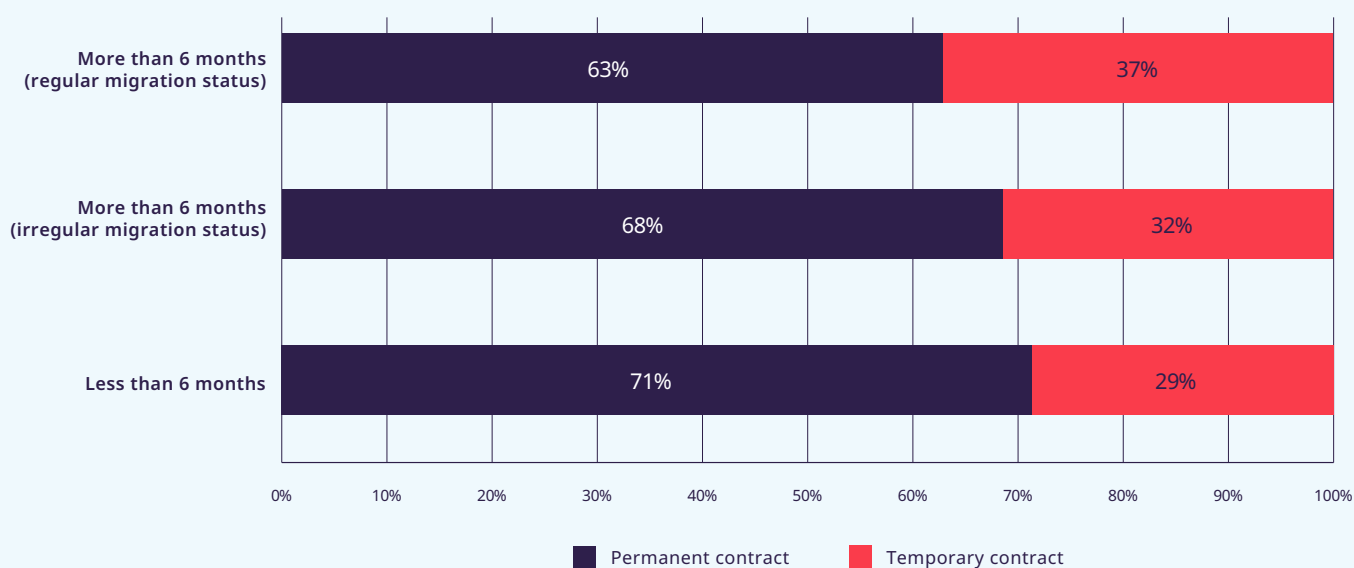
Source: Primary quantitative data collection.

Type of employment contracts for migrant workers interviewed

According to key informant interviews, it is common for foreign-owned and Ugandan companies to recruit migrant workers on a short-term basis (up to 90 days) in order

to work on a business visa without a work permit.⁵ Of the migrant workers interviewed as part of this study, 65 per cent of employee contracts, regardless of migration status and length of stay, were of a permanent nature (figure 3).

▶ **Figure 3** Type of employee contract, by migration status and length of stay (n=386)



Source: Primary quantitative data collection.

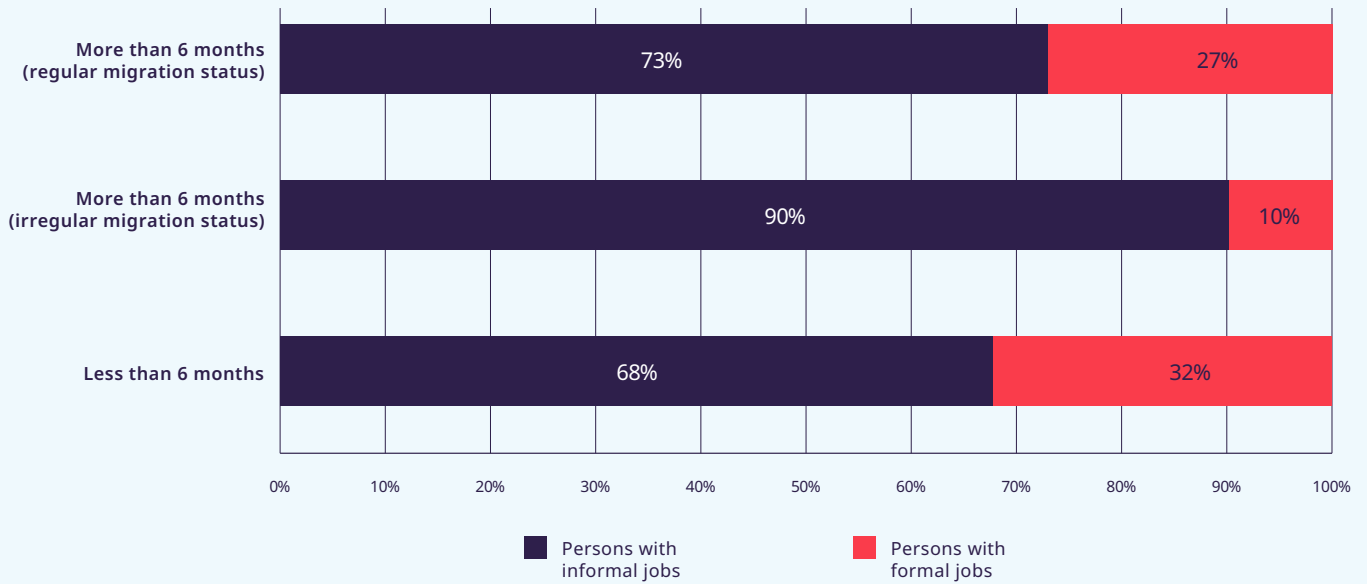
⁵ A special pass may be issued for employment of not more than 90 days. It is issued to EAC nationals pending issuance of work permits. For more, see: <https://www.immigration.go.ug/content/work-permits-and-other-residence-facilities>.

Informal employment

The majority (74 per cent) of employed migrant workers were in informal employment, meaning they did not have access to social security entitlement or forms of paid leave. This is despite the relative ease of hiring migrant workers on a short-term basis without work permits using a business visa. The share

in informal employment was highest (90 per cent) among long-term migrants with irregular migration status (figure 4), which underlines the causality that exists between irregular migrant status and vulnerability at work. The share in informal employment was lower for short-term migrants and for long-term migrants with regular migration status.

► **Figure 4.** Informal employment, by migration status and length of stay (n=386)

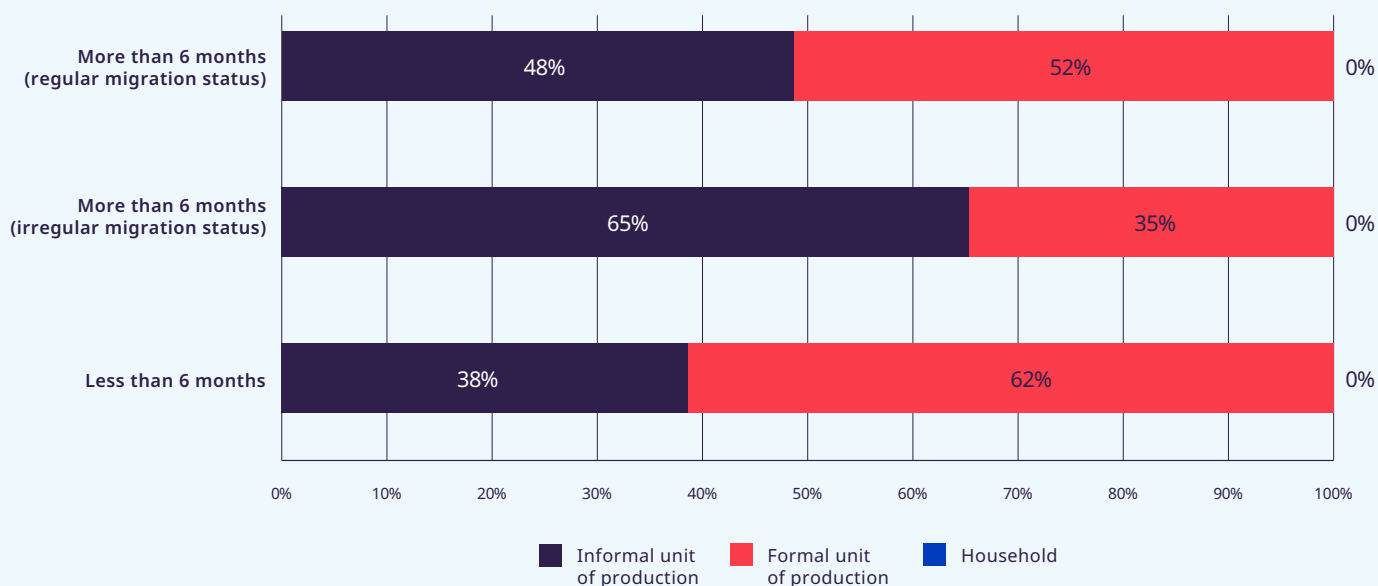


Source: Primary quantitative data collection.

The share of workers employed in an informal enterprise (see glossary in Appendix IV), at 49 per cent, was lower than the share in informal employment. In fact, around 55 per cent of those employed in the formal sector were in informal employment. This underlines the blurred lines between formality and informality, as many formal businesses (that is, registered firms compliant with tax and other regulations) employ migrant workers without any benefits of labour protection. By migration status and length of stay,

the share of migrant workers employed in informal enterprises was higher for long-term migrants with irregular migration status (65 per cent), reflecting again the vulnerability of being with irregular migration status. The share was lowest for short-term migrants, at 38 per cent, which would again be consistent with short-term workers being hired for specific fixed-term work, and would suggest that these firms were often formal enterprises (figure 5).

▶ **Figure 5.** Employment in informal enterprise, by migration status and length of stay (n=386)



Source: Primary quantitative data collection.

▶ 4.3. Skills composition, education and TVET delivery

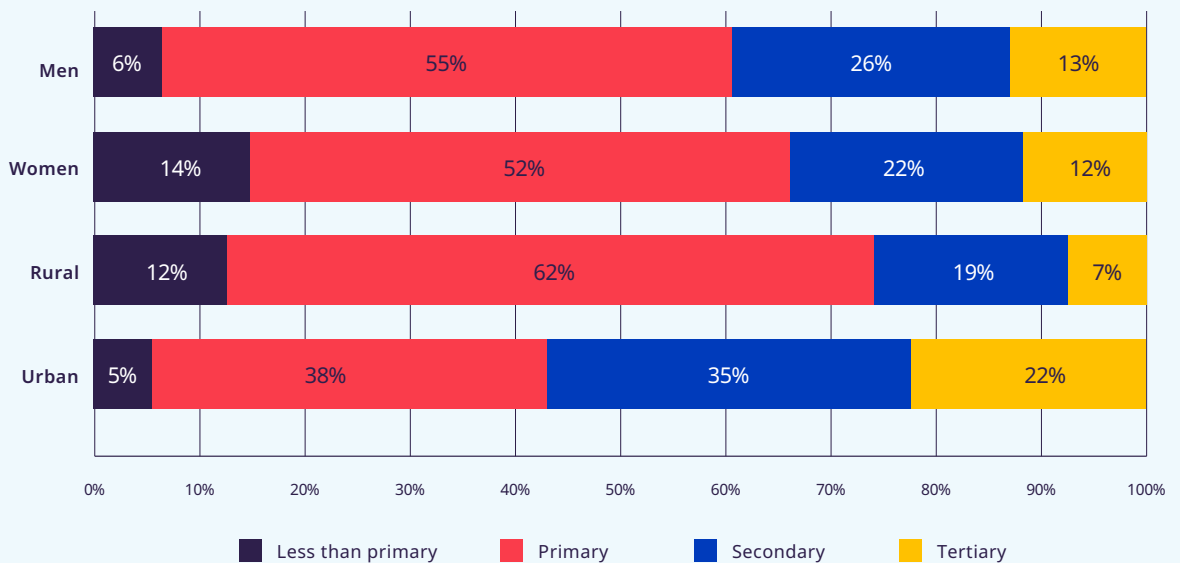
This section provides an overview of the skill and education composition of the labour force, drawing from the most recent labour force survey. Using primary quantitative data and key informant interviews, it also presents findings on the skills composition of migrant workers. In addition, this section highlights some implementation issues around the provision of technical and vocational skills training as drawn from key informant interview findings.

