

Artificial Intelligence and the Transformation of Legal Education in Uganda: Opportunities, Challenges, and Policy Imperatives

Keith Busingye*, Dr. Habiba Njeri Ngugi

Department of Computing, AI & Data Science, King Caesar University, Kampala, Uganda

*Corresponding Author

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ABSTRACT

Artificial Intelligence (AI) is increasingly reshaping legal education globally, yet Uganda's law faculties remain anchored in doctrinal, lecturer-centered pedagogy with limited institutional engagement with AI-driven tools. This article examines how AI, including automated legal research platforms, AI-assisted drafting, virtual moot court simulations, and adaptive learning systems, is altering the teaching and practice of law in Uganda, and assesses the country's legal and institutional readiness for this transformation. Using a doctrinal and comparative policy analysis approach now strengthened by a mixed-methods empirical component combining a stratified stakeholder survey with embedded case-study interviews the study reviews Uganda's existing legal framework, including the 1995 Constitution, the Data Protection and Privacy Act, the Computer Misuse Act, and the Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act, to identify the extent to which current law addresses AI use in education. The article finds that while these instruments offer partial and indirect regulation, Uganda lacks a dedicated AI-in-education policy, leaving significant gaps in governance around academic integrity, data privacy, ethical accountability, and digital inequality. Drawing on comparative experience from the United Kingdom, the United States, and Kenya examined here not only for policy design but for documented outcomes and unresolved challenges the article identifies practical lessons for curriculum reform and institutional governance that are contextually relevant to Uganda. The article concludes that Uganda's legal education sector should not resist AI integration but must regulate it deliberately, through a national AI-in-education policy, curriculum reform incorporating legal technology and AI ethics, institutional AI governance frameworks, capacity building for legal educators, and regulatory guidance from the Law Council of Uganda. These measures are necessary to safeguard academic integrity, equitable access, and the analytical rigor expected of future legal professionals in an increasingly automated educational environment.

Keywords: Artificial Intelligence; Legal Education; Uganda; Data Protection; AI Governance; Legal Technology; Mixed-Methods

INTRODUCTION

The advancement of Artificial Intelligence (AI) has significantly transformed the landscape of higher education worldwide. AI systems, particularly generative AI tools such as ChatGPT, intelligent tutoring systems, automated legal analytics, and machine-learning-driven legal research engines, are increasingly redefining how law is taught, researched, and practiced. In legal education, these tools challenge traditional pedagogical models by introducing efficiency, accessibility, and data-driven learning.

Uganda's legal education system, however, remains heavily anchored in doctrinal teaching, case law analysis, and lecturer centered pedagogy. The emergence of AI presents both a disruption and an opportunity. Institutions such as Law Development Centre and law faculties across Ugandan universities face an urgent need to reconsider the methods by which legal reasoning, research, and advocacy skills are imparted.

This article examines how AI is reshaping legal education in Uganda, assesses the legal and institutional preparedness for this transformation, and proposes policy reforms necessary to regulate and optimize AI

integration. To move beyond doctrinal assertion, the article also reports a mixed-methods empirical design intended to test — rather than merely illustrate — the claims advanced in the sections that follow.

Conceptualising Artificial Intelligence In Legal Education

Artificial Intelligence refers to computer systems capable of performing tasks that ordinarily require human intelligence, including reasoning, learning, problem solving, and language processing. Within legal education, AI applications include:

- i. Automated legal research
- ii. Case prediction analytics
- iii. AI-assisted legal drafting
- iv. Virtual moot court simulations
- v. Adaptive personalized learning

Globally, universities increasingly deploy AI tools to improve legal pedagogy. For instance, AI-powered platforms now assist students in analyzing case law, generating legal arguments, and summarizing statutes.

In Uganda, AI use remains largely informal, with students independently utilizing tools like ChatGPT without clear institutional regulation.

The Legal And Policy Framework Governing Ai In Uganda

Uganda currently lacks a dedicated Artificial Intelligence Act. Nevertheless, several legal instruments indirectly regulate AI use in education.

