

2002 UGANDA POPULATION AND HOUSING CENSUS

Analytical Report

HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS

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FOREWORD

The Uganda Bureau of Statistics supports the Government's results-based agenda by providing statistics needed for planning, monitoring development performance and progress in the implementation of major national development policies and initiatives. The Population and Housing Census is the major source of demographic and social-economic statistics in Uganda. The country has conducted scientific population and housing censuses at intervals of about ten years since 1948. The latest such census was conducted in 2002 and was the most comprehensive census ever undertaken in Uganda. This census collected household-based data on population, housing, agriculture, micro and small enterprises as well as community information.

The Uganda Bureau of Statistics has published the 2002 Census results in different reports at different times and with varying degrees of detail. The Monograph Series provide more detailed and subject-oriented analyses of the census data which relate the findings to the national development policies and targets as outlined in the PEAP. This Monograph on **Household Characteristics** contains information on the household utilities, housing conditions and household welfare.

The Bureau is grateful to the many institutions and individuals who participated in the planning and/or implementation of the Census. They include members of the Inter-Institutional Steering and Technical Advisory Committees; District Census Committees; field Staff including Mapping Assistants, Enumerators and Supervisors; the millions of individual respondents who provided the required information; Data Processing staff and the authors of the various chapters of this and other Census reports.

The Government of Uganda funded the bigger part of the Census. The Bureau is grateful for this collaboration and also the support from the development partners who funded the other cost of the census operations.

Finally, the Bureau appeals to the people of Uganda to make maximum use of the census data as a basis for evidence-based policy debate and design; decision-making at every level of society; investment and business transactions; and for many other purposes.

John B. Male - Mukasa
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR

PREFACE

The 2002 Census was conducted with reference to 12th/13th September 2002 as the Census Night. During the census, trained enumerators visited every household and collected information on all persons who spent the Census night in the household. Special arrangements were made to enumerate the mobile population as well as those living in institutions. Persons living in IDP camps were enumerated as households and the information was recorded against the areas where they came from. Specifically, persons who spent the Census Night in hotels and lodges were enumerated using a special questionnaire. In addition, the characteristics of Household Heads who were not at home on the Census Night were also recorded. The enumeration was completed within seven days for most areas.

UBOS has produced several reports from the census data. In order to increase the utility of the census data, subject specific monographs giving detailed analytical findings of the 2002 Census have been written. These were written by a team of local experts in the different disciplines. In carrying out the data analysis, differentials by sex and rural-urban residence have been studied. Further differentials have been studied with respect to socio-economic characteristics as well as spatial distribution of the population. Also produced is an Abridged Version which contains the summary of findings from all the monographs.

This monograph presents the **Household Characteristics** (Household Utilities, Housing Conditions and Household Welfare). The other monographs in series include the following;

- Volume I: Population size and Distribution
- Volume II: Population Composition
- Volume III: Population Dynamics
- Volume IV: Economic Characteristics
- Volume V: Educational Characteristics
- Volume VII: Gender and Special Interest Groups

Where possible, the 2002 Census results are compared with those from previous data sources, mainly the Censuses of 1969, 1980 and 1991, the Uganda Demographic and Health Survey (UDHS) 2000-01 and the Uganda National Household Survey (UNHS) 2002/03. However, these comparisons are limited to national level data only, since disaggregation of data by district or other characteristics for earlier dates could not be obtained.

For purposes of presentation of spatial differentials, data are shown for the country's districts as at the time of enumeration. These have been grouped into four regions namely Central, Eastern, Northern and Western. These are statistical groupings of districts without administrative or political considerations. Previous studies have shown that Kampala City has indicators which are usually very different from the rest of the districts. This thus makes the Central region appear to be fairing far better than the other regions. In order to make a fair

comparison of the regions, the indicators for Central region are presented in two ways viz including and excluding Kampala City.

Prior to this monograph series, six other products were published. These are:

- i. Preliminary Results – giving total population by district and sex, released in October 2002.
- ii. Provisional Results – giving total population of administrative areas by sex, released in November 2002.
- iii. Report on the Agricultural Module – giving information on household based agricultural activities, released in September 2004.
- iv. Final Results: Main Report – giving population and household characteristics based on the final results, released in March 2005.
- v. Post Enumeration Survey Report – giving the procedure and findings from the Post Enumeration activity, released in October 2005.
- vi. District Census Report– giving district specific population and household characteristics based on the final results, released in November 2005.

In addition, the Bureau will be producing several other reports as outlined below:

- i. Administrative Report
- ii. District-level Analytical Reports
- iii. Census Atlas
- iv. Poverty Maps

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Housing is one of the basic human needs that have a profound impact on the health, welfare, social attitudes and economic productivity of the individual. It is also one of the best indications of a person's standard of living and of his or her place in society.

The 2002 Census collected data on various aspects of households including the housing units they stay in and access to selected social services such as health centres or primary schools. This information is used to derive the welfare of the households. Such information was not collected for persons not enumerated in households e.g. those enumerated in hotels or in institutions and therefore they are not included in this analysis.

There was a total of 5 million households with a household population of 23.6 million persons. The corresponding figures from the 1991 Census were 3.4 million and 16.5 million respectively.

Household Utilities

In less than half of households each child had an individual blanket and each household member had at least a pair of shoes. Twenty percent of households had at least set of clothing for each member. The rural households fared worse than their urban counterparts. Female headed households, despite the low asset base showed a relatively higher level of welfare for their members. This re-affirms the view that women spend most of their incomes on improving the welfare of their household members.

Increasing access to safe water and in sufficient quantities and quality together with improved sanitation continues to be the cornerstone of improved public health. Access to safe drinking water was not universal. Only 61 percent of the households had access to safe water. Use of safe toilet facilities was also not universal as 31 percent lacked safe facilities, while 16 percent of the households had no toilet at all. Census findings show that progress had been made in the provision of safe water and sanitation services. However, more efforts should be invested in developing the sector further to ensure universal provision of these basic services to all people in Uganda.