Educational attainment

According to data from the Labour Force Survey 2016/17, 53.6 per cent of the labour force had attained a primary level of education; a further 24.3 per cent had a secondary level of education; and 12.2 per cent had a tertiary

level of education. Just under 10 per cent had a less than primary level of education. Women tended to have lower levels of educational attainment than men (figure 6), with a higher share of women having only attained a primary level or less. Gender gaps in educational attainment have direct implications for the types of occupations men and women have access to and therefore have an impact on earnings and the likelihood of obtaining wage and salaried work. There was also a substantial gap between urban and rural areas: in rural areas nearly three-quarters of the migrant workers had less than a primary level of educational attainment, while 57 per cent of respondents in urban areas had a secondary education or above.

▶ **Figure 6.** Educational attainment of the labour force in Uganda, by sex and urban/rural



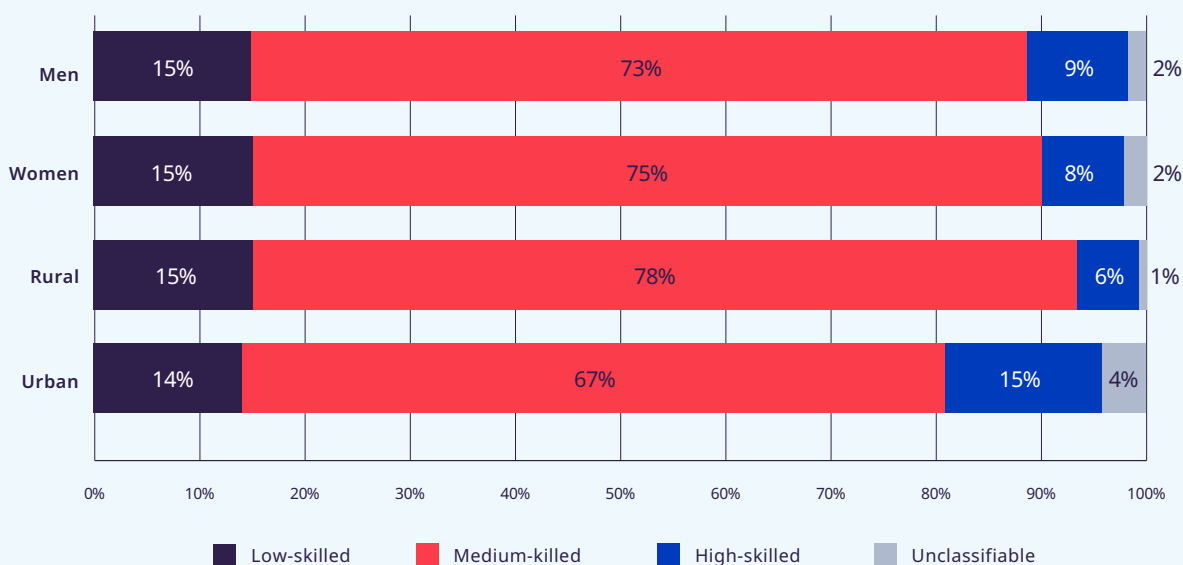
Source: UBOS 2017a.

Occupational skill level

According to the Labour Force Survey 2016/17, the majority (73.8 per cent) of the employed population were in medium-skilled occupations (see Appendix IV for definitions of skill levels), including services and sales, skilled agriculture, and crafts and related activities; this figure is relatively stable when disaggregated by sex and by geographical areas (figure 7). Around 10 per cent were in higher-skilled

occupations, namely managers, professionals and technicians and associates. The remainder (15 per cent) were in low-skilled occupations, namely elementary occupations. Higher-skilled workers were in greater propensity in urban areas at 15 per cent, compared to 6 per cent in rural areas, and there were only marginal differences by sex, despite the differences in educational attainment by sex noted in figure 6 above.

▶ **Figure 7.** Occupational skill levels of the labour force in Uganda, by sex and urban/rural



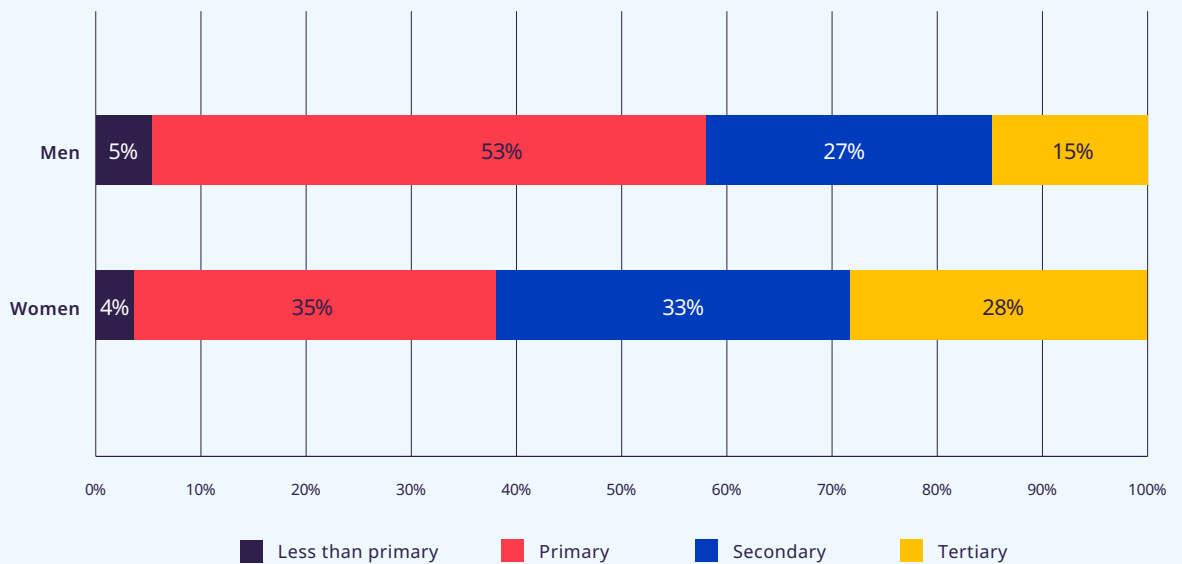
Source: UBOS 2017a.

Educational attainment of migrant workers interviewed

In terms of the educational attainment of migrant workers of the IGAD region, among those interviewed as part of this research, women tended to have a higher level of educational attainment than men, with 64 per cent of women with a secondary level of education or above, compared to 42 per cent of men (figure 8). Instead, more than half

of men (53 per cent) had a primary level of education, compared to 35 per cent of women. While male migrant workers interviewed as part of this study had very similar levels of educational attainment to the educational attainment composition of the Ugandan labour force (as captured by the Labour Force Survey 2016/17), women migrant workers had comparatively higher levels of education.

► **Figure 8.** Migrant workers' educational attainment, by sex (n=439)

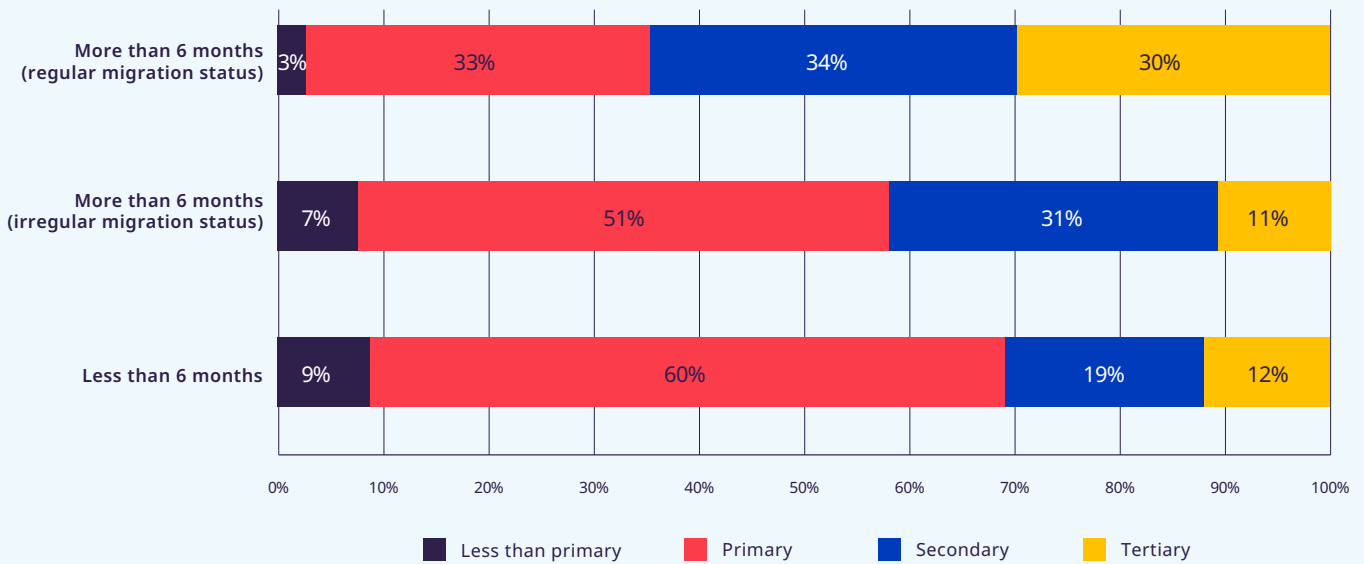


Source: Primary quantitative data collection.

When disaggregating the data by migration status and length of stay, there were significant differences, with a higher share of short-term migrant workers with primary or lower levels of education (figure 9). Among long-term migrant workers, average levels of educational attainment were higher for those with regular migration status than those without (30 per

cent against 11 per cent, respectively), and the educational attainment of long-term migrant workers with regular migration status was considerably higher than the national average of the Ugandan labour force, although this is more likely to be a specific trait of the sample in review than a characteristic of all migrant workers in Uganda.

▶ **Figure 9.** Migrant workers’ educational attainment, by migration status and length of stay (n=439)



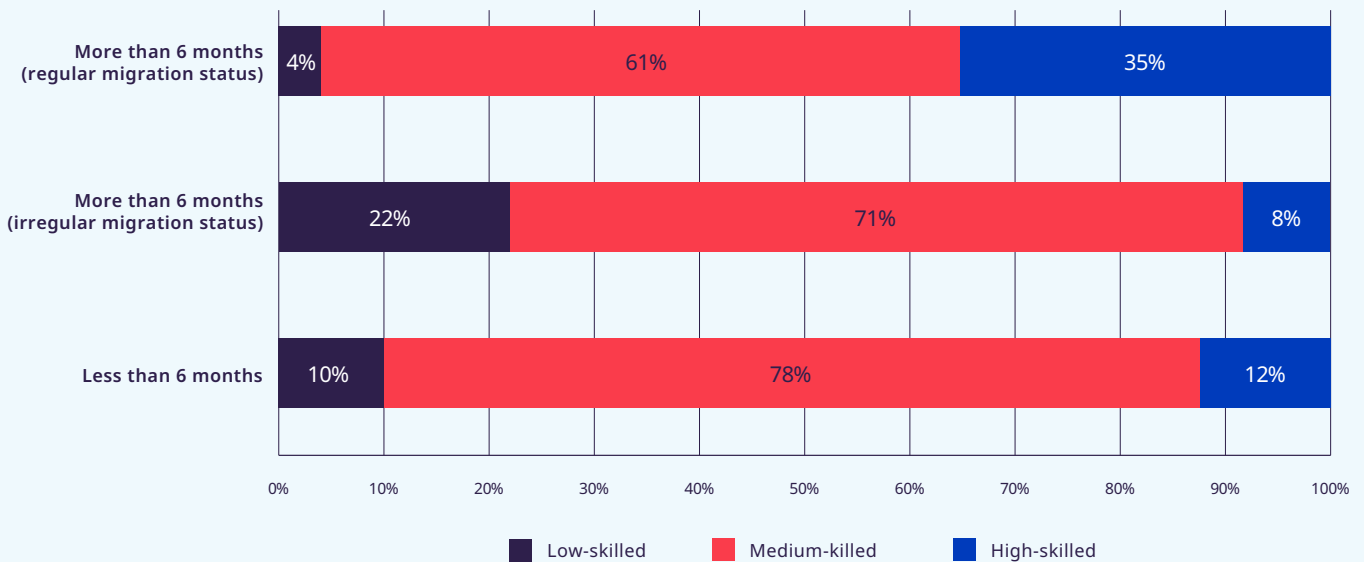
Source: Primary quantitative data collection.