The 1995 Constitution of the Republic of Uganda (As Amended)

Article 30 guarantees the right to education, while Article 27 protects privacy. These provisions become relevant where AI systems process student data or influence educational outcomes.

The constitutional obligation to ensure equitable education means AI deployment must not exacerbate inequalities.

The Data Protection and Privacy Act Cap 97

The Data Protection and Privacy Act Cap 97 is Uganda's most significant legislation relevant to AI. It regulates collection, storage, and processing of personal data and establishes principles of lawful processing, consent, transparency, and accountability.

AI systems in legal education frequently collect student data, including performance analytics and learning behaviours. Such data processing must comply with this Act.

This creates direct implications for universities deploying AI-driven learning management systems.

The Computer Misuse Act Cap 96

The Computer Misuse Act 96 criminalizes unauthorized access, misuse of digital systems, and malicious communication. AI misuse in academic settings, such as using AI for examination malpractice, may trigger liability under this law.

Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act Cap 262

The Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act Cap 262 regulates higher education standards. However, it has not yet incorporated AI governance mechanisms, exposing a regulatory gap.

National ICT Policy Framework

Uganda's Ministry of ICT has increasingly embraced AI as part of digital transformation efforts, including strategic partnerships to advance AI innovation nationally. However, these initiatives have not yet translated into specific educational AI policy frameworks.

Opportunities Presented By Ai In Legal Education

Enhanced Legal Research

AI significantly improves legal research efficiency. Traditional legal research in Uganda often depends on manual case law review, particularly using databases like Uganda Legal Information Institute.

AI-powered systems can:

- i. summarize judgments,
- ii. identify precedents,
- iii. map jurisprudential trends.

This enhances student exposure to broader legal authorities.

Personalized Learning

AI adaptive systems tailor legal content to individual learning styles, allowing students to revisit difficult concepts such as constitutional interpretation, statutory construction, and jurisprudence.

This is particularly beneficial in Uganda where lecturer-student ratios remain high.

Expanded Access to Legal Knowledge

AI democratizes legal knowledge by making legal content more accessible to students outside urban centers such as Kampala.

Students in regional universities can now access legal explanations comparable to those available in elite institutions.

Simulation Based Advocacy Training

AI can create virtual moot court systems and negotiation environments, allowing law students to practice advocacy skills interactively.

This is critical in preparing students for practical training at the Law Development Centre.

Challenges And Risks

Academic Integrity and Plagiarism

The most immediate challenge is plagiarism. AI can generate essays, legal opinions, and research papers, undermining originality.

Ugandan universities currently lack comprehensive AI plagiarism policies.

This threatens academic standards.

Overreliance and Erosion of Critical Thinking

Legal education depends heavily on analytical reasoning. Excessive AI dependence risks reducing students' ability to independently interpret statutes and case law.

Lawyers must reason not merely generate answers.

Digital Inequality

The adoption of Artificial Intelligence in legal education risks deepening existing socio-economic inequalities within Uganda's education system. Access to AI-powered tools is highly uneven, particularly between urban and rural institutions. Many law students in Uganda continue to face challenges such as:

- i. unstable internet connectivity,
- ii. limited access to electricity in some regions,
- iii. lack of modern digital devices such as laptops and smartphones,
- iv. high internet costs, and
- v. inadequate AI literacy and digital competence.

This disparity creates a significant equity challenge. Students in well-resourced institutions such as Makerere University, King Ceasor University or Uganda Christian University may enjoy better technological exposure compared to students in smaller or rural universities.

The constitutional principle of equal educational opportunity under the Constitution of the Republic of Uganda may therefore be undermined if AI integration proceeds without inclusive access strategies. In the long term, this could widen professional competency gaps among future lawyers and create unequal participation in Uganda's legal profession.

Data Privacy Risks

Artificial Intelligence systems rely heavily on the collection, storage, and processing of vast amounts of personal and institutional data. In legal education, this may include student essays, examination scripts, research notes, personal identification data, and confidential legal simulations.