Three quarters of the households used paraffin (tadooba) for lighting. This has serious health impacts. Use of wood fuel for cooking was almost universal with only three percent of the households using any other types of fuel.

The use of alternative but cleaner sources of fuel for cooking is still out of reach of many households. The extensive use of firewood and charcoal promotes depletion of forests. It also increases the risks to natural hazards like drought due to deforestation. However, the rural poor depend on the environment for their livelihood. This coupled with deforestation further

compounds the environmental problem. Although there are attempts to promote alternative energy sources through the Rural Electrification Programme, these may have for the time being been unaffordable to majority of the rural population.

Housing Conditions

The public sector contribution to direct housing supply for accommodation of the public is only limited to institutional quarters for specific institutions such as the Army, the Police, the Schools and Hospitals among others. The majority of the households in the rural areas were owner occupiers (86.2 percent) compared to only 30 percent in the urban areas. On the other hand, rental housing is dominant in the urban areas accounting for 58 percent of the households. Regional and district disparities were noted.

Seventy percent (70 percent) of the dwelling units were main house units while the room type of dwelling units accommodated 27 percent. The room type dwelling units accounted for 62 percent in the urban areas.

There were significant increases in the proportion of dwelling units with permanent materials between 1991 and 2002. With regard to the roofing materials, units with permanent materials increased from 40 percent to 56 percent while those with permanent wall materials increased from 12 percent to 28 percent and those with permanent floor materials increased from 14 percent to 21 percent.

The housing conditions were generally substandard. The majority of the households lived in temporary units (72 percent) compared to only 17 percent who lived in units built with permanent materials. There was a significant increase in percentage of both temporary and permanent units between 1991 and 2002. The temporary units increased from 59 percent to 72 percent and the permanent units increased from 11.8 percent to 17 percent. The percentage of households living in temporary units in the urban areas doubled over this period from 13 percent to 27 percent. There were significant differentials in regional distribution with Central region registering comparatively better conditions than the rest of the regions.

Sixty five percent of the units were detached while the flats constituted a very insignificant percentage (0.4 percent). The tenements accounted for nearly half of the dwellings in the urban areas. There were significant disparities between urban rural and regional distribution.

The number of dwelling units size decreased with increase in number of rooms. A half of the dwelling units had one room per sleeping. The average Room Occupancy Density was 2.6 persons per room in urban areas compared to 2.8 in the rural areas. The highest room occupancy density was reported in single-roomed dwellings (3.8 persons per room). A half of

the sleeping rooms in Uganda were overcrowded with more than 2 persons per room. These accommodated 56 percent of the households that accounted for 74 percent of the population.

Household Welfare

Generally, household welfare was poor particularly in the areas where income poverty is pervasive i.e. the North and East. More than two-thirds (68 percent) of the households were dependent on subsistence farming for a livelihood. About one third of the households with children had all children having a separate blanket, less than half of Uganda's households had members with at least a pair of shoes each. Twenty percent of households had only one set of clothing for each member; three quarters of the households were using *tadoobas* (open paraffin lamp) for lighting.

Transport and communication

Almost half (49 percent) of the households owned radios. Regional variations existed and the Central region had the highest radio ownership (61 percent) which was twice that of the Northern region (33 percent).

About 2 percent of the households owned motor vehicles, while only 3 percent of the households owned motor cycles. Thirty four percent of the households owned bicycles with male-headed households (30 percent) being eight times more likely to own a bicycle compared to their female counterparts (4 percent).

COUNTRY PROFILE

	Male	Female	Total	Number ('000)
Population	100.0	100.0	100.0	24,227
Urban	12.3	12.2	12.4	2,981
Rural	87.7	87.8	87.6	21,246
Selected Age Groups				
Children (0-17 years)	57.6	54.6	56.1	13,371
Adults Uganda (18 Years and over)	42.4	45.4	43.9	10,470
Primary School Age (6 -12 years)	22.5	21.4	21.9	5,228
Secondary School Age (13 - 19 years)	16.4	16.1	16.3	3,875
Post Secondary School Age (20 - 24 years)	8.2	9.5	8.9	2,113
Working Age Uganda (14 - 64 years)	49.0	51.3	50.2	11,964
Child Labour Age (5 - 17 years)	38.4	36.4	37.4	8,911
Adolscents (10 - 24 years)	33.9	34.4	34.2	8,147
Youth (18 - 30 years)	21.0	23.6	22.3	5,321
Child Bearing (15 - 49years)	---	43.7	---	5,331
Child Mothers (12 - 17years)	---	14.7	---	1,798
Aged 10 Years and Over	64.1	65.8	64.9	15,483
Aged 50 Years and Over	7.7	8.1	7.9	1,887
Older Persons (60 Years and over)	4.5	4.6	4.6	1,090
Parental survival (For Children Below 18 Years)				
Both Parents Alive	86.6	86.7	86.6	11,581
Only Mother Alive	8.0	7.9	7.9	1,061
Only Father Alive	2.7	2.6	2.6	352
Both Parents Dead	2.6	2.5	2.6	345
Do not Know	0.2	0.2	0.2	26
Persons with Disabilities (PWDs)				
All PWDs ¹	---	---	---	838
Physical	48.0	45.4	46.7	392
Hearing problem	15.8	17.6	16.6	139
Sight Problem	23.9	27.2	25.4	213
Speech Problem	5.6	4.5	5.0	42
Mental Retardation	4.3	3.9	4.1	34
Mental Illness	4.3	3.9	4.1	34
Others	10.3	11.5	10.9	91
¹ Some persons had more than one disability, therefore cases do not add up to PWDs				
Education and Literacy				
Population aged 10+ and are Literate	77.4	62.4	69.6	10,782
Pop Aged 6 -12 years and enrolled in School	86.3	86.2	86.2	4,509
Pop Aged 10+ and Never been to School	13.0	26.5	20.0	3,099