Occupational skill composition of the migrant workers interviewed

Consistent with the education profile of the migrant workers interviewed, long-term migrant workers with regular status were more likely to be in high-skilled occupations (35 per cent), compared to 8 per cent of

long-term migrant workers with irregular status, and 12 per cent of short-term migrant workers (figure 10). Conversely, among those in Uganda for more than six months but with irregular status, 22 per cent were in low-skilled occupations. For all categories, the majority were in medium-skilled occupations.

► **Figure 10.** Migrant workers’ occupational skill composition, by migration status and length of stay (n=386)



Source: Primary quantitative data collection.

A number of key informants highlighted the high-skilled nature of migrant workers in Uganda. While this is partially captured in the primary data collected as part of this assignment, key informants indicated that it is common for firms (particularly foreign-owned firms) to bring in migrant workers to help train up and pass on skills to the other employees in the company. Given the high amount of investment from Asia, these migrant workers are likely to be from outside of the IGAD region and therefore were not interviewed as part of this study.

“Throughout the businesses created by foreign investors, more than 70 per cent of workforces are Ugandans, and around 25 per cent are foreign experts that guide and train the locals. Hence, leading to transfer of knowledge, skills and expertise to Ugandan labour force.” – Key informant

Many sources state that Uganda's business, technical and vocational education and training (BTVET) system, which was established under the BTVET Act, 2008, has led to improvements in the distribution of vocational and skills training centres. However, a number of studies suggest the BTVET system is not producing optimal results as a result of:

1. inadequate government funding;
2. an absence of sufficient training facilities and equipment, which impedes students' skill building; and
3. a mismatch between the training being offered and the demands of the labour market (ICON-Institut 2019a).

One of the tasks in the BTVET system is to create a labour market information system to help develop a database on skills (ILO 2020b). It is not clear if this would include information on migrant workers.

With financial support from the World Bank and participation by a range of international organizations, a programme named Skilling Uganda is underway, aimed at making skills development initiatives and efforts more market-responsive by bringing together relevant key stakeholders (Ministry of Education and Sports 2011). A priority is that market-oriented skills development for certain mid- and higher-skilled vocations be developed with employer engagement to ensure there is market demand for the skills in question. Notably, Skilling Uganda works with migrants, including refugees (ILO 2020b).⁶

► 4.4. Conclusions

The Ugandan labour market is characterized by low levels of educational attainment and low-quality employment. The high share of the working-age population engaged in subsistence agriculture reflects Uganda's overall lack of progress in terms of structural development and limited capacity to transfer from low-productivity activities to higher productivity. Working poverty is widespread and those working in agriculture are highly vulnerable to unpredictable weather patterns, such a drought. While about a third of employment is in wage and salaried jobs, the vast majority of the employed (outside of agriculture) are in informal employment.

Migrant workers are commonplace in Uganda and work in both formal and informal sector establishments. Primary data collected as part of this assignment, which focused on a non-representative sample of 439 migrant workers from the IGAD region, found that the education and skills composition of these migrant workers was higher on average than the Ugandan labour force. However, according to key informants and work permit data, migrants from South Asia and China were commonplace, especially working for foreign-owned businesses and in higher-skilled occupations.

⁶ See ILO 2020b for a more detailed overview of migrant workers' access to services and recognition of qualifications and skills

Chapter 5

- ▶ **Job creation
and the private
sector**

“[In 2012] there were 392,000 labour market entrants annually compared to 130,000 jobs (one third of the labour market entrants) created by the formal sector both public and private, leaving 260,000 unemployed, which is a great challenge” – Social Development Sector Plan 2015/16–2019/20, p.13

Information on job creation and labour demand in key sectors of the economy is vital to guide policy interventions that can strengthen the business environment and foster private sector development and job growth – all of which are needed to absorb the growing labour force in the country.

Measuring the creation of job opportunities is most accurately assessed with the help of regular employer-based vacancy surveys and up-to-date administrative information collected through, for example, employer’s federations, revenue boards or social security records. While Uganda conducted a Manpower Survey in 2016 there were some shortfalls in sector coverage and sampling

that prevented it from being a comprehensive establishment survey (EU and NAP 2019b). Further, Uganda lacks an up-to-date business repository upon which to sample firms, the most recent repository being from 2007 (IMF 2017). Nonetheless, the Manpower Survey provides some information on employees and employers in the formal sector and employers in the informal sector.

In terms of how the above is relevant with regards to migrant workers, there are two main avenues: firstly, the degree to which migrant workers are able to establish businesses in these sectors and result in job creation for both Ugandans and migrant workers; and secondly, the degree to which there is potential for job creation for migrant workers, and whether or not this results in competition with locals.

This chapter is structured as follows: Section 5.1. outlines what sectors are likely to see expansion in the medium term; Section 5.2. presents an overview of the private sector and the business environment in the country and the capacity for creating jobs; Section 5.3. concludes.

► 5.1. Sectoral growth initiatives and prospects

Sectoral growth focuses on development plans and trends in investment that can help identify where job creation may occur in the medium to long term. When considered in the context of industrialization, these can shed further light on job creation potential by sector. Currently, Uganda is still in the nascent stages of structural transformation. Agriculture accounted for around 21.5 per cent of added value in 2017, with industry (excluding manufacturing) accounting for 18.6 per cent, manufacturing accounting for 7.6 per cent, and services accounting for 51.9 per cent. Since 2010 the main change has been an expanding share accounted for by services and a shrinking share in agriculture. However, despite some degree of structural transformation evident in the composition of GDP over time, labour productivity has only

slightly increased, by around 1.4 per cent per annum on average since 2010, signalling major challenges in the quantity and quality of job creation in Uganda’s labour market (World Bank 2019a).

► 5.1.1. Agriculture

The largest proportion of the labour market is engaged in agriculture (see Section 4.1.), and its low contribution to economic growth reflects the low-productivity nature of the agricultural sector. The agriculture sector is characterized by a lack of productivity enhancing inputs, including modern agricultural machinery, pesticides and other yield-enhancing factors. The focus under the National Development Plan III with regards to agriculture includes:

- ▶ fast-tracking of land reform, which alone is anticipated to more than double growth rates of agricultural output and contribute to poverty reduction;
- ▶ modernization of agriculture where urban migrants create a market for the increased output and quality of agro-products;
- ▶ expansion of agro-processing among other wider value-chain developments; and
- ▶ investment in supporting infrastructure (Government of Uganda 2020).

A number of key commodities – including cotton, coffee, tea, maize, rice, cassava, beans, fish, beef, milk, citrus and bananas – have been identified for their potential to enhance food security and also expand export earnings. Further investment in research is also outlined under the Plan, to help analyse soil and fertilizers to facilitate growth of specific crops, particularly cash-crops, and to design and develop irrigation systems. The Plan also outlined its focus on contract farming or out-grower schemes for high-value produce in order to enhance large scale agro-processing and ensure a steady supply of quality produce and to support and encourage investment in agro-processing (Government of Uganda 2020).

However, a major constraint in terms of job creation is that if the Plan is able to achieve increased agricultural productivity, there will inevitably be displacement of agricultural workers – many of whom will migrate to urban areas, or potentially abroad. Further, investment in skills, particularly for those in rural areas and those in the agricultural sector, would be imperative to the achievement of the goals outlined above.

While migrant workers may be engaged in manual labour in agriculture, foreign investors can face challenges in engaging or investing in agriculture, without an exemption from the ministry responsible for planning and economic development (ILO 2020a).

▶ 5.1.2. Industry

In terms of industry there are four main focal areas of the Government: (i) mining, including oil and gas; (ii) steel and iron ore; (iii) manufacturing; and (iv) construction. In terms

of mining, the focus is largely on expanding output rather than on job creation, and in any case, there is little potential for job creation owing to the largely capital-intensive nature of the industry. Nonetheless, there are spillovers associated with expansion of mining, including development of infrastructure near key sites and spending in the neighbouring areas, bolstering the potential for hotels and restaurants and basic services. At the same time, large-scale mining tends to bring in skilled migrant workers, often from outside the IGAD region. Although there is potential for skills transfer to Ugandans in the area and therefore job creation, the impact is likely to be small.

Artisanal and small-scale mining tends to be more employment-intensive as it can consist of “individuals, families or groups of local communities or migrant workers or local enterprises, the majority of whom have no formal technical training and depend on rudimentary tools” (Ministry of Energy and Mineral Development 2018, x). The Government has amended the Mining Policy 2001, and replaced it with the Mining and Minerals Policy 2018, which seeks to try and formalize these artisanal and small-scale miners and to integrate them into the legal context; however, there are challenges to implementation.

Steel and iron ore is another focal area for the Government, but one with little potential for job creation. Again, the focus is largely on the economic potential of the sector. Vision 2040 – and the successive National Development Plans I, II and III – refer to iron ore as a key mineral for steel production, not least given its role as an input in manufacturing, construction and infrastructure development. Nonetheless, there is potential for job creation in a largely informal and small-scale metal fabrication industry. Further, expansion of domestic supplies would bolster the potential for job creation in the manufacturing industry.

Manufacturing holds the most potential in the industry sector for job creation, but it is currently focused on the production of low value-added goods, including food and beverages, manufactured wood products, textiles and leather. Moreover, it is reliant upon imported production inputs. Manufacturing is also dominated by small- and medium-sized enterprises, which hamper the ability to achieve economies of scale, and therefore growth and subsequent job creation. Construction is considered a major driver in

the real economy, with infrastructure projects including the Kampala–Entebbe express highway, large-scale roads and rail, and the expansion of the Entebbe International Airport (IMF 2019b).

▶ 5.1.3. Services

Two of the main areas with potential for job creation in the services sector include tourism and information and communication technology (ICT). Estimates made by the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) suggest that travel and tourism in Uganda directly supported around 229,000 jobs in 2017, equivalent to around 2.4 per cent of total employment, and either directly or indirectly supported around 605,500 jobs, equivalent to around 6.3 per cent of total employment. The WTTC forecast suggests that the sector has the potential to create around 350,000 direct jobs per annum over the next decade. Notably, the report also highlights that while the sector has contributed around 3 per cent of GDP, 60 per cent of this is generated in the informal sector. To bolster the potential spillover effects on local communities there are bodies such as the Community-based Tourism Initiative (COBATI) that are facilitating community-based tourism and, therefore, wider job creation.

ICT is an attractive prospect for transitioning rapidly into higher valued-added activities and is duly recognized in a range of initiatives, including the:

- ▶ Digital Vision Uganda;
- ▶ Business Process Outsourcing Strategy and Model for Uganda;

- ▶ National E-government Investment Plan;
- ▶ Digital Broadcasting and Migration Strategy;
- ▶ National Information Security Strategy; and
- ▶ ICT Sector Strategy and Investment Plan.

ICT is also considered a feasible area for job creation for youth and new entrants to the labour market. However, Uganda lacks the necessary infrastructure (for example, broadband) to facilitate ICT expansion, and job creation has been weak. The National Development Plan II anticipated an increase in direct and indirect ICT employment from 1 million to 3 million by 2020, but so far there has not been a significant increase in job creation.

Primary data collected as part of this study suggests that migrant workers from the IGAD region are engaged across a range of sectors, from construction to sales and service workers, and include paid employees and the self-employed. However, it is also the case that such employment was typically in the informal sector. It suggests that while sectoral growth will bolster job creation for Ugandans, migrant workers are less able to capitalize directly as a result of their operating in the informal sector. However, potential job creation for migrant workers can result from indirect and induced impacts from these initiatives, such as economic growth and the wider community spending resulting in increased demand for goods and services offered by migrant workers.

▶ 5.2. Private sector and business environment

According to the National Strategy for Private Sector Development (2017/18–2021/22), Uganda’s private sector is dominated by

micro-, small- and medium-sized enterprises totalling around 1,100,000 formal and informal enterprises and employing

approximately 2.5 million people. More than 93 per cent are micro enterprises, with less than four workers per enterprise. The majority of these enterprises are family-based and usually operate in the informal sector (Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development 2017).

According to the Manpower Survey 2016, job creation from formal sector enterprises more than doubled from around 23,000 to 52,000 per annum between 2010 and 2015 (UBOS 2018). Many of these formal sector enterprises were foreign-owned; only 80 per cent of formal private sector establishments were solely owned by Ugandans (compared to 99 per cent of informal sector enterprises surveyed). At the same time, migrant workers accounted for a large share of higher-skilled occupations, including professional, managerial and technical occupations, in formal private sector enterprises. In fact, more than two-thirds of managers were migrant workers, and just under half of professionals were migrant workers. The survey also found that around 10 per cent of formal private sector enterprises envisaged that they would be hiring migrant workers. The highest shares of migrant worker employees were in the manufacturing sector (31 per cent) and trade and repairs (35 per cent). Most jobs in formal private sector establishments had higher shares of men than women, with the exceptions of personal service workers; cleaners and helpers; general and keyboard clerks; health professionals; customer service clerks and personal care workers.