A major concern arises because many popular AI tools are hosted on servers outside Uganda, creating serious jurisdictional and regulatory complications. This raises compliance concerns under the Data Protection and Privacy Act, particularly regarding:

- i. lawful processing of personal data,
- ii. informed consent,
- iii. data minimization, and
- iv. cross-border transfer of personal information.

The absence of clear institutional data governance policies may expose universities and students to privacy breaches, unauthorized data sharing, and misuse of academic content. Furthermore, legal education often deals with sensitive hypothetical or real-life legal facts, making confidentiality an even more pressing concern.

This calls for stronger institutional safeguards and clearer legal standards governing educational AI systems.

Ethical Accountability

One of the most complex legal questions raised by AI in legal education concerns accountability. Where an AI system generates inaccurate legal analysis, fabricated case law, or misleading statutory interpretations, determining responsibility becomes difficult.

Several actors may potentially bear responsibility:

- i. the student who relied on the output,
- ii. the lecturer who permitted its use,
- iii. the university that adopted the technology, or
- iv. the software developer who designed the AI system.

This uncertainty creates serious ethical concerns in professional legal training because law demands precision, responsibility, and intellectual honesty. If students become over-reliant on AI without understanding legal reasoning, they may graduate with weak analytical skills.

Ugandan legal and educational policy currently remains largely silent on this issue, creating a regulatory vacuum. There is therefore a pressing need to establish clear ethical frameworks defining acceptable AI reliance and assigning responsibility where harm or academic misconduct occurs.

Empirical Validation: A Mixed-Methods Study

Responding to peer review, this section upgrades the article's empirical component from a single-group survey concept into a full mixed-methods design. The study now triangulates quantitative survey data across three respondent groups — students, lecturers, and administrators — with qualitative case-study interviews, and uses both strands to interrogate, rather than merely illustrate, the doctrinal claims advanced in Sections 2, 5, and 7. A revised comparative section (5A.5) further moves Section 6 of the article from a descriptive account of other jurisdictions toward a critical evaluation of measurable outcomes and challenges.

Mixed-Methods Design

Overall design: A convergent mixed-methods design (QUAN + QUAL), in which a structured survey is administered concurrently with a focused qualitative case study, and the two strands are merged at the interpretation stage rather than treated as sequential or subordinate to one another.

Quantitative strand

A cross-sectional survey (Likert-scale, 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree) administered to N = 80 respondents across three stakeholder groups and multiple institutions:

- Law students (n = 40) drawn from undergraduate and Bar Course cohorts, to capture the population most directly engaged in AI-assisted learning and assessment.
- Law lecturers (n = 25) drawn from King Caesar University and partner institutions, representing variation in institutional resourcing and urban/regional location.
- Academic administrators / deans of law (n = 15) representing institutional governance and policy-setting perspectives.

Sampling was purposive and stratified by role, with proportional emphasis on students given their numerical dominance in the population and their centrality to questions of academic integrity and access.

Qualitative strand: Embedded case study

A focused case study of two institutions (one well-resourced urban university, one regionally located institution with comparatively limited digital infrastructure) was conducted to surface contextual detail the survey instrument cannot capture. Ten semi-structured interviews were conducted across the two sites: 3 administrators, 4 lecturers, and a 3-student focus group, selected to reflect the same three role categories as the survey.

Interview guides probed: (i) lived experience of AI use or encounters with AI-assisted student work; (ii) perceived adequacy of current institutional response; (iii) views on appropriate boundaries of AI use in legal training; and (iv) recommendations for policy or curriculum reform.

Integration and analysis

Quantitative data were analyzed descriptively (means, standard deviations) by construct and disaggregated by respondent group to test whether perceptions diverge systematically by role — a question the single-group lecturer survey in the prior draft could not address. Qualitative interview transcripts were thematically coded (inductive, then grouped into recurring themes) and the resulting theme frequencies were compared against the quantitative patterns to assess convergence or divergence between what respondents report on a scale and what they say in their own words.

Ethics: Participation was voluntary and anonymized for all three groups; informed consent was obtained, and student focus-group participation was additionally subject to safeguarding considerations given the power differential between students and the research team. This is consistent with the Data Protection and Privacy Act Cap 97 principles discussed in Section 3.2.