	Male	Female	Total	Number (^{'000})
Economic Activities				
Pop aged 14 - 64 years & Working	59.4	47.7	53.3	6,371
Pop aged 5 - 17 years & Working	7.2	6.8	7.0	622
Marriage And Child Bearing				
Women Aged 50 years + and Never Married	---	3.3	---	33
Girls aged 12-17 years who are mothers	---	6.8	---	122
	Urban	Rural	Total	Number (^{'000})
Households				
Male Headed	72.4	77.7	76.9	3,880
Female Headed	27.6	22.3	23.1	1,164
Average Household Size	4.2	4.8	4.7	---
Source of Livelihood				
Subsistence Farming	11.9	77.0	67.9	3,425
Other Economic Activity	71.6	14.8	22.8	1,147
Other Support	16.5	8.2	9.3	471
State of Dwelling Unit				
Temporary Building Materials	26.1	78.5	71.2	3,589
Semi-permanent Building Materials	14.2	10.9	11.4	574
Permanent Building Materials	59.8	10.6	17.5	881
Construction Materials				
Iron Sheets	82.3	50.3	54.8	2,764
Thatch	11.3	48.2	43.0	2,171
Brick Walls	67.9	40.0	43.9	2,214
Mud and Pole	16.5	54.8	49.4	2,492
Cement Screed	58.4	10.5	17.2	866
Rammed Earth	28.8	85.0	77.1	3,889
Household Facilities				
Covered Toilet	91.1	66.3	69.7	3,517
Built Bathroom	67.5	29.2	34.5	1,742
Built Kitchen	42.0	59.5	57.0	2,877
Household Assets				
Dwelling Unit	30.1	86.1	78.2	3,946
Bicycle	18.8	36.2	33.7	1,701
Television	19.7	2.1	4.6	231
Radio	68.5	46.1	49.2	2,483
Mobile Phone	21.8	2.3	5.0	254
Fixed Phone	2.7	0.2	0.5	27

CHAPTER 1: BACKGROUND

1.1 General Information about Uganda

1.1.1 Location and Size

Uganda is located in East Africa and lies across the equator, about 800 kilometres inland from the Indian Ocean. It lies between 1° 29' South and 4° 12' North latitude, 29° 34' East and 35° 0' East longitude. The country is landlocked, bordered by Kenya in the East; Sudan in the North; Democratic Republic of Congo in the West; Tanzania in the South; and Rwanda in South West. It has an area of 241,038 square kilometres, of which the land area covers 197,323 square kilometres.

1.1.2 Administration

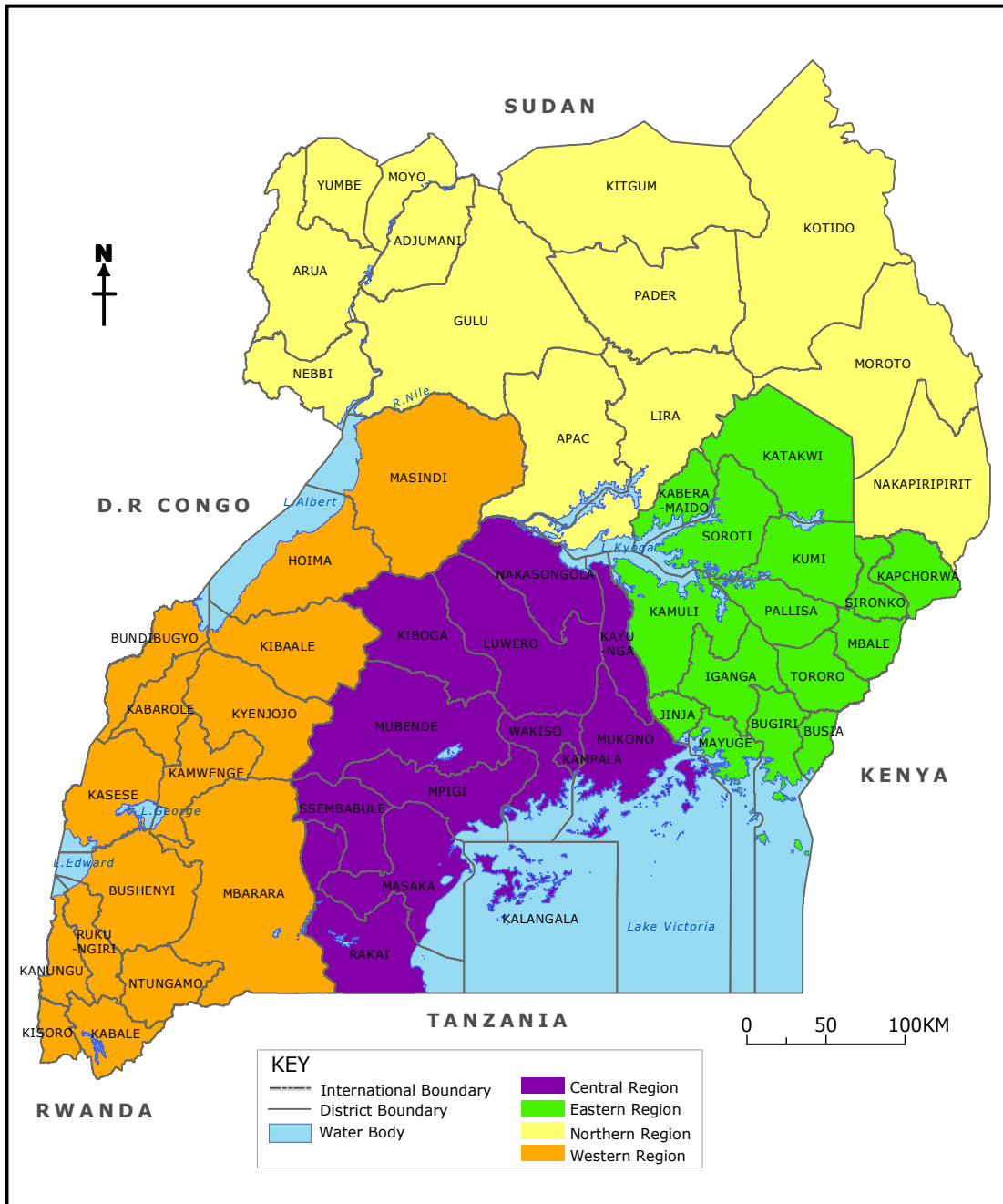
The country was divided into 56 districts at the time of the 2002 Uganda Population and Housing Census. The districts are sub-divided into lower administrative units. These are counties, sub-counties, parishes and villages or Local Council 1 (LC 1). Overtime, the numbers of districts and lower level administrative units have continuously increased with the aim of making administration and delivery of services easier. This, however, had a negative element in that most of the districts do not have time series data and hence it is not possible to do a trend analysis. The numbers of administrative units at the various census nights since 1969 are given in Table 1.1 below.