A major difference between formal private sector enterprises and the informal sector was around contracts. In formal private sector enterprises around 55 per cent of employees had a permanent contract (compared to 81 per cent in the public sector), and around 57 per cent of employees had a written contract (UBOS 2018). Whereas, in the informal sector, only 2 per cent had a written contract, 88 per cent had a verbal agreement and the remaining 10 per cent had no contract whatsoever.

In terms of challenges and obstacles to operation and expansion, nearly 60 per cent of formal private sector establishments cited a lack of customers as the main challenge to growth, followed by -non-payment of debts, access to finance and lack of managerial skills. For the informal sector, 33 per cent of

establishments stated that the main challenge for start-ups was in obtaining capital; whereas for running a business more than 20 per cent stated high taxes and license fees were the main challenge, followed by high labour turnover (16 per cent). Finally, for expansion, the main challenge was access to finance (29 per cent).

Local entrepreneurial activity and firm establishment were dominant in sectors such as recreational and personal services, hospitality, and retail trade that exhibit very low entry barriers, and entrepreneurial activity in such sectors is found to be characterized by imitation rather than innovation (World Bank, forthcoming). It is against this backdrop that many start-ups are unable to make progress.

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) from 2014 ranked Uganda second worldwide in the headline indicators of entrepreneurial activity in 2014 (GEM 2014). However, in terms of the share of the adult population either in the process of starting a business or running a new business that was less than three and a half years old, Uganda stood almost at the bottom of the country list. Over 50 per cent of Uganda's entrepreneurship was classified as "necessity-driven" rather than "opportunity-driven", meaning that many Ugandans start a business "because they cannot find a job". This has serious implications for the nature of businesses and the level of firm survival. Opportunity-driven entrepreneurship requires: (i) innovative entrepreneurs; (ii) an enabling environment; and (iii) economic opportunities to begin with.

Most of the entrepreneurial activity in Uganda is performed by own-account businesses. In other words, entrepreneurship tends to reflect people starting a one-person or micro-business only through lack of alternatives, and not because of clearly identified opportunities in the economy.

"More than 60 percent of Ugandan firms do not survive beyond their second birthday. Such high mortality of firms undermines a structural transition of the economy towards higher productivity and decent and productive jobs." - Key informant

Private sector growth is impeded by high costs of doing business due to weak infrastructure, low levels of private investment, and the weakening of the Ugandan shilling (AfDB 2019). Uganda ranked 127 out of 190 countries according to the World Bank's Ease of Doing Business Indicator for 2019, down from 122 in 2018 and 115 in 2017 (World Bank 2019d). Key reasons for the steady decline in ranking include the difficulties in getting electricity.

In terms of foreign investment, the Employment Act, 2006, imposes restrictions on the hiring of migrant workers. A bond is payable per migrant worker in the event of a default by the employer (ILO 2020a). Foreign investors are also prohibited from engaging or investing in animal or crop production. Recruitment of migrant workers by foreign investors is permitted on condition that no Ugandan can perform the task (ILO 2020a).

► 5.3. Conclusions

Uganda is unable to create enough jobs for its young and rapidly expanding labour force. A number of initiatives are in place to bolster key sectors, for instance as outlined in the current National Development Plan III. However, these initiatives – including in mining and steel and iron ore – are often driven from the primary perspective of their economic benefit, rather than their capacity to create jobs. Nonetheless, despite the capital intensity of these industries, there are job creation spillovers both in terms of production linkages (for example, steel and iron ore for the manufacturing sector) and consumption linkages, such as spending on services near large projects.

Agriculture is likely to remain a key source of jobs for the medium to long term. Initiatives to improve the productivity of the sector are outlined in the National Development Plan, however, major constraints in the sector, including widespread subsistence activities, are likely to continue to hamper the shift to more value-added activities. Nonetheless, focus on cash crops and productivity-enhancing inputs can start to raise incomes and facilitate both greater food security along with value-added growth. Other growth sectors include tourism and ICT, which can

both serve to bolster employment creation in services. Growth in tourism already is contributing to significant job creation, and the Manpower Survey 2016 noted that just over half of employers and 60 per cent of employees in formal sector enterprises used ICT in the workplace. The share was lower for the public sector, although the challenges associated with the COVID-19 crisis have changed this, as the public sector (ministries, departments and agencies) are increasingly investing and utilizing ICT in the workplace. Manufacturing growth has significant potential for job creation, but improvements in the business environment are needed to facilitate entrepreneurship and the ease of doing business.

Access to finance is a recurrent theme in terms of obstacles in the business environment. Other challenges include insufficient skills in the labour force to meet the expansion needs of businesses. While migrant workers already play an important role in businesses, particularly in higher-skilled occupations, there is a seeming disconnect between policies towards migrant workers (see Chapter 6) and their potential value for the labour market in terms of job creation and skills transfer.

Chapter 6

- ▶ **Improved governance for employment and job promotion**

Effective and appropriate labour market governance is imperative to the good functioning of labour markets (see box 2). The effectiveness of labour market governance rests largely on the availability of regular, up-to-date and comprehensive labour market statistics and information. Migrant workers are a crucial consideration in labour market governance, but they also occupy a space

that is also covered by labour migration governance. This chapter provides a critical assessment of selected labour market governance mechanisms (employment policy, labour market information, employment services and migrant workers) related to employment and job promotion, and how each can contribute to improved productive opportunities.

► Box 2. Labour market governance

Labour market governance refers to both employment governance and labour governance. The former is focused on pro-employment management and strategy and how to create decent and productive jobs; while the latter is focused more on the relationship between employers and employees, encompassing workers' rights, social protection, occupational safety and health. The traditional approach is to focus on:

- i. human capital development, including skills development and improved capacity of the workforce, and/or
- ii. private sector development, including business environment reforms and other policies designed to facilitate business growth.

These two approaches can be considered as supply-side and demand-side, respectively. Labour market governance is imperative to the success of each of these approaches and helps to find the appropriate balance.

This chapter is structured as follows: Section 6.1. provides an overview on Uganda's employment policy; Section 6.2. provides a critical assessment of labour market information; Section 6.3. presents an overview of the effectiveness of employment

services with regard to job-matching; Section 6.4. looks at migrant workers in a labour market governance context and in relation to employment and job creation; and Section 6.5. concludes.

► 6.1. Employment policy and legislation

The creation of decent work and productive employment opportunities and the enabling of the population to take up more productive jobs are at the centre pillar of Uganda's Vision 2040 (Government of Uganda 2013). Following the approval of Vision 2040, Uganda's national policy focus shifted away from the social development and poverty eradication issues that were stressed in the earlier Poverty Eradication Actions Plans. Uganda's National Development Plan I (2010/11–2014/15) was the first attempt to address employment issues

in a coherent manner. National Development Plan I put strong emphasis on infrastructure (power, road and rail) development and job creation in these areas (Government of Uganda 2010). The emphasis on employment was strengthened further in National Development Plan II (2015/16–2019/20), which prioritized investments and interventions in the five economic sectors with strong growth potential: agriculture, tourism, minerals/oil and gas, infrastructure and human capital development (Government of Uganda 2015).

The current National Development Plan III (2020/21–2024/25) sees the promotion of employment through a global objective of “sustainable industrialization for inclusive growth, employment and sustainable wealth creation” (Government of Uganda 2020).

The National Development Plan III, like its predecessors, follows a strong private sector-led approach to development whereby the Government makes a number of strategic investments in infrastructure to bolster private sector investment. The Plan anticipates that employment will grow as a result of sector interventions so long as the human resource base is adequate to take up the jobs that are created. The Department of Labour, Industrial Relations and Productivity under the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development (MGLSD) is responsible for formulating, implementing and enforcing labour policies and laws related to providing decent working conditions and protecting the rights of nationals and migrants.

Uganda devised a National Employment Policy (NEP) in 2011, which sought to provide a framework to achieve “decent and remunerative employment for all women and men seeking such work, in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity” (Government of Uganda 2011b, iii). Specifically, the NEP sought:

- ▶ to bolster linkages between employment creation and labour-absorbing sectors;
- ▶ skills training;
- ▶ promotion of agriculture and its linkages with other sectors;
- ▶ innovative strategies for employment creation in labour-intensive investments, particularly within the National Core Projects of the National Development Plan;
- ▶ increased productivity in large and small enterprises;
- ▶ mainstreaming vulnerable groups;
- ▶ strengthened labour administration;
- ▶ social dialogue; and
- ▶ improved working conditions.

The policy was supported by the ILO’s first decent work country programme for Uganda, which was designed in 2010 and where efforts were made to define a clear action plan for the creation of decent and productive employment for all, including for women and persons with disabilities.

However, an evaluation commissioned by the Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (2014) conducted on the NEP as part of a review of the Government’s overall approach to employment found that NEP’s implementation was insufficient. The evaluation also noted that in terms of employment in the overall national development context, there was a lack of “coherent implementation strategy due to limited coordination across Government, inadequate labour market information, conflicting policy objectives and a bias towards short-term priorities over longer-term sustainable progress” (Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development 2014, 11). The evaluation noted that while a number of key components for effectively integrating policies and interventions for employment creation were acknowledged in the NEP, implementation fell short, including the failure to establish a National Employment Council.

Nonetheless, Uganda has ratified the Employment Policy Convention, 1964 (No. 122). The forthcoming 2019 General Survey on Certain Instruments Related to the Strategic Objective of Employment report to be published by the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations (CEACR) will provide an opportunity to assess the degree to which Uganda complies with components of Convention No. 122, and other employment-related conventions.

Uganda has ratified all eight ILO fundamental Conventions (table 5). These, and other ratified Conventions, are reflected in a number of laws and guidelines on labour productivity and employment in force, including the:

- ▶ Employment Act No. 6 of 2006
- ▶ Workers Compensation Act Cap. 225 of 2000
- ▶ Occupational Safety and Health Act No. 9 of 2006

- ▶ Labour Unions Act No. 7 of 2006
- ▶ Labour Disputes (Arbitration & Settlement) Act No. 8 of 2006
- ▶ Minimum Wages Advisory Boards and Wages Councils Act
- ▶ Business, Technical, Vocational Education and Training (BTVET) Act 2008
- ▶ Employment (Recruitment of Ugandan Migrant Workers Abroad) Regulations, No. 62 of 2005; and
- ▶ National Youth Policy, 2001.

However, as noted by the CEACR, compliance with these Conventions is not always acceptable. For instance, with regard to the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111), the CEACR has “ask[ed] the Government [of Uganda] to take appropriate steps to eliminate discrimination

against women, including steps to combat the deep-rooted stereotypes and prejudice regarding their aspirations and capabilities” (ILO 2019a). Other shortfalls have been noted; for instance, regarding to the Minimum Wage-Fixing Machinery Convention, 1928 (No. 26), a non-fundamental ILO Convention that Uganda has ratified, the CEACR states, “Despite the progress made with the reactivation of the minimum wage fixing mechanism in 2015, the Committee notes with concern that the minimum wage, which was last set in 1984, has yet to be adjusted” (ILO 2019b). Resource constraints present a challenge to monitoring implementation, according to key informant interviews, and a major challenge is the lack of statistics, information and analysis for measuring and informing compliance with legislation. This is made more complicated by the range of government departments responsible for different types of information.

▶ **Table 5.** Uganda’s ratification of ILO Conventions

Fundamental Conventions	Status
Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29)	In force (1963)
Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87)	In force (2005)
Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98)	In force (1963)
Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100)	In force (2005)
Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105)	In force (1963)
Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111)	In force (2005)
Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138)	In force (2003)
Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182)	In force (2001)
Other relevant Conventions	Status
Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97)	Not ratified
Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143)	In force (1978)
Private Employment Agencies Convention, 1997 (No. 181)	Not ratified
Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189)	Not ratified

Source: ILO n.d.-b.