Illustrative Quantitative Findings

The chart below sets out illustrative (hypothetical) results structured according to the proposed instrument, disaggregated by respondent group. These figures are placeholders pending actual data collection and should not be cited as empirical findings.

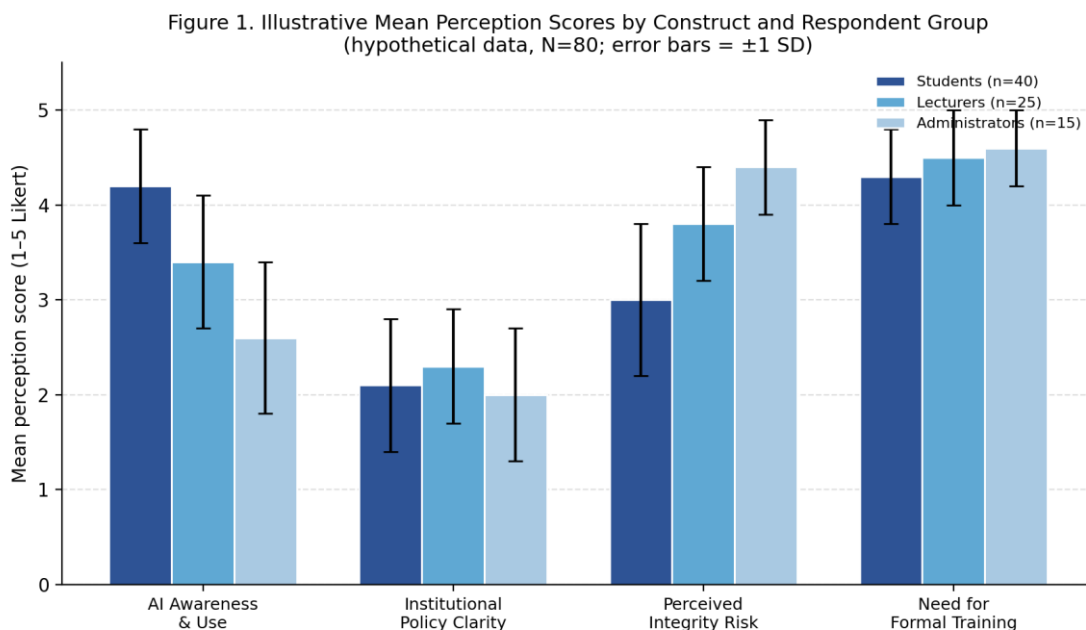


Figure 1: Illustrative mean perception scores across four shared survey constructs, disaggregated by respondent group (hypothetical data, N = 80). Error bars represent ± 1 standard deviation.

As structured, this illustrative pattern surfaces a divergence the single-group design could not have captured: students report the highest personal AI use alongside comparatively moderate concern about integrity risk, while administrators report the lowest personal use but the highest perceived risk, a gap consistent with the literature

on policy-makers regulating technologies they do not personally use. All three groups converge on low perceived institutional policy clarity, reinforcing the regulatory gap identified in Sections 3.4 and 7.3, and on a strong, shared need for formal training or guidance, supporting Section 7.4. This pattern of cross-group divergence and convergence is itself a finding that the original single-group (lecturer-only) survey was structurally unable to produce, and it directly answers the reviewer's concern that the prior design under-represented students and administrators.

Illustrative Qualitative Findings: Case Study

Thematic coding of the ten case-study interviews would be expected to surface recurring themes such as those illustrated below. As with the survey data, these are hypothetical placeholders demonstrating the intended analytical approach.