Table 1.1: Number of Administrative Units by Census 1969 – 2002

Level of Administrative Unit	Census Year			
	1969	1980	1991	2002
District	21	33	38	56
County	111	140	163	163
Sub-county	594	668	884	958
Parish	3,141	3,478	4,636	5,238

In addition, Uganda has a Local Governments System at different levels. These are LC V (District); LC IV (County / Municipality); LC III (Sub – County); LC II (Parish); and LC I (Village). The role of the local governments is to implement and monitor government programmes at the respective levels.

Figure 1.1: Map of Uganda showing the Districts as of September 2002



1.1.3 Geography

The country enjoys equatorial climate with plenty of rain and sunshine moderated by the relatively high altitude. In most parts of the country, the mean annual temperatures range from 16^oC to 30^oC. Nevertheless, the Northern and Eastern regions sometimes experience relatively high temperatures exceeding 30^oC and the South Western region sometimes has temperatures below 16^oC.

The Central, Western and Eastern regions have two rainy seasons, from March to May for the first rains, and the second rains from September to November. The Northern region receives one rainy season from April to October, and the period from November to March has minimal rain. Most of the country receives between 750mm and 2100mm annually. The country has loamy soils with varying proportions of sandy and clay. In addition, it has varying vegetation with tropical rain forest vegetation in the South and savannah woodlands and semi arid vegetation in the North.

1.1.4 Culture and Religion

Uganda's population is made up of different ethnic groups with varying customs and norms. These play a major role in shaping the behaviours and ways of life of the people in the country. Some of the traditional values have changed due to the integration of the people as a result of migration and/or intermarriages. The cultural groupings, such as, Baganda, Basoga, Batoro, Banyoro, Itesoit, etc are headed by traditional kings or chiefs who are not politically elected but have an indirect role in community governance and moral build up.

There are a number of languages spoken because of the many tribes in Uganda. However, English is the official language. The Swahili language is being promoted in the spirit of Regional Socio-Economic cooperation, and integration of the East African Community.

The 1995 Constitution of the Republic of Uganda recognizes the freedom to practice any religion.

1.1.5 Education

Uganda's education system is both formal and informal. Under the formal system, the four – tier educational model is followed i.e. seven years of primary education, four years of ordinary level secondary education, two years of advanced level secondary education and the tertiary level of education. Each level is nationally examined and certificates are awarded. University education is offered by both public and private institutions.

The Universal Primary Education (UPE) was introduced in 1997 to offer free education at the primary level. However, access to secondary and tertiary education is limited to only those who can meet the costs. There are plans by the Government to introduce Universal Secondary Education (USE) in 2007. The Government also sponsors about 4,000 students every year through the public Universities. In addition, the private sponsorship scheme is operational in the public universities. University education can also be obtained from any of the seven private universities in the country. In addition, a large number of institutions both private and public also offer tertiary education.

In addition to formal education there exists informal education to serve all those persons who did not receive formal education. Under the informal system, a range of practical/hands-on skills are imparted to those students who have not gone through or only partially gone through the formal system of education. The majority of students in the informal system are the young adults and/or drop out and disadvantaged children. The Functional Adult Literacy (FAL) programme in the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development also targets older people who did not get chance to go through formal training.

1.1.6 Macro economy

Uganda's economic performance was performing well in the early years of independence; with rapid economic growth and development. In the early post independence period (1962-1966), the economy grew at an average of 6.7 percent per year. By the end of the 1960's, commercial agriculture accounted for more than one-third of GDP and industrial output had increased to nearly nine percent of GDP, given the new food processing industries. In the early 1970's, the Government targeted an annual GDP growth rate of about 5.6 percent. However, the political instability and associated economic mismanagement resulted in a persistent economic decline that left Uganda among the World's poorest and least developed Countries.

In early 1980s, Structural Adjustment programs were introduced which led to strong economic growth of Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Hence, the period that followed showed a remarkable increase in productivity and output. This was given impetus by macroeconomic stability resulting from the macroeconomic reforms. This led to the economy reverting to its high GDP growth rates and low and stable inflation and interest rates from the 1990's to present. The PEAP target was for a GDP growth rate of 5.2 percent in 2003, and an average of 7 percent thereafter.

The economy of Uganda is primarily based on the agricultural sector, with over 70 percent of the working population being employed by the sector. Agricultural exports account for over 45 percent of the total export earnings with coffee, tobacco and fish continuing to be the main export commodities that bring in foreign exchange.

In the last five years, the telecommunication sector has been the fastest growing sector of the economy, and this is due to the expansion programs and increase in coverage by the major telecommunication companies in the Country which have led to increased numbers of subscribers and providers of the services.