▶ 6.2. Labour market information

A subset of labour market governance, labour market information provides the foundation for effective and evidence-based labour market governance and labour migration and mobility governance. Systematic labour market information and analysis refers to institutional mechanisms that:

- i. collect and compile data and information relevant to the labour market;
- ii. act as a repository for such information;
- iii. provide analytical capacities and tools; and
- iv. facilitate institutional arrangements and networks.⁷

Enhancing labour market information is a priority area for the Government. In the Social Development Sector Plan (2015/16–2019/20) “strengthening Labour Market Information Systems” was considered a focal point for the objective “to promote decent employment opportunities and labour productivity” (MGLSD 2016, xxii). The Plan notes that “[a]ccurate, consistent and timely labour market information is essential for the proper functioning of the labour market. Strengthening Labour Market Information System shall involve building capacity of institutions and agencies in public and private sectors including social partners, collection, analysis and production of information on labour market and guiding both secondary and tertiary institutions on the skill needs at national and regional levels” (MGLSD 2016, 52).

The National Development Plan III also recognizes the lack of a functional labour market information system as a challenge to human development, and reinstates, as the preceding Plan, the need to focus on the development of a “functional labour market information system” as an intervention towards the objective to “produce appropriate knowledgeable, skilled and ethical labour force” (Government of Uganda 2020, 161). However, the labour market information system in this context was never fully or clearly defined and predominately perceived

as a database or tool to facilitate job training with the components:

- i. job matching database;
- ii. external employment management system;
- iii. labour claim information system;
- iv. internal employment information system;
- v. Labour Officers sharing system (ICON-Institut 2019b).

As a result, there have been efforts to develop a labour market information system, but so far too little avail (ICON-Institut 2019b).

Specific targets were outlined, and milestones were set in terms of numbers of labour market reports to be released per year, starting at one report, then two reports and after five years, reaching four reports per year. It does not specify what types of reports these would be, but it can be assumed that they would include a labour force survey, manpower survey, and other new surveys or research. Importantly, the National Development Plan III acknowledges that these reports will contain a balance of information on labour supply and labour demand, including desired market skills and around labour mobility. It also notes that cooperation would be desired with employment agencies to enhance skills and placements.

According to the Social Development Sector Plan, a range of ministries, departments and agencies beyond the MGLSD would be responsible for contributing to the strengthening of labour market information (MGLSD 2016). While not explicitly mentioned, it is assumed that the Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) would feature prominently. In addition, the Plan also outlines the roles for social partners, particularly employers and civil society organizations. At present, UBOS is responsible for the two main sources of labour market information currently available, the Labour Force Survey and the Manpower Survey.

⁷ Adapted from ILO n.d.-b.

The Labour Force Survey is the main source of nationally representative information on labour supply in Uganda. The last report was produced for 2016–17 and the one prior to that was 2011–12. The survey covers all sectors of the economy and all categories of worker. Significantly, the 2016–17 survey complied with the 19th ICLS recommendations, and treated own-use production workers as separate from the employed population. The Labour Force Survey 2016/17 captures a range of data to allow for employment and underutilization characteristics. However, a major shortfall of the survey is that it is based upon a small sample size. Only 5,355 households were captured for each year (2016 and 2017). The low sample size means that breakdowns by detailed sector and occupational breakdown are not reliable enough for analysis. In addition, the questionnaire does not allow for the measurement of impacts from technical and vocational education and training (TVET) interventions, which is one of the main areas for the Skilling Uganda programme. According to a report commissioned by Uganda's National Planning Authority (ICON-Institut 2019b), the low sample size was attributed to insufficient budget.

Besides the labour force survey there are other sources of data on labour supply, although not always representative. There was an Urban Labour Force Survey conducted in 2009. The Manpower Survey 2016 also captures information on labour supply, but only employees from formal enterprises (UBOS 2018). The National Household Survey is conducted annually, with the most recent published for 2016–17; however, while this survey contains a labour module, it does not necessarily comply with ICLS recommendations (UBOS 2017b). Finally, the National Population and Housing Census, last conducted in 2014, contains information on the labour force including detailed information by occupation. However, the Census is not designed to be fully compliant with ICLS recommendations (UBOS 2016).

In terms of labour demand, the Manpower Survey 2016 provides some insightful information by formal and informal establishments, such as challenges to expansion, composition of workforce, and policies implemented in the company (UBOS 2018). Notably, the survey includes information on migrant workers by including

breakdowns for Ugandans and non-Ugandans. It does not however provide information on the country of origin or detailed migration characteristics. However, the Manpower Survey is not regarded as a traditional establishment survey due to the sampling frame and the scope of the survey. For instance, the business repository was only partially updated to build the survey sample frame, and while it sought to cover establishments in all sectors it was unable to find reliable information to achieve this (ICON-Institut 2019b).

A challenge for effective establishment surveys is that they need to draw from an up-to-date business repository. Under the provisions of the UBOS Act, 1998, UBOS is mandated to maintain and update a Business Register for the country, but according to key Informant Interviews, UBOS has only undertaken two updates of the Business Register since 2000. The first one was conducted in the period 2001–02 followed by a 2006–07 update. Currently, it is working on another revision. The absence of a recent business repository also affects the robustness of national account statistics, which are often criticized for not allowing the precise accounting of inputs and outputs at major sector and subsector levels (IMF 2017).

In terms of data on migrant workers, information is relatively sparse. As detailed in the NEP, “[d]ata on immigrant workers are hardly accessible and therefore it is difficult to regulate the inflow and working conditions of both skilled and less skilled immigrants”, adding that some limited data was available from workers’ organizations (Government of Uganda 2011, 12). The Labour Force Survey captures information on whether a respondent previously resided in another country, but does not ascertain their nationality and therefore cannot distinguish between returnees and migrants (UBOS 2017a). Notably, the Manpower Survey includes information on migrant workers by including breakdowns for Ugandans and non-Ugandans, but it does not however provide information on the country of origin or detailed migration characteristics (UBOS 2018). Interviews conducted as part of a study by the ILO (2020a, pg. 24) noted that “UBOS drew attention to its need for capacity building on undertaking independent international migration surveys”.

▶ 6.3. Employment services

Employment services are believed to be one of the major conduits for job matching, enhancing employability, addressing skill mismatches, and linking support directly to employers and workers through the operation of various active labour market programmes. Nonetheless, investments in employment services need to correspond with investments in strengthening labour demand. Uganda's employment services are largely built on the belief that labour market challenges are the result of skills mismatches between the workforce available and what employers need.

Jobseeker registration and job vacancies are currently offered in public employment services, all of which is done manually and is not available electronically outside of the Kampala Capital City Authority and the MGLSD. Other services – such as career counselling, access to vocational training and the collection of labour market information – are not provided. Public employment services, career guidance services and TVET institutions play a key role in improving skills recognition and in matching labour market supply and demand. According to key informant

interviews, public employment services do not assist migrant workers in Uganda.

The MGLSD is currently expanding its employment service function to support predominantly the externalization of labour. Through licensed private employment agencies, the Government has facilitated recruitment of an estimated 150,000 Ugandan migrant workers to jobs in the United Arab Emirates, Saudi Arabia, Jordan, Bahrain, Oman, Qatar, Iraq, Somalia, Afghanistan and Mali (Office of the Auditor General 2017).

The External Employment Programme is intended to guarantee the protection of the rights of migrant workers and the promotion of their welfare. The programme is meant to address the uncoordinated and irregular movement of workers out of the country that has characterized past outbound migration. The programme seeks to establish bilateral agreements with countries that are interested in workers from Uganda. So far, three bilateral agreements have been signed with Jordan, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates. Discussions are underway with other interested countries, including Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar and Turkey.

▶ 6.4. Migrant workers

For a comprehensive overview of labour migration and mobility governance in Uganda, detailed information is provided in the parallel study An Assessment of Labour Migration and Mobility Governance in the IGAD Region. Country Report for Uganda (ILO 2020a). Certain key findings from this publication are highlighted in this section.

▶ 6.4.1. Labour market governance

According to the aforementioned ILO (2020a) study, Uganda does not have a labour migration policy, although a draft migration policy containing a section on labour

migration was developed in 2012, but not endorsed. Instead, the discussion of migrant workers in the NEP provides an indication as to how migrant workers are viewed by the Government with respect to the labour market. With regards to Ugandans going abroad, the NEP suggests that employment opportunities abroad provide short-term reprieve for Ugandans while “the country develops its capacity to generate sufficient jobs in its labour force” (Government of Uganda 2011, 32). With regards to migrant workers in Uganda, the stance is that its labour force cannot handle additional workers from abroad. However, the NEP notes that despite this, the inflow of migrant workers is likely to increase with the free movement of labour as part of the EAC.

An NEP priority area outlined under labour administration is “[d]eveloping regulations for migrant workers and providing guidance on importation of expatriate workers whose skills are available locally with a view to minimize the adverse impact on the employment for East Africans” (Government of Uganda 2011, 31). This again would suggest that migrant workers are perceived to be direct competitors for a limited number of jobs. This stance was also cited throughout interviews for this study, in which key informants (regardless of whether the informant themselves supported the notion) believed that the Government’s priority was to mitigate the negative employment impact of migrant workers on Ugandans. The rhetoric in documentation and interviews – with the exception of an acknowledgment in the draft migration policy – indicates little support for the idea that migrant workers might facilitate skill and knowledge transfers to Ugandans.

Instead, the Government’s focus with regards to migrant workers seems to be on labour externalization. For instance, in the National Development Plan II, while not explicitly indicative in order of priority, the first intervention item out of 12 interventions for the objective to “[p]romote decent employment opportunities and labour productivity” is to “[p]romote and regulate externalization of Labour”, whereby the last item out of 12 is to “[s]trengthen and enforce the legal and the regulatory framework for management of immigrant labour” (Government of Uganda 2015, table 15.2). The National Development Plan III continues in the direction of the latter point, mentioning the need to protect vulnerable migrants as a responsibility of the largest refugee hosting country in Africa, but without acknowledging the potential of an immigrant labour force (Government of Uganda 2020). Further, the Labour Advisory Board, which is the main instrument for tripartite dialogue, according to interviews undertaken for the ILO (2020a) labour migration government study, only

really discusses migrant workers in terms of outgoing Ugandans rather than migrant workers in Uganda.

As part of the Social Development Sector Plan, the target after five years was to place 5,500 Ugandans per annum in labour markets abroad, while also increasing remittances to US\$6.3million (MGLSD 2016). It is perceived that Ugandans going abroad will largely be temporary and that they will develop skills to bring back. For instance, the National Development Plan II notes that “[i]n addition to the remittances, the migrants have acquired new skills, methods of work, and experience” (Government of Uganda 2015, para. 238).

The situation for refugees working in Uganda is different from the general stance towards migrant workers. Refugees have the right to work and to self-employment under the same conditions as nationals, and upon registration, a piece of land is given to each refugee family for settlement and agricultural use (Government of Uganda 2006). The Government has also asserted that it will begin to integrate refugees more comprehensively into national development planning (UNHCR 2018).

Labour migration governance should in theory be able to support the labour market by allowing for management of the mismatches between labour supply and demand, particularly around skills. As detailed in the previous section, while there are signs of marked improvements with regards to labour market information, a consolidated database of skills is still urgently required. Moreover, there is a shortage of information on the skills composition of migrant workers in Uganda. Such information would need to feed into labour migration management. Harmonization of qualifications, curricula and accreditation across IGAD Member States would facilitate regional labour migration management.

6.4.2. Equal treatment of migrant workers

For migrant workers to contribute positively to the Ugandan labour market and as part of their integration into Ugandan society, there is a need for protection of and equal treatment of migrant workers. Uganda's Employment Act, 2006, is the main legal framework protecting labour and enforcing labour rights.

It does not specifically mention nationality or citizenship as a prohibited ground for discrimination. However, it imposes an obligation to promote and guarantee equality of opportunity for migrant workers and their family members who are legally residing in Uganda. According to the ILO (2020a) the Government is reviewing the Act to potentially extend the coverage on labour migration issues.

► Box 3. Equality of opportunity and treatment for migrant workers with nationals

Article 6(1) of the ILO Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97), provides that each Member for which this Convention is in force undertakes to apply, without discrimination in respect of nationality, race, religion or sex, to immigrants lawfully within its territory, treatment no less favourable than that which it applies to its own nationals in respect of: remuneration, membership of trade unions and rights to collective bargaining, accommodation, social security, employment taxes and legal proceedings related to matters referred to in this Convention.

Article 10 of the Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143), (Part II on Equality of Opportunity and Treatment) provides that: "Each Member for which the Convention is in force undertakes to declare and pursue a national policy designed to promote and to guarantee, by methods appropriate to national conditions and practice, equality of opportunity and treatment in respect of employment and occupation, of social security, of trade union and cultural rights and of individual and collective freedoms for persons who as migrant workers or as members of their families are lawfully within its territory."