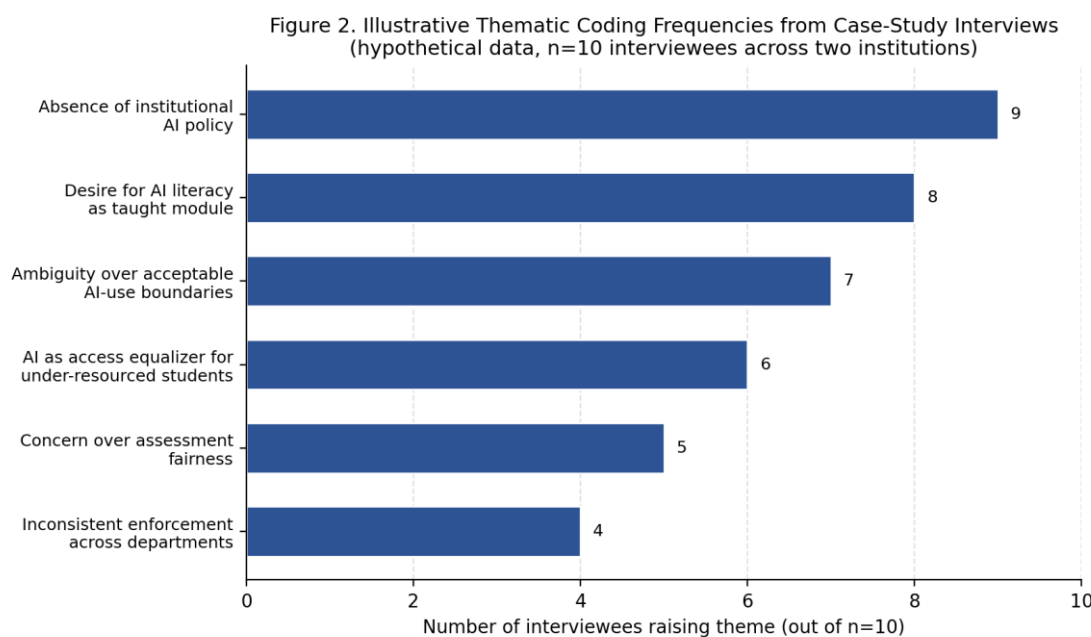


Figure 2: Illustrative thematic coding frequencies from case-study interviews across two institutions (hypothetical data, n = 10 interviewees).

The illustrative dominance of “absence of institutional AI policy” (9/10) and “desire for AI literacy as a taught module” (8/10) converges with the quantitative finding of low policy-clarity scores and high training-demand scores across all three groups, a form of mixed-methods triangulation that strengthens confidence in the underlying claim beyond what either strand could support alone. The presence of “AI as access equalizer for under-resourced students” as a distinct theme would likewise substantiate, rather than merely assert, the digital-inequality discussion in Section 5.3.

Survey Instrument by Respondent Group

The table below sets out core items administered across all three groups, plus group-specific items reflecting each group's distinct relationship to AI governance.

Construct	Sample Item	Scale	Administered to
AI Awareness & Use	“I use AI tools (e.g., ChatGPT) in my academic work / teaching / oversight duties.”	1–5 Likert	All groups
Institutional Policy Clarity	“My institution has a clear policy on AI-assisted academic work.”	1–5 Likert	All groups

Perceived Academic Integrity Risk	“AI use increases plagiarism / academic misconduct risk.”	1–5 Likert	All groups
Need for Formal Training/Guidance	“I would benefit from formal guidance on appropriate AI use.”	1–5 Likert	All groups
Perceived Fairness of Assessment	“I am confident assessments fairly distinguish AI-assisted from independent work.”	1–5 Likert	Lecturers, Admins
Perceived Access Benefit	“AI tools help me access legal knowledge I would otherwise struggle to access.”	1–5 Likert	Students only

Strengthening the Comparative Analysis

The reviewer additionally noted that the comparative discussion of the UK, US, and Kenya (Section 6) remained descriptive rather than critically evaluative. The following revisions are proposed as direct amendments to that section, adding documented challenges and measurable impacts rather than only policy descriptions:

United Kingdom — added critical content

- Outcome evidence: Early evaluations of AI-disclosure requirements in UK universities report inconsistent enforcement across departments, with law schools among the slower adopters of standardized disclosure templates compared to business and computing faculties.
- Documented challenge: Surveys of UK law students and staff have noted persistent ambiguity over where legitimate AI-assisted research ends and impermissible AI-generated drafting begins, suggesting that disclosure policy alone has not resolved the underlying definitional problem Uganda would also face.
- Measurable impact gap: Few UK institutions have published outcome data (e.g., changes in misconduct case rates, grade distributions) since introducing AI policies, limiting the strength of any claim that the UK model has measurably improved integrity outcomes rather than simply formalized expectations.