1.2 Sources of Data

The main data sources for establishing benchmarks for economic and social indicators for Uganda are censuses and surveys. Information is also obtained from administrative records.

1.2.1 The Earlier Population Estimates

Prior to 1900, there was limited information on Uganda's population. The first official population estimates of the Uganda Protectorate were made in 1900 and 1901, and gave a population at 2 million and 2.5 million, respectively which were more or less accepted until the first census was carried out in the year 1911.

1.2.2 The Population Censuses 1911 - 1991

The population censuses in Uganda have been conducted in the years 1911, 1921, 1931, 1948, 1959, 1969, 1980, 1991 and 2002. The 1911, 1921 and 1931 population censuses were mainly administrative in nature, and for all the three censuses, separate enumeration procedures were made for the African and non-African population in the Country. For the non-African population and for the Africans living on non-African premises, census forms were collected from their local administrative centres. The population census results of 1911, 1921 and 1931 were 2.5 million, 2.9 million and 3.5 million, respectively.

The 1948 Population Census was the first scientific census to be carried out in Uganda. This was followed by the 1959 Census. During the two censuses, the African Population and the non African population were enumerated separately. The two censuses were followed by sample censuses of 10 percent and 5 percent, respectively. The sample censuses were intended to provide detailed data to help in the planning processes.

The first post independence census was conducted in 1969 followed by 1980 and 1991. The methodology used during these censuses was similar; people were enumerated where they spent the census night (De facto Census) and conducted simultaneously for

Africans and Non-Africans. Two different types of schedules were used to collect the data. The first schedule contained limited questions and was administered at 100 percent coverage while the built-in sample covered 10 percent of the rural areas and 100 percent of the urban areas, and was intended to provide detailed data to aid in planning.

1.3 The 2002 Uganda Population and Housing Census

The 2002 Uganda Population and Housing Census was the most comprehensive census ever conducted in Uganda. The census collected data on the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the population; household and housing conditions, agriculture; activities of micro and small enterprises; and the community characteristics. A structured questionnaire was administered to all households and the institutional population.

1.3.1 Census Implementation

The reference night (Census Night) was 12th/13th September 2002, and the actual enumeration was carried out between 13th and 19th September 2002. The enumeration was done by trained enumerators who canvassed the entire country and administered the questionnaires to the household head, or in his/her absence any other knowledgeable household member. Special arrangements were made to enumerate institutional, homeless and mobile populations. The census administered a standard questionnaire to all persons countrywide.

For purposes of presentation of the results, the country's 56 districts have been grouped into four regions namely Central, Eastern, Northern and Western. These are statistical groupings of districts without administrative or political status. In order to show a clearer trend, the 1980 and 1991 censuses data was redistributed according to the 2002 District boundaries and other lower administrative units.

1.3.2 Quality of the Census Data

Quality is an important aspect of data as it enhances its credibility, increases its potential use and the benefits to be derived from the data. Census data quality can be compromised by poor measurement of characteristics as well as poor quality control in implementation of methodologies. In particular, quality can be compromised through inadequate coverage, use of untested methodology and procedures, inaccurate responses, high non response errors and data processing errors (editing, coding, data entry, tabulation, etc).

The 2002 Census process paid attention to quality management and enhancement. In particular, special measures were taken to ensure quality census data. These included, among others:

-
- dividing up the whole Country into compact and manageable enumeration areas which can be covered by one enumerator.
 - producing enumeration area maps to avoid omission or double counting during enumeration.
 - ensuring that each enumerator exhaustively canvassed the assigned area.
 - using simple and pre-tested questionnaires.
 - preparation of an Enumerators' Instructions Manual to act as a full-time guide to the census enumeration.
 - adequate publicity of the census exercise throughout the country.
 - adequate training of all field staff lasting for a period of 6-7 days.
 - intensive supervision at all levels – parish, sub-county, District and national.
 - checking and editing the census questionnaires.
 - 100 percent verification of all data entered into the computer.
 - carefully checking all data for internal consistency as well as consistency with data from other sources.
 - conducting a Post Enumeration Survey (PES) with the aim of measuring the magnitude, direction and sources of errors for the 2002 Census.

1.3.3 Exclusion of data from Kotido District

The final results showed that Kotido District had a very high population growth rate of 9.5 percent per annum and an average household size of 6.8 persons. These were much higher than what was observed for the same District in 1991 and for the neighbouring Districts in 2002. The Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) carried out an investigation of the Census data and found that a number of indicators for Kotido District deviated from other reliable results obtained from other studies. A deeper review of a representative sample of the census data for the District revealed that there was a deliberate duplication of households and individuals to inflate the population figures.

Statistical methods were applied on the population of Kotido District to come up with more reliable estimates of the population of the District as of 2002. UBOS subsequently adjusted the population of Kotido District downwards to be consistent with the results from other studies carried out around the same time. Despite this adjustment, it was not possible to have obtained detailed characteristics of the population and households.

Since most of the indicators from the District were not reliable, a decision was taken to carry out the census analysis without Kotido data. Thus, the indicators shown in this report exclude the figures for Kotido District apart from indicators on population size, growth and distribution.

The rest of the report is based on the population excluding persons enumerated in Hotels and Kotido District, which was 23.8 million.

1.4 Organisation of the Report

This monograph is organized into five Chapters. Chapter 1 gives an introduction which includes the background to the census, the 2002 census processes, data quality and the organization of this report. Chapter 2 presents household utilities. Chapter 3 covers the housing conditions while Chapter 4 gives the household welfare. Chapter 5 presents the policy implications and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2: HOUSEHOLD UTILITIES

2.1 Background

Policy Framework

International declarations on development by World leaders have also increased the awareness on the need to collectively improve the quality of life of people in developing countries. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) for example, have put emphasis on all aspects of development.