Source: ILO Conventions Nos 97 and 143.

The Employment Act, 2006, only protects the rights of migrant workers who are legally resident in Uganda. It does not cover irregular migrants. However, the Uganda Human Rights Commission Tribunal covers human rights violations for all workers, including irregular migrant workers. For issues that do not involve a breach of human rights it is less clear as to the degree of legal recourse available to irregular migrant workers. The

Committee on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (CMW) has recommended that the Government should "strengthen its efforts to ensure that migrant workers and members of their families, including those in an irregular situation, have equal opportunities as nationals to file complaints and receive effective redress in the courts".⁸

⁸ Per a 26 April 2018 letter from the Chairperson of the CMW to Uganda's Permanent Representative to the United Nations Office, Geneva, sent as a follow-up to the 28th Session of the CMW (Reference No. CMW/followup/28/yh). Available at: https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/Treaties/CMW/Shared%20Documents/UGA/INT_CMW_FUL_UGA_30988_E.pdf.

“Migrant workers enjoy similar rights like the workers who are citizens of Uganda. This is the status once a migrant worker has regularized his/her stay in the country” – Committee on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (CMW 2015, para. 104)

The Government has not ratified the Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97), but it has ratified the Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143) (ILO n.d.-a). These Conventions are concerned with migrations in abusive conditions and the promotion of equality of opportunity and treatment of migrant workers. In the CEACR General Survey on ILO Member States’ National Law and Practice on Migrant Workers Instruments in 2016, Uganda noted that Convention No. 97 was an instrument the Government is considering for ratification, however, the main obstacle to ratification was financial (ILO 2016).

Uganda is a signatory of the 1990 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families. The UN Committee on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (CMW) supported Uganda’s efforts, underscoring that “Uganda has enacted a number of laws that secure the rights of workers generally including those with specific provisions relating to migrant workers and members of their families. These legislations have in effect incorporated the provisions of the Convention into domestic law” (CMW 2015, para. 4) and noting the efforts to engage multiple stakeholders.

6.4.3. The External Employment Programme

Given the focus on migrant workers abroad, Uganda puts the protection of these workers high on the agenda. The MGLSD is responsible for implementing the labour externalization programme in Uganda. This programme was

operationalized by the Statutory Instrument No. 62, the Employment (Recruitment of Ugandan Migrant Workers Abroad) Regulations, 2005, which also established the External Employment Unit within the MGLSD’s Employment Services Department, which is directly responsible for labour externalization.

As mentioned in the report already, there was a suspension of migration to the Middle East in 2016 as a result of reports of exploitation and abuse. This was resumed once more provisions were in place, including three new bilateral agreements. Among the other provisions that have taken place since migration resumed is the launching of the External Employment Management Information System (EEMIS). EEMIS includes a service to allow private employment agencies to apply for licences, and is designed to help monitor private employment agencies and therefore provide better protection for migrant workers who use the services of these agencies. As noted above, bilateral agreements have been made with Jordan, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates, with others being developed for Bahrain, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Qatar and Turkey (ILO 2020a). All of which are purposed to promote safe migration to these countries.

The MGLSD is responsible for the 2015 Guidelines on Recruitment and Placement of Ugandan Migrant Workers Abroad, which provides additional stipulations for the protection and treatment of Ugandan migrant workers as well as guidance on the new bilateral agreements. However, an audit of the Uganda’s labour externalization regulation noted that the “Employment (Recruitment of Ugandan Migrant Workers Abroad) Regulations, 2005 and, the Guidelines on recruitment and placement of Ugandan migrant workers abroad, 2015 were not disseminated as planned” and criticized the fact that the MGLSD were approving manpower requests from foreign employers without sufficient due diligence checks (Office of the Auditor General 2017, iv–v). Finally, the audit noted that although inspections of private employment agencies took place during the application phase, there were no further inspections following the licensing of these agencies. This was attributed to a lack of manpower allocated for these functions.

▶ 6.5. Conclusions

The evaluation that was conducted on the Government's employment strategy highlighted a number of shortfalls, including a focus on demand-side interventions but without enough support for regulatory improvements to facilitate employment growth from small- and medium-sized enterprise development and a lack of emphasis of professional management skills. As noted in the previous section, and in the findings of the Manpower Survey, the lack of management skills was identified as a hindrance to the growth of businesses. A running theme in the evaluation was the lack of implementation capacity in the Government and responsibilities that fall upon ministries, departments and agencies that do not have the capacity to fulfil these requirements. There is also the question of to what degree the National Employment Policy has been implemented at all. Accordingly, an Action Plan for Jobs would help re-consolidate the Government's efforts around jobs and could help with the reallocation of resources.

While there is emphasis on expansion and strengthening of labour market information outlined in the National Development Plan III and the Social Development Sector Plan, the targets on achieving multiple surveys per year are unlikely due to capacity constraints. The Labour Force Survey 2016/17 and Manpower Survey 2016 both had flaws that undermined the rigour of information collected. It would be more appropriate to focus on improving the quality of a smaller number of reports than to instead target more reports. Further, the quality of data collected, while of value towards evidence based policymaking, particularly the Labour Force Survey complying with 19th ICLS recommendations, seems to fall short at times in terms of quality analysis published. Publishing of the microdata is a welcome move to allow third parties to conduct analysis, and such information should be encouraged and disseminated further as appropriate.

As more frequent data collection is planned under National Development Plan III and the Social Development Sector Plan as part of

strengthening labour market information, it will be important to continue to adjust the Manpower Surveys to comply with traditional establishment surveys in order to gauge business dynamics and trends in various geographic areas of the country, both to inform and monitor private sector development policies and programmes and for the design of market-based skills development strategies. Further, data on migrant workers need to feature more prominently in a system of labour market information and analysis for comprehensive policies to be devised. Notably, the Government noted to the CEACR General Survey on Fair Migration that "the ILO could provide technical support, including capacity building for staff and enhancing cooperation, in relation to labour market information systems or data collection, management and sharing" (ILO 2016, para. 588).

Employment services are largely oriented around Ugandan migrant workers going abroad. While there are significant improvements to the licensing and monitoring of private employment agencies, which have accompanied the Government's steps to improve protection for its migrant workers abroad, there are also a number of shortcomings as identified in an audit of the Government's regulation towards labour externalization (Office of the Auditor General 2017). This includes, again, capacity constraints that prevent the fulfilment of obligations of different ministries, departments and agencies.

From data collected as part of this study, migrant workers bring benefits to the labour market, particularly in terms of skills and knowledge transfers from placement in higher-skilled occupations. However, the Ugandan policy approach towards migrant workers is largely focused on Ugandan migrant workers going abroad under its "labour externalization" programme. This approach is considering matters largely in terms of labour market functionality, as the lack of job creation for the growing population is relieved temporarily by Ugandans going abroad. Further, labour

governance is focused on the treatment of Ugandan migrant workers abroad.

Migrant workers within Uganda receive less attention in terms of labour market functionality. In terms of equality of treatment, regular migrant workers are supposedly covered by the Employment Act of 2006, although the report has shown that the coverage is not comprehensive enough with regard to labour migration issues. Part of the challenge is that Uganda does not yet

have a labour migration policy, although a process is underway to develop one, which should be developed based on appropriate and comprehensive information on migrant workers in the context of market and labour market dynamics. Against this backdrop, labour migration needs to be well governed to be beneficial for Uganda's development in the long run – that is, through flexible labour policies that target skill gaps and labour shortages.

Chapter 7

- ▶ **Conclusions and recommendations**
-

This report has presented a labour market study with a focus on labour migration from and to IGAD Member States, or more specifically on migrant workers from IGAD Member States in a labour market context. On the basis of the findings of this report, key recommendations are proposed at the strategy, policy and intervention levels. Each level of recommendation is broken down according to the responsibility of different social partners, namely Government, employers' groups and workers' groups, as well as other key stakeholders.

The labour force

The Ugandan labour force is characterized by high rates of growth, low levels of educational attainment and low-quality employment. The high share of the working-age population engaged in subsistence agriculture reflects Uganda's overall lack of progress in terms of structural development and limited capacity to transfer from low-productivity activities to higher productivity. Working poverty is rampant and those working in agriculture are highly vulnerable to unpredictable weather patterns, such a drought. While about a third of employment are in wage and salaried jobs, the vast majority of the employed (outside of agriculture) and in informal employment.

Uganda is unable to create enough jobs for its rapidly expanding and young labour force. A number of initiatives are in place to bolster key sectors, for instance as outlined in the current National Development Plan III. However, these sectors – including mining and steel and iron ore – are often selected from the primary perspective of their economic benefit, not their potential for job creation. Nonetheless, despite the capital intensity of these industries, there are job creation spillovers both in terms of production linkages (for example, steel and iron ore for the manufacturing sector) and consumption linkages, such as spending on services near large projects.

Migration abroad

Migration abroad should be a choice and not made out of desperation. In the same vein, when one decides to travel abroad, the decision should be well informed; hence the need for more sensitization of potential migrants. The Government must continue to

ensure that Ugandans traveling abroad do so through safe, orderly and regular channels. Therefore, in order to promote safe, orderly and regular migration for work abroad, a number of measures need to be put in place.

The Externalization of Labour programme remains one of the viable ways to gainfully engage the energies of the youth until the economy develops the capacity to create sufficient jobs for the more than 500,000 people that enter the labour market annually. The findings reveal that there is still a manpower gap to effectively handle the processes of the Externalization of Labour programme. Of particular concern is the inadequate requisite financial resources allocated to the programme despite its accrued benefits.

Migrant workers in Uganda

Migrant workers are commonplace in Uganda and feature both in formal and informal sector establishments. The sample analysed as part of this study found that their education and skills composition was higher on average than the Ugandan labour force. However, the sample was focused on IGAD migrant workers only and is therefore not representative of migrant workers in Uganda in general. According to key informants, for instance, and work permit data, migrants from South Asia and China were commonplace, especially working for foreign-owned businesses and in higher-skilled occupations.

Creating decent jobs in Uganda

Jobs at home is the number one priority. This entails creating the necessary conditions in Uganda to ensure that sustainable livelihoods are available for the country's citizens. With the necessary infrastructure, supportive legislation and requisite investments, jobs can be created at home. This will significantly contribute to addressing the root causes and the adverse drivers that compel people to leave their countries and to the realization of the Sustainable Development Goals. In other words, by creating more decent local jobs, migration for employment should become a secondary option. A number of labour market rigidities work against job-rich growth, such that the potential of different sectors to create the needed decent jobs has to be unlocked.

Agriculture is likely to remain a key source of jobs for the medium to long term. Initiatives to improve the productivity of the sector are outlined in the National Development Plan, but major constraints in the sector, including widespread subsistence activities are likely to continue to hamper the shift to more value-added activities. Nonetheless, focus on cash crops and productivity-enhancing inputs can start to raise incomes and facilitate both greater food security along with value-added growth.

Other growth sectors include tourism and ICT, which can both serve to bolster employment creation in services. Growth in tourism is already contributing to significant job creation, and the Manpower Survey 2016 noted that just over half of employers and 60 per cent of employees in formal sector enterprises were using ICT in the workplace, though the share was lower for the public sector. Manufacturing growth has significant potential for job creation, but improvements in the business environment are needed to facilitate entrepreneurship and the ease of doing business.

Access to finance is a recurrent theme in terms of obstacles in the business environment. Other challenges include insufficient skills in the labour force to meet the expansion needs of businesses. While migrant workers

already play an important role in businesses, particularly in higher-skilled occupations, there is a seeming disconnect between policies towards migrant workers (see Chapter 6) and their potential value for the labour market in terms of job creation and skills transfer.

Strategic recommendation 1: Develop a National Employment and Jobs Strategy.

A running theme in an evaluation that was conducted on the Government's employment strategy was the lack of implementation capacity in the Government, including the inability of ministries, departments and agencies to fulfil the responsibilities and requirements that are placed upon them due to capacity constraints. There is also the question of to what degree the 2011 National Employment Policy has been implemented at all. Accordingly, a strategy on job promotion and job creation would help re-consolidate the Government's efforts around jobs and could help with the reallocation of resources. The first recommendation would therefore be to develop and adopt a National Employment and Jobs Strategy which would update and effectively operationalize Uganda's National Employment Policy.