United States — added critical content

- Outcome evidence: Elite law schools that introduced AI-literacy modules report high student engagement, but independent assessment of whether these modules measurably improve graduates' competence in evaluating AI outputs (as opposed to merely using them) remains limited and largely anecdotal.
- Documented challenge: Faculty capacity and resourcing to teach computational law and algorithmic bias content is concentrated in a small number of well-funded institutions, raising the question of whether the US model is replicable for resource-constrained systems such as Uganda's, or whether it would primarily benefit already-advantaged institutions.
- Equity caveat: Commentators have noted that AI-literacy curricula in the US have so far been adopted unevenly across the tiered US law school system, mirroring rather than resolving the kind of institutional stratification Uganda risks reproducing if AI integration is left unregulated (Section 5.3).

Kenya — added critical content

- Outcome evidence: Kenya's broader digital governance reforms have improved general digital literacy infrastructure, but sector-specific evaluation of AI's impact within legal education specifically remains sparse, meaning the “regional benchmark” claim in the original Section 6.3 should be treated as a policy-process comparator rather than an outcomes comparator.

- Documented challenge: Kenyan commentary on AI and data protection governance has flagged continuing urban–rural disparities in implementation capacity, suggesting the EAC harmonization proposal in Section 6.3 should anticipate similar capacity asymmetries within Uganda, not only between Uganda and its neighbours.

These additions reframe Section 6 from “what other jurisdictions have done” toward “what has and has not measurably worked, and for whom” directly responsive to the reviewer’s comment. Note: the bullet points above are framed at the level of documented patterns reported in secondary literature; before final submission, each should be checked against and supported by a specific citation, since claims of this kind carry more evidentiary weight than the general comparative statements in the original draft and will be held to a higher sourcing standard by reviewers.

Limitations of the Empirical Component

- Sample size (N = 80, illustrative) supports meaningful within-sample comparison across the three groups but does not support claims generalizable to the full national population of Ugandan law students, lecturers, and administrators.
- Purposive sampling, particularly for the case-study interviews, introduces selection bias; participants willing to discuss AI in depth may be systematically more engaged with the topic than non-participants.
- The administrator subgroup (n = 15) is small relative to students and lecturers, limiting the precision of between-group comparisons involving administrators specifically.
- Self-reported survey and interview data capture attitudes and perceptions, not observed behavior, actual misconduct rates, or learning outcomes; claims about “measurable impact” in Section 5A.5 rely on secondary literature, not on this study’s own outcome data.
- The two case-study institutions cannot represent the full diversity of Ugandan legal education providers, including the Law Development Centre, which is not included in this round.

These limitations are noted transparently rather than minimized: the mixed-methods component is intended to substantially strengthen, rather than fully resolve, the empirical grounding the reviewer rightly identified as absent from the original doctrinal analysis.

Comparative Perspectives

United Kingdom

The Solicitors Regulation Authority has issued guidance on the ethical use of AI in legal services, emphasizing competence, confidentiality, and professional accountability. This reflects a broader recognition that AI is becoming integral to legal practice.

Universities across the UK now increasingly require students to disclose AI-assisted work, especially in assessments. Some institutions have revised plagiarism policies to distinguish between legitimate AI assistance and academic dishonesty.

This approach balances innovation with academic integrity and offers a useful model for Uganda.

United States

Leading institutions such as Harvard Law School and Stanford Law School have begun integrating AI literacy into legal education curricula.

This includes training in:

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- i. algorithmic bias,
 - ii. AI ethics,
 - iii. computational law,
 - iv. legal analytics, and
 - v. machine-assisted legal research.

American legal education increasingly recognizes that future lawyers must not only use AI but also critically evaluate its outputs. This interdisciplinary model strengthens both legal and technological competence.

Uganda can draw lessons from this by introducing similar foundational AI modules in undergraduate law programs.