Improving the quality of life of the people continues to be one of the ultimate goals of government. The Government of Uganda has reformed the water and sanitation sector to ensure that these services are provided and managed with improved performance and cost effectiveness, the Government's burden is decreased while maintaining commitment to equitable and sustainable provision of services in Uganda.

The Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP), Uganda's national planning framework, clearly outlines the road map towards achieving this goal.

The Health Sector Strategic Plan (HSSP) aims to achieve its goals through universal delivery of the Uganda National Minimum Health Care Package (UNMHCP) as a core intervention. One of its elements is environmental health, which has placed emphasis on capacity building support for environmental health and sanitation.

This chapter discusses the issues related to water, toilet facilities, kitchen and bathroom facilities and household amenities.

2.2 Sources and Access to Safe Drinking Water

Access to safe water is measured as the percentage of the population that has a reasonable means of getting an adequate amount of water that is safe for drinking and for essential household activities, expressed as a percentage of the total population. It reflects the health of a country's people and the country's capacity to collect, clean, and distribute water to consumers.

Goal 7 of the MDG's aims among other targets to reduce by half the proportion of the population without access to sustainable safe drinking water. The realization of this goal shall remain a challenge unless adequate provision of safe drinking water is accessible to all in the right quantities. The increased access to safe drinking water results in improved health outcomes in form of reduced cases of water borne diseases like dysentery and cholera. The effects of using unsafe water sources are

well documented in the Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Project (UPPAP II)¹. It also results into increased productivity due to increased health days.

In the area of improved access to water supply, the PEAP emphasizes two benefits: improved health and savings in time while collecting water since the time burden of water collection falls mainly on women and girls in rural areas, and is known to consume a lot of their time. In addition, the HSSP in its endeavour to improve environmental health aims to increase the number of districts implementing water quality surveillance and promotion of safe water consumption.

Government has formulated the National Water Policy with the objectives of: promoting sustainable water resource management, in order to ensure conservation of water sources and the provision of water for all social and economic activities; ensuring that by 2005, 65 percent of the rural population and 80 percent of the urban population have sustainable safe water supply and sanitation facilities within easy reach. By 2015, the aim is that 100 percent of the population should have access to safe water and sanitation. Safe drinking water is an important ingredient of good health.

To achieve the above objectives, government is implementing several reforms in the Water sector and emphasises community ownership and management of water resources. The Policy envisages that protected springs and boreholes/wells fitted with hand pumps as the dominant technical choice for providing rural communities with drinking water.

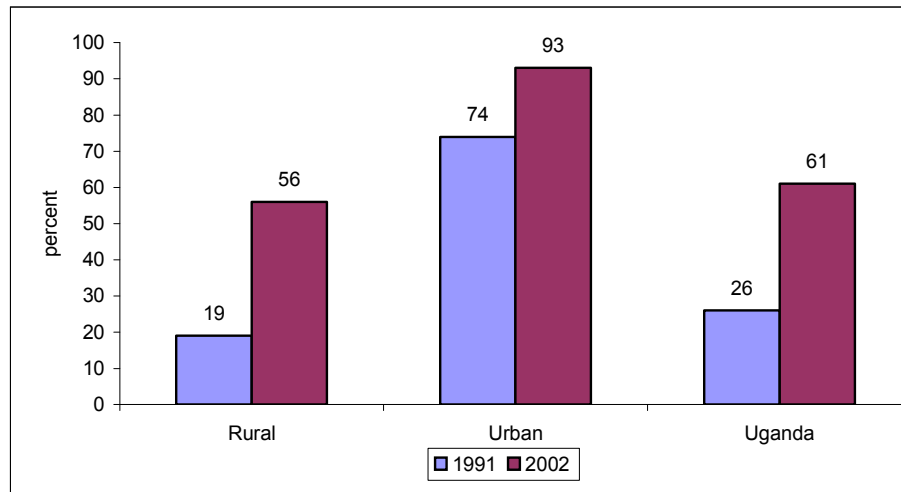
The 2002 Census collected information about the main sources of water used by households in Uganda. These included, tap/piped water, borehole, protected well/springs, Rain water, gravity flow scheme, open water sources, water truck/water vendor and any other source. Safe drinking water refers to water from the following sources; tap or stand pipes, boreholes, protected well/springs and gravity flow schemes.

Figure 2.1 shows that the percentage of the population with access to safe drinking water increased from 26 percent in 1991 to 61 percent in 2002. The increase was more pronounced in rural areas (where it increased from 19 percent to 56 percent) than in urban areas (from 74 percent in 1991 to 93 percent in 2002 than). This was probably due to the prioritization of the water sector in the 2000 PEAP, which improved water supplies to both rural and urban residents. New facilities introduced

¹ Water borne diseases were reported to have resulted into reduced productive time. Furthermore, they led to a reduction in the little resources that households have because of the need to pay for treatment. In addition, long distances were reported to have led to a lot of productive time being wasted at crowded water points and become barriers to use of safe water sources.

during the inter censal period include piped water schemes for 8 rural growth centres² among other developments. When Gravity flow schemes are included, the percentage of households with access to safe water increases to 64 percent.

Figure 2.1: Percentage of household with access to safe drinking water, 1991 to 2002



Whereas 61 percent of the households had access safe drinking water, a significant number (39 %) were still using unsafe drinking water sources. As already mentioned above, unsafe water sources provide sanctuary to water-borne diseases. This reduces the productive time due to diseases, and the little resources that households have are spent on treatment. Based on UPPAP II findings, although there has been an increase from 1 percent in 1991 to 12 percent in 2002 in households using piped water as a main source, the cost of water which ranges from 50 to 200 shillings per 20 litre jerry can was reported in most urban sites as a barrier to the use of safe water sources that leads poor people to resort to unsafe but free sources.