Recommended action	Anticipated benefit	Relevant bodies
<p>POLICY: Develop and adopt a National Employment and Jobs Strategy, in support of the National Employment Policy and in line with a labour migration policy.</p>	<p>Inputs from all social partners and external stakeholders are necessary to ensure that government investments towards employment and job creation are targeted to the areas with the greatest potential return in terms of jobs creation and employment, including around migrant workers.</p>	<p>Government in a tripartite-plus setting</p>

Recommended action	Anticipated benefit	Relevant bodies
POLICY: Appoint a centralized ministry, department or agency responsible for coordinating and monitoring the National Employment and Jobs Strategy.	This will help ensure there is clarity on which entities are responsible for implementing various components of the strategy; ensure that progress in implementing the strategy and achieving targeted outcomes is clear to all stakeholders; and ensure that entities are held accountable against measurable and transparent objectives.	Government
INTERVENTION: Collect information on the labour and skills needs of the private sector, including on migrant workers.	Ensure that National Employment and Jobs Strategy is responding to labour demand in the economy.	Government with employers' and workers' groups

Strategic recommendation 2: Support statistics, research and analysis on migrant workers in Uganda's labour market.

While there is emphasis on expansion and strengthening of labour market information outlined in the National Development Plan III and the Social Development Sector Plan, the targets on achieving multiple surveys per year are unlikely due to capacity constraints. The Labour Force Survey 2016/17 and Manpower Survey 2016 both had flaws that undermined the rigour of information collected. It would be more appropriate to focus on improving

the quality of a fewer number of reports than to instead target more reports.

Further, data on migrant workers needs to feature more prominently in a system of labour market information and analysis in order for comprehensive policies to be devised. Notably, the Government noted to the CEACR General Survey on Fair Migration that "the ILO could provide technical support, including capacity building for staff and enhancing cooperation, in relation to labour market information systems or data collection, management and sharing" (ILO 2016, para. 588).

Recommended action	Anticipated benefit	Relevant bodies
POLICY: Make more explicit and effective the data collection and analysis on migrant workers in National Development Plans.	To better inform and monitor evidence-based and harmonized employment and labour migration policies to tackle the employment and jobs challenge and to support Uganda's inclusive structural transformation towards higher productivity.	Government
POLICY: Establish the design of a labour statistics framework to capture key information on migrant workers.	To capture information on migrant worker flows and characteristics for the benefit of evidence-based policymaking.	All social partners (led by UBOS)

Recommended action	Anticipated benefit	Relevant bodies
POLICY: Provide technical expert advice and support to the improvement of labour market information and analysis, particularly around migrant worker data.	To help ensure compliance with international standards and international best practice, for the improvement of labour market information and analysis.	Government and other stakeholders
INTERVENTION: Incorporate a labour migration module into the Labour Force Survey.	To allow for identification of migrant workers' countries of origin as well as a more comprehensive set of statistics and information.	Government
INTERVENTION: Support the systematic sharing of information on migrant workers.	Private employment agencies focused on placements overseas provide an indication as to labour market demand for workers abroad and can capture important information on migrant worker profiles, including motivations. Workers' groups may also have information on migrant workers as well as information on the impact of migrant workers in Uganda, including around skills transfer.	Employers' groups and workers' groups
INTERVENTION: Encourage, facilitate and disseminate third party research on migrant workers and their analysis.	Other key stakeholders, particularly those working with migrant workers should disseminate and share findings in the public sphere to allow for improvements and changes to be made to labour migration governance.	Other stakeholders

Strategic recommendation 3: Adjust and redesign labour market governance mechanisms to better incorporate migrant workers.

Employment services are largely oriented around Ugandan migrant workers going abroad. While there have been significant improvements to licensing and monitoring of private employment agencies, which have accompanied the Government's steps to improve protection of its migrant workers abroad, there are also a number of shortcomings as identified in an audit of the Government's regulation towards labour externalization. This includes, again, capacity constraints that prevent the fulfilment of the obligations of different ministries, departments and agencies.

From data collected as part of this assignment, migrant workers bring benefits to the labour market, particularly in terms of skills and knowledge transfers from placement in higher-skilled occupations. However, the Ugandan policy approach towards migrant workers is largely focused on Ugandan migrant workers going abroad under its "labour externalization" programme. This approach operates in terms of labour market functionality, as the lack of job creation for the growing population is relieved temporarily by Ugandans going abroad. Labour governance is also focused on migrant workers' treatment abroad. Migrant workers within Uganda receive less attention both in terms of labour market functionality and protection of migrant workers, although Uganda is known for treating migrant workers, including refugees,

relatively well, as the high share of long-term migrant workers with regular status shows (figure 1). Part of the challenge is the lack of a labour migration policy, but Uganda has started a process towards developing such a policy, which should be developed based on appropriate and comprehensive information

on migrant workers in the context of market and labour market dynamics. Against this backdrop, labour migration needs to be well governed to be beneficial for Uganda's development in the long run – that is, through flexible labour policies that target skill gaps and labour shortages.

Recommended action	Anticipated benefit	Relevant bodies
<p>POLICY: Embed the integration and protection of migrant workers into the national development agenda.</p>	<p>Integrating labour migration policies into the Ugandan employment/job agenda should support long-term labour force dynamics without negatively affecting national workers. Migrant worker integration and protection should not only be seen as part of general migration policies that tend to focus on the legalization of migration flows.</p>	<p>Government in tripartite setting</p>
<p>POLICY: Ratify and comply with the Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97). This will entail developing an appropriate labour migration policy (see ILO 2020a for recommendations in this regard).</p>	<p>To help align rights and policies for migrant workers with international best practice and ILO Recommendations. Through dialogue, social partners have a responsibility to draw on international best practice as well to highlight sectoral priority areas to ensure their inclusion and reflection in labour market governance and to ensure that policies are perceived by all social partners as efficient, equitable and fair, including for migrant workers.</p>	<p>Government in tripartite setting</p>
<p>INTERVENTION: Provide sufficient resources for labour inspections of migrant worker workplaces and cooperate with inspections.</p>	<p>Ensure compliance with labour market governance around migrant workers, including enhancing the capacity for labour inspections of migrant worker workplaces, and ensuring that relevant actors have sufficient resources and capacity to ensure compliance with legislation and regulations.</p>	<p>All social partners and other stakeholders</p>

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► Appendix I. List of key informants

No.	Position and/or organization	Location
1	Labour Officer – Kampala Capital City Authority	Kampala
2	Director of Field Operations – Resilient African Network	Kampala
3	Head of External Employment Unit – Ministry of Gender Labour and Social Development	Kampala
4	Director, Research and Trainings – National Organization of Trade Unions	Kampala
5	Manager – Centenary Bank	Kampala
6	Technical Assistant to the Ugandan Ambassador in Saudi Arabia	Kampala
7	Engineer – Ministry of Works, Transport and Public Infrastructure	Kampala
8	Foreign Service Officer – Ministry of Foreign Affairs	Kampala
9	Chairman – United Somali Community Uganda	Kampala
10	Branch Manager – Commercial Bank of Africa	Kampala
11	Administrative Officer – One Health East and Central Africa	Kampala
12	Economist – Ministry of Information and Communications Technology and National Guidance	Kampala
13	Lecturer Economist – Uganda Christian University Mukono	Kampala
14	Principle Labour Officer – Ministry of Gender Labour and Social Development	Kampala
15	Director, Monitoring and Evaluation and Learning – Private Education Development Network	Kampala
16	Managing Director – Impact Recruitment Uganda Agency Ltd.	Kampala
17	Branch Manager – Barclays Bank	Kampala
18	Head of Department of Partnership and Resource Mobilization – Uganda National Farmers Federation	Kampala
19	Community leader – Kisingiri	Kampala
20	Foreign Service Officer and Assistant Registrar – Ministry of Foreign Affairs	Kampala
21	Manager – Linkage International Recruitment Agency	Kampala
22	Manager – Kampala Serena Hotel	Kampala
23	Lawyer – BKA&CO Advocates	Kampala
24	Department of Policy and Development Economics, Makerere University	Kampala
25	Board of Governors, Bank of Uganda	Kampala

26	Coordinator of Uganda's Parliamentary Forum on Youth Affairs	Kampala
27	Employment Relations Officer – Federation of Employers	Kampala
28	Communications Officer – Ministry of Lands	Kampala
29	Executive Director – Uganda Association of External Recruitment Agencies	Kampala
30	Senior Human Resource Manager – Crown Beverages Uganda LTD.	Kampala
31	Underwriter Assistant – Jubilee Insurance	Kampala
32	Executive Director – Uganda Federation of Employers	Kampala
33	National Coordination for the Prevention of Human Trafficking, Ministry of Internal Affairs	Kampala
34	Finance and Administration, United Nations Service Centre	Kampala
35	Commissioner, Economics Department – Ministry of East Africa Community Affairs	Kampala
36	Director, Monitoring and Evaluation – Catholic Relief Services Uganda	Kampala
37	Commissioner, Policy Development and Capacity Building – Office of the President	Kampala
38	Economist – Parliament of the Republic of Uganda	Kampala
39	Operations Manager – Makere University Private Sector Forum	Kampala
40	Chairperson – National Youth Council	Kampala

► Appendix II. Quantitative interview questionnaire

The following questionnaire is consistent with the 19th ICLS resolution on statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization and the 20th ICLS statistical guideline on labour migration. It seeks to capture the nature of

labour migration between IGAD countries, and collects information on the characteristics of migrant workers and their labour force status.

► Module 1 - Socio-economic characteristics of labour migrants

<p>OBJECTIVES AND SCOPE Covers basic demographics on sex, age, marital status, education level, field of study and current educational attainment of migrant workers</p>
<p>IMPLEMENTATION NOTES The module should be asked to pre-selected migrant workers regardless of labour force status. The module should be asked to migrant workers 15 years old and over.</p>
A01 Full Name
<p>A02 Marital Status 1=Single 2=Married 3=Divorced 4=Widowed</p>
<p>A03 Sex 1 Male 2 Female</p>
A04 How old are you currently? (Record age in completed years or estimated years)
<p>A05 What is your highest level of educational attainment (finalized education level)</p> <p>1=No formal education 2= Primary education 3=Lower secondary education (O-level) 4= Upper secondary education (A- level) 5= Post-secondary (TVET and TVET college) 6= Tertiary education (University) 7= Other (Specify)</p>
A06 Did you study in a public institution? Yes/No
A07 Did you learn any specialized trade or profession? Yes/No
<p>A08 What type of trade or profession did you learn? Specify (e.g. Driver, electrician, doctors, teacher)</p> <p>..... ISCO</p> <p>CODE</p>

<p>C09. Do you benefit from paid sick leave in case of illness or injury? 1=Yes 2=No 3= Do not know</p>
<p>C10. Was your main activity carried out in...? (READ) 1= Government (federal, state, local) 2= State owned enterprise 3=Private business or farm 4= International org., foreign embassy 5=Others</p>
<p>C11. Is the enterprise/business where you work? (READ) 1= An incorporated company 2= An independent, personal family business 3= Do not know</p>
<p>C12. Is the enterprise/business where you worked registered with (relevant authority)? 1=Yes 2=In the process of being registered 3=No 4=Do not know</p>
<p>C13. Does the business keep a book of accounts (assets and expenditures)? 1=Yes 2=No 3= Do not know</p>
<p>C14. How many persons, including the owner, work at your place of work? 1= 1 persons 2= 1-4 persons 3= 5-9 persons 4= 10-19 persons 5= 20-49 persons 6= 50+</p>
<p>C15. In what type of place do you usually work? 1=At home 2=Structure attached to the home 3= At the client/employer's home 4= At an office, shop factory, or other fixed place of work 5= Fixed stall in market/mobile 6= Land, forest, sea, ... 7=Without fixed location/mobile 8= Construction site 9= Other (specify)</p>
<p>C16. How long have you worked for this employer/in this business? 1= Less than 6 months 2= 6 months to less than 1 year 3= 1 year to less than 3 years 4= 3 years to less than 5 years 5= 5 years or more</p>
<p>C17. What is the net daily/weekly/monthly earnings of (NAME) from his/her business or activity? (Please round up and specify currency unit) C16a=Daily C16b= Weekly C16c= Monthly</p>

Module 4- Nature of labour migration

OBJECTIVE AND SCOPE

To capture international migration status

Captures basic essential characteristics needed to identify the foreign-born and foreign populations in the country of destination. This includes: country of birth, date of last arrival to country of current residence, reason for move, and country of citizenship.

It allows distinction between recent and long-term international migrants.

The module covers also transit migration, short-term -, circular, and irregular migration.

The module does not cover internal migration and returnees.