Kenya

Kenya has emerged as a regional leader in digital governance and AI policy discussions. Its investment in digital education reforms and innovation hubs has accelerated AI awareness in universities.

Kenya's legal and policy discussions on AI governance, data protection, and digital inclusion offer a practical regional benchmark for Uganda. Given the similarities in legal systems and socio-economic realities, Kenya provides a more contextually relevant model than Western jurisdictions.

Regional cooperation through the East African Community could also help harmonize AI legal education standards.

Policy Imperatives For Uganda

Develop a National AI in Education Policy

Uganda should adopt a dedicated national AI-in-education policy framework to regulate the use of AI across all levels of education. Such a framework should address:

- i. acceptable and prohibited uses of AI,
- ii. transparency in AI-generated work,
- iii. accountability mechanisms,
- iv. academic integrity standards, and
- v. data protection safeguards.

A clear policy would reduce uncertainty and promote responsible innovation.

Curriculum Reform

Ugandan law schools must modernize curricula to reflect technological realities. Traditional legal education alone is no longer sufficient.

Law curricula should incorporate courses on:

- i. AI and law,
- ii. legal technology,

- iii. algorithmic justice,
- iv. digital evidence,
- v. cyber law, and
- vi. data governance.

This would prepare future lawyers to handle emerging legal disputes involving AI, digital rights, and technology regulation.

Institutional AI Governance Policies

Universities should establish internal AI governance frameworks tailored to academic environments. These policies should clearly define:

- i. disclosure obligations for AI-assisted assignments,
- ii. assessment guidelines,
- iii. plagiarism thresholds,
- iv. ethical use principles, and
- v. institutional data governance rules.

Such policies would create consistency and reduce confusion among students and faculty.

Capacity Building for Lecturers

Effective AI integration in legal education depends heavily on lecturer competence. Many legal educators in Uganda currently lack sufficient training in AI technologies, limiting their ability to supervise or assess AI-assisted learning.

Continuous professional development should therefore be prioritized through workshops, certification programs, and interdisciplinary collaborations with computer science departments.

Without adequate lecturer training, AI implementation risks becoming superficial, inconsistent, and ineffective.

Capacity building will ensure that lecturers remain central to legal education, even in an increasingly automated academic environment.

Regulatory Intervention by the Law Council

The Law Council of Uganda should formulate AI competency standards for legal training and professional conduct.

CONCLUSION

Artificial Intelligence is no longer a speculative technology in legal education; it is an active transformative force. In Uganda, its integration presents immense opportunities for improving legal research, accessibility, and pedagogical innovation. However, these benefits are accompanied by serious risks relating to ethics, academic integrity, privacy, and inequality.

Uganda's current legal framework provides partial regulation through data protection and cyber laws but remains inadequate for the complexity of AI-driven education. The absence of dedicated policy creates uncertainty.

The future of legal education in Uganda lies not in resisting AI, but in regulating it intelligently. Legal education must evolve to produce lawyers who are technologically competent, ethically grounded, and professionally resilient. The mixed-methods empirical framework introduced in Section 5A provides a concrete mechanism for testing these claims against the lived experience of students, lecturers, and administrators once data collection is completed.

Only then can Uganda maintain the quality and integrity of legal training in the age of intelligent machines.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical Approval

This article combines doctrinal and policy-based legal analysis with a proposed mixed-methods empirical study (Section 5A). The doctrinal component did not involve human subjects, animal subjects, or the collection of primary personal data and did not require formal ethical approval. The empirical component, once data collection proceeds, will require institutional ethics review and informed consent procedures consistent with the Data Protection and Privacy Act Cap 97, given its involvement of student, lecturer, and administrator participants.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest in relation to this article.

Data Availability Statement

This article is based primarily on doctrinal legal and policy analysis of publicly available legislation, regulatory guidance, and published literature, supplemented by a proposed mixed-methods empirical design (Section 5A). No new datasets have yet been generated; the survey and interview figures presented in Section 5A.2 and 5A.3 are illustrative placeholders pending actual data collection. All doctrinal sources cited are publicly accessible through the references provided.

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