2.2.1 Sources of drinking water

Two thirds of the households in urban areas use tap water

Table 2.1 shows that two thirds (60 %) of the households in the urban areas use tap/piped water while most (44 %) of the rural households use rainwater and sources that are open or unprotected. The rural households were twice as likely to use boreholes compared to the urban households.

² Defined as trading centres with population ranging between 500-5000

Table 2.1: Percentage Distribution of Households by Source of Drinking Water

Selected Water Indicators	Residence		
	Urban	Rural	Total
Source of Drinking Water			
Tap/piped water	58.5	3.9	11.5
Borehole	12.4	26.0	24.1
Protected well/spring	20.7	22.7	22.5
Gravity flow scheme	1.4	3.0	2.8
Open water sources/rain water	6.8	44.4	39.1
Total	100	100	100

Table 2.2 shows that in the central region, tap water is predominantly a preserve of Kampala with more than 13 percent of households having access to it. Indeed when Kampala is excluded from central region, the percentage of households with access to tap water is about 10 percent. Other studies conducted in Kampala have shown that water from some of the protected wells/springs is not safe. This may be attributed to the slum conditions around the city that are not well served with piped water and proper facilities to dispose of waste.

Boreholes are more used in the Eastern and Northern regions compared to the western region where they are least used (9 %). On the other hand protected wells/springs are most used in the western (29 %) and least used in the Eastern region (21 %).

Table 2.2: Percentage distribution of households by main water source and Region

Source of Drinking water	Central excluding Kampala					
	Central	Eastern	Northern	Western	Uganda	
Tap/piped water	23.7	7.3	3.4	7.2	11.5	
Borehole	17.3	39.8	34.0	9.4	24.1	
Protected well/spring	21.2	18.1	22.1	28.5	22.5	
Rain water	1.1	0.2	0.8	1.3	0.9	
Gravity flow scheme	1.0	1.7	1.6	6.9	2.8	
Open water sources	34.6	32.0	37.4	45.6	37.3	
Other	1.2	0.7	0.8	1.0	0.9	
Total	100	100	100	100	100	

2.2.2 Access to safe water

The Water sector plans target for 2003/2004 was to have 55 percent with access to safe water. Although this was achieved, interventions need to be sustained to ensure that the success achieved so far is not lost. Table 2.3 below show that nine out of every twenty households were using unsafe water sources. This is a manifestation of the challenges facing public health, human development and the environment in general. This is aggravated by the fact that even in areas well served with safe water, water from safe sources is likely to be contaminated due to poor storage (PEAP 2004/5-2006/7).

Nearly two thirds of the households had access to safe water sources

Table 2.3 further shows that access to safe water sources was higher in urban areas (93 %) compared to rural areas (56 %). Despite the improvement, the current levels are still below the PEAP targets of 100 percent and 90 percent for urban and rural areas respectively by 2007/08 and the MDG target of 80 percent for all areas by the year 2015.

Table 2.3: Safe/Unsafe Drinking Water by urban/rural status

	Urban percent	Rural percent	Uganda percent
Safe Drinking Water	93.2	55.6	60.9
Unsafe Drinking Water	6.8	44.4	39.1
All households	100.0	100.0	100.0

Figure 2.2 shows regional distribution by access to safe drinking water. The eastern region reported the highest percentage (67) of households with access to safe water followed by the central region with 63 percent. The western region had the least percentage (52 %) of households accessing safe water.

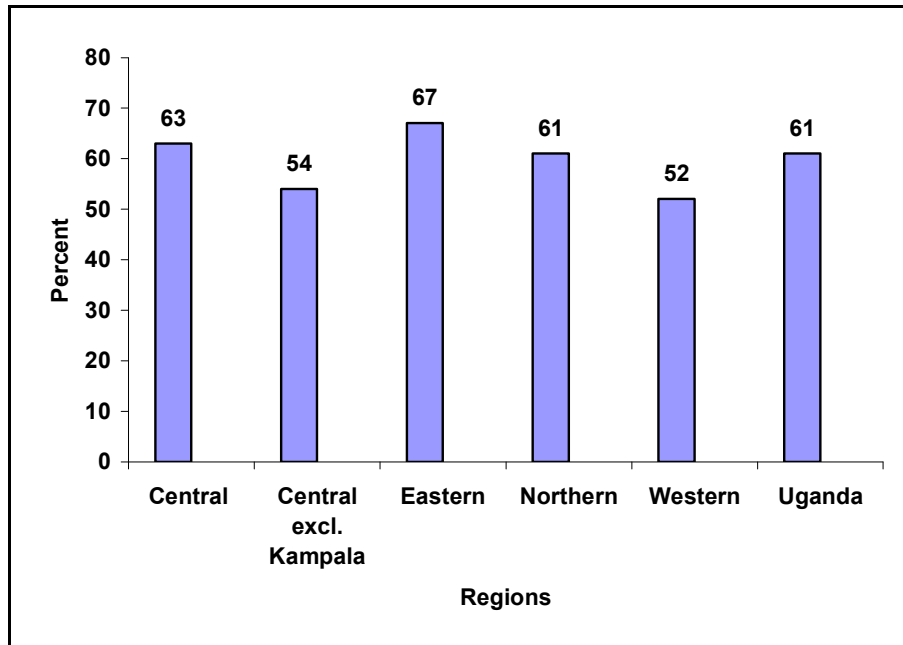
Figure 2.2: Percentage distribution of households by access to safe source of drinking water

Table 2.4 shows that access to safe water was lowest among households headed by the elderly (57 %) as well as those depending on subsistence farming (54 %). Female-headed households had a higher percentage of them using safe drinking water sources.