IMPLEMENTATION NOTES

Aligned with the latest 20th ICLS guidelines concerning international labour migration

Aligned with the recommendations included in the Handbook on Measuring International Migration through Population Censuses (UN 2017).

The module should be asked to labour migrants 15 years old and over.

D01 In which country were you born? (please specify)

NAME OF COUNTRY

CODE OF COUNTRY

D02 What is the country of your citizenship/nationality (please specify)? If you have dual citizenship please name both countries

D02a=Country 1.....

D02b=country 2.....

D03 What is your current resident status in this country?

1=Non-usual resident⁹ (short-term business) (e.g. frontier workers, seasonal workers, other short-term migrant workers, volunteer workers and nomads)

a=Yes b=No

2=Usual residents¹⁰ but have no official documentation of residence a=Yes b=No

3=Usual resident a=Yes b=No

D04 In what month and year did you [did NAME] leave your country of birth?

Interviewer: Use 2 digits for the month and 4 digits for the year; Record 00 if the month is unknown

D04a= Month: MM

D04b=Year: YYYY

D05 In which month and year did (you/NAME) most recently arrive to live in [COUNTRY]?

MONTH YEAR

97=DONT KNOW 9997=DON'T KNOW

⁹ Less than 6-months

¹⁰ More than 6-months

▶ Appendix III. Key informant semi-structured interview template

The following key informant interview guide was provided to field researchers conducting interviews with government officials, non-governmental organizations and relevant stakeholders from international organizations

(such as the IOM) and others, for capturing information specifically around the legal framework for labour migration, perspectives towards migrant labour rights from a policy perspective, and other information.

INFORMATION TO BE CAPTURED
▶ Perspectives on labour migration trends
▶ Legal framework and structural arrangements
▶ Perspectives on labour migration management
▶ Perspectives around rights of migrant workers
A01 Full Name and position in organization
A02 Please briefly outline the characteristics and trends of labour migration as well as the positive and negative impacts of labour migration in your country. Is your country a country of destination, origin or both?
A03 What is the most common type of labour migration in your country (in and outbound). For example, circular migration, seasonal migration, long-term, qualified workers or low skilled workers migration? [field researcher to explain the difference as needed]
A04 What do you think are the main driving forces of labour migration? (past, present and future)
A05 Does your country have bilateral or regional labour migration agreements/schemes? Please briefly outline its content and purpose.
A06 What are the priorities of the national policy concerning labour migration in your country?
A07 What is the main legal framework for labour migration management (governance) in your country. If possible, please also present the background to the existing legislation in terms of labour needs, employment/job creation, and political/historical linkages to other countries
A08 Are migrant workers and the general population treated any differently in your country?
A09 Do you think it is necessary to have provisions or a system in place to allow migrant workers to have equivalent or equal treatment to workers from the general population? If so, how would you ensure equal treatment of migrant workers?
A10 Are there international agreements (or other forms of cooperation) on rights of labour migrants has your country concluded with other IGAD countries?
A11 What are the roles of the national employment services (or equivalent bodies) and private recruitment agencies (if existent) in the process of migrant employment?
A12 What are the challenges in your current local content laws that would require adjustments to promote labour mobility?
END OF INTERVIEW:

► Appendix IV. Glossary of terms

Bilateral labour agreements refer to agreements between two entities which create legally binding rights and obligations governed by international law and are usually more specific and action-oriented, non-binding memoranda of understanding which set out a broad framework of cooperation to address common concerns, as well as other arrangements, including between specific government ministries or agencies in destination and origin countries.¹¹

Domestic worker refers to a person engaged in domestic work within an employment relationship. A person who performs domestic work only occasionally or sporadically and not on an occupational basis is not a domestic worker.¹²

Employment by education refers to those in employment by level of educational attainment, which is classified according to International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) levels, namely: less than primary education (ISCED level 0); primary education (ISCED level 1); secondary education (ISCED levels 2 and 3); and tertiary education (ISCED levels 5 to 8).¹³

Employment by occupation refers to employed persons classified according to the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO).

Employment by sector refers to employed persons classified according to the International Standard Industry Classification (ISIC), Revision 3.

Employment by skill level refers to employed persons classified according to low (skill level 1), medium (skill level 2) and high (skill levels 3 and 4) skill levels that correspond to ISCO guidelines.

Employment in the informal economy refers to those employed in the informal sector and those in informal employment (that is, it also includes informal employment outside of the informal sector).

Employment in the informal sector (informal enterprises): According to the international standards adopted by the 15th ICLS, the informal sector consists of units engaged in the production of goods or services with the primary objective of generating employment and incomes to the persons concerned. The informal sector is a subset of unincorporated enterprises not constituted as separate legal entities independently of their owners. They are owned by individual household members or several members of the same or different households. Typically, they are operating at a low level of organization, on a small scale and with little or no division between labour and capital as factors of production.¹⁴

Forced labour refers to all work or service which is exacted from any person under the menace of any penalty and for which the said person has not offered himself voluntarily.¹⁵

Informal employment: The concept of informal employment refers to jobs as observation units. In the case of own-account workers and employers, the informal employment status of the job is determined by the informal sector nature of the enterprise. Thus, own-account workers (without hired workers) operating an informal enterprise are classified as in informal employment. Similarly, employers (with hired workers) operating an informal enterprise are classified as in informal employment. All contributing family workers are classified as having informal employment, irrespective of whether they work in formal or informal sector enterprises.¹⁶

11 ILO, Addressing Governance Challenges in a Changing Labour Migration Landscape, ILC.106/IV (2017), para. 68.

12 ILO Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189), Article 1(b–c).

13 UNESCO Institute for Statistics, International Classification of Education 2011, 2012.

14 ILO, Women and Men in the Informal Economy: A Statistical Picture, 2018, box 2.

15 ILO Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29), Article 2(1).

16 ILO, Women and Men in the Informal Economy: A Statistical Picture, 2018, box 2.

Irregular migrant worker refers to a migrant worker considered to be in an irregular situation or non-documented situation if they are unauthorized to enter, to stay and to engage in a remunerated activity in the State of employment pursuant to the law of that State and to international agreement to which that State is a party.¹⁷

Labour force refers to the current supply of labour for the production of goods and services in exchange for pay or profit.

Labour mobility refers to temporary or short-term movements of persons for employment-related purposes, particularly in the context of the free movement of workers in regional economic communities.¹⁸

Labour underutilization refers to mismatches between labour supply and demand, which translate into an unmet need for employment among the population. Measures of labour underutilization include, but may not be restricted to, time-related unemployment, unemployment and the potential labour force.

Less than primary education: Less than primary education (ISCED-A level 0) refers to a broad level of educational attainment covering no participation in education, some participation in early childhood education and/or some participation in primary education.

Migrant worker or international migrant worker refers to all persons of working age (in this case, those aged 15+) present in the country of measurement, who were during the specified reference period in one of the following two categories:

- i. Usual residents: International migrants who were in the labour force of the country of their usual residence, either in employment or in unemployment; or
- ii. Not usual residents (or “non-resident foreign workers”): Persons who, during a specified reference period, were not usual residents of the country but were present in the country and had labour attachment to the country, that is, were either in employment supplying labour to resident producer units of that country

or were seeking employment in that country.

Given the primary data collection element of this study, the definition is in line with the 20th ICLS Guidelines Concerning Statistics for International Labour Migration.

Mixed migration lacks a standard definition however the principal characteristics of mixed migration flows include the multiplicity of factors driving such movements and the differentiated needs and motivations of the persons involved. Many migration streams include people who are on the move for different reasons but share the same routes or modes of travel. They may include refugees, asylum-seekers, forcibly displaced persons, smuggled persons, economic migrants, victims of human trafficking and stranded migrants. People may also move between these categories during the course of their migration. Increasing recognition of these complex migration dynamics has led to the rise of the notion of “mixed migration”.¹⁹

Permanent migrant refers to a person who enters with the right of permanent residence or with a visa or permit which is indefinitely renewable. Permanent immigrants would generally include marriage immigrants, family members of permanent residents, refugees, certain labour migrants, etc.²⁰

Persons in employment are defined as all those of working age who, during a short reference period, were engaged in any activity to produce goods or provide services for pay or profit.

Persons in time-related underemployment are defined as all persons in employment who, during a short reference period, wanted to work additional hours, whose working time in all jobs was less than a specified hours threshold, and who were available to work additional hours given an opportunity for more work.

Persons in unemployment are defined as all those of working age who were not in employment, carried out activities to seek employment during a specified recent period, and were currently available to take up employment given a job opportunity.

17 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, Article 5.

18 ILO, Addressing Governance Challenges in a Changing Labour Migration Landscape, ILC.106/IV (2017), para. 6, footnote 8.

19 ILO, “Media-Friendly Glossary on Migration: Middle East Edition”.

20 ILO, “Media-Friendly Glossary on Migration: Middle East Edition”.

Persons outside the labour force are those of working age who were neither in employment nor in unemployment in the short reference period.

Potential labour force refers to persons not in employment who express an interest in this form of work but for whom existing conditions limit their active job search and/or their availability.

Primary education: Primary education (ISCED level 1) provides learning and educational activities typically designed to provide students with fundamental skills in reading, writing and mathematics (that is, literacy and numeracy) and establish a solid foundation for learning and understanding core areas of knowledge and personal development, preparing learners for lower secondary education. It focuses on learning at a basic level of complexity with little, if any, specialization.

Private employment agencies refer to any private individual or enterprise (that is, independent of the public authorities) which provides one or more of the following labour market services: (i) services for matching offers of and applications for employment; (ii) services consisting of employing workers with a view to making them available to a third party; or (iii) other services relating to jobseeking.²¹

Public employment services are usually the primary government institution responsible for implementing a variety of active labour market programmes including the provision of career guidance and labour exchange services. The basic mandate of Public Employment Services is to facilitate the adjustment of firms and workers to changing labour market conditions.²²

Recruitment agencies are used for the purpose of this report synonymously with the term “labour recruiter”, and refer to both public employment services and to

private employment agencies and all other intermediaries or subagents that offer labour recruitment and placement services. Labour recruiters can take many forms, whether for profit or non-profit, or operating within or outside legal and regulatory frameworks.²³

Refugee refers to someone who has been forced to flee his or her country because of persecution, war or violence. A refugee has a well-founded fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, political opinion or membership in a particular social group. A person is an asylum-seeker until they are determined to be a refugee in accordance with national and international law.²⁴

Seasonal worker refers to a migrant worker whose work by its character is dependent on seasonal conditions and is performed only during certain part of the year.²⁵

Secondary education: Secondary education (ISCED levels 2 and 3) provides learning and educational activities building on primary education and preparing for labour market entry, post-secondary non-tertiary education, and tertiary education. Broadly speaking, secondary education aims at learning at an intermediate level of complexity. ISCED distinguishes between lower and upper secondary education.

Smuggling of migrants is defined as the procurement, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit, of the illegal entry of a person into a State Party of which the person is not a national or a permanent resident.²⁶

Status in employment refers to employed persons classified according to the International Standard Classification of Employment (ISCE)-93 as either an employee, employer, own-account worker, contributing family worker or member of producer’s cooperative or employee, depending on the characteristics of the job.

21 Adapted from Private Employment Agencies Convention, 1997 (No. 181), Article 1.

22 ILO, “Public Employment Services”.

23 ILO General Principles and Operational Guidelines for Fair Recruitment.

24 UN Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, 1951; see also ILO, Background Paper and Draft ILO Guiding Principles for Discussion at the ILO Tripartite Technical Meeting on the Access of Refugees and Other Forcible Displaced Persons to the Labour Market, TMARLM/2016 (2016).

25 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, Article 2(1)

26 Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, Supplementing the United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organised Crime, Article 3(a).

Temporary migrant refers to a person of foreign nationality who enters a country with a visa or who receives a permit which is either not renewable or only renewable on a limited basis. Temporary immigrants are seasonal workers, international students, service providers, persons on international exchange, etc.²⁷

Tertiary education: Tertiary education (ISCED levels 5 to 8) builds on secondary education, providing learning activities in specialized fields of education. It aims at learning at a high level of complexity and specialization. Tertiary education includes what is commonly

understood as academic education but also includes advanced vocational or professional education.

Trafficking in persons is defined as the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation.²⁸

27 OAS and OECD, *International Migration in the Americas: Third Report of the Continuous Reporting System on International Migration in the Americas (SICREMI)*, 2015, 3; ILO, *Addressing Governance Challenges in a Changing Labour Migration Landscape*, ILC.106/IV (2017), para. 21

28 Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organised Crime, Article 3(a)



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