Table 2.4: Household's source of drinking water by selected characteristics of the head

Characteristic	Safe source	Unsafe source	Total
Household head			
Male	60	40	100
Female	64	36	100
Child-Headed (<18 years of age)	64	36	100
Adult headed (18-59 years of age)	62	38	100
Elderly headed (60+ years of age)	57	43	100
Main source of livelihood			
Subsistence farming	54	46	100
Employment income	81	19	100
Property Income	66	34	100
Other	65	35	100
Uganda	61	39	100

Appendix Table A1.1 shows that at district level, Kampala had the biggest percentage (98 %) of households with access to safe drinking water as compared to only 17 percent of the households in Sembabule district. Kyenjojo, Kamwenge, Rakai, Mubende and Kalangala had very low percentages of households with access to safe drinking water.

The above findings are consistent with UPPAP II findings which revealed that access to safe water was still a major problem for many people. Only the urban sites of Wakiso and Jinja reported using water from the National Water and Sewerage Corporation and only a third of the sites reported having at least access to a borehole. Gravity flow schemes were reported in Ntungamo and Bundibugyo and a few sites reported using protected springs. In the rest (30 % of sites), people are simply using unprotected and unsafe sources

As outlined in the Water Sector Policy document, provision of safe water should be accompanied by the well organized, cost effective and community based maintenance mechanisms to ensure sustainable access to these services.

2.2.3 Distance to Water sources

Long distances to safe water sources form part of the barriers to its use. UPPAP II findings show that long distances tend to discourage people from using safe water sources and instead opt for alternative sources that are nearer though unsafe. According to the Water Sector Strategic Plan the distance to an improved water source should be 1.5 km for rural areas and 0.2 for urban areas.

About 3 out of 4 households can access water within a distance of less than 1 km

The 2002 census asked households about the distance from their homes to the nearest water source. Table 2.5 shows that although about 3 out of 4 households can access water within a distance of less than 1 km, there was still a significant proportion of about 1 in 5 households (22 %) who travel more than 1 km to access water. Since the burden of fetching water mainly lies on women and the children, reducing on the distance travelled to water sources would increase time available to other productive activities undertaken by women. It would also increase school attendance for the children especially for the girl child.

Much as the percentage of households accessing safe water was high, other studies (The National Service Delivery Survey 2004) have shown that waiting time at safe water sources ranged between 1 hour and 1.5 hours depending on whether or not it was a wet or dry season. Thus the long distances and queues at the water points limited the use of safe water sources.

Table 2.5: Distribution of households by distance to water by locality

Distance to Nearest water source	Urban	Rural	Uganda
	percent	Percent	percent
On premises	21.6	3.3	5.8
Less than 1 km	74.4	72.4	72.6
	0	19.3	3.7
5kms +	0.4	5.1	4.4
All Households	100.0	100.0	100.0

2.3 Household Sanitation

Improved sanitation in households is a key element of environmental health and availability of latrines among other issues is of utmost importance to basic health standards in a home. In addition, clean and hygienic bathrooms are equally very important in maintaining health standards in homes.

2.3.1 Toilet facilities

Uganda still faces a sanitation crisis that debilitates and kills in large numbers, limiting economic growth, educational access, and life opportunities. Cases of cholera and other diseases associated with poor sanitation are sometimes abound in both rural and urban areas of the country. The Sanitation programme in Uganda is a responsibility of three ministries namely; Ministry of Health, Ministry of Education and Sports (for school sanitation) and Ministry of Water Lands and Environment.

Poor sanitation coupled with unsafe water sources poses a serious threat to health service delivery and increases the risk to water-borne diseases and illnesses due to poor hygiene. Poor sanitation has contributed immensely to the disease burden in Uganda. The existence of widespread poor sanitation facilities or lack of it is an indication of a society whose health is at stake. Every household should have safe toilet facilities and those where these are lacking are surely poor households. Improved sanitation is viewed in terms of accessibility by households to latrines, and other forms of waste disposal. Safe disposal of human waste reduces disease transmission. The HSSP specifically aims at improvement in safe waste disposal using latrine coverage and training of extension workers engaged in hygiene promotion.

The settlements in Uganda are scattered and many households privately invest in these services. According to the UPPAP II, the cost of constructing a latrine with the required specifications is out of reach of the many poor people. Thus, involvement of the community in the provision of sanitation services is an important element in the fight against indignity and diseases caused by lack of proper human waste disposal.

The 2002 census collected information on selected aspects of sanitation including toilet facilities, solid waste disposal, and bathroom and kitchen facilities. Comparison between the two population and housing censuses shows that the percentage of households without latrines reduced from 29 percent in 1991 to 16 percent in 2002. In the northern region, there was a reduction in the number of households without latrines from 64 percent in 1991 to 39 percent in 2002. In absolute terms, by 2002, about 364,000 households in the northern region still, did not use toilets.

Close to a third of the households did not have a safe toilet facility

The 2002 Census findings indicate that toilet coverage was not uniform in Uganda. Table 2.6 shows that nearly one third of the households did not have a toilet facility (14 % were using an uncovered pit latrine and 17 % without a facility at all). In the rural areas, about one in five households did not have a latrine. There are more households without latrines in the rural areas (19 %) than in urban areas (2.4 %). Traditionally the pit latrine (covered or uncovered) is the most common type of toilet used by in both rural and urban areas. About 14 percent in rural areas and 7 percent in urban areas) were using uncovered pit latrines. However, uncovered pit latrines are also potential sources of ill health and pose a potential health risk to users and households in the neighbourhood. This was in agreement with the UPPAP II findings that other forms of human waste disposal are used in places without toilets. Households without toilet facilities in urban areas are likely to be found in slum and crowded peri-urban areas around major cities/towns.

Table 2.6: Percentage Distribution of Households with Toilet Facilities by Residence

Toilet Facility Characteristics	Urban	Rural	Total	
Type of Facility				
Covered Pit Latrine		72.6	63.3	64.6
VIP Latrine		9.8	2.3	3.4
Flush Toilet		8.7	0.7	1.8
Uncovered Pit Latrine		6.8	15.2	14.1
No Toilet Facility		2.1	18.5	16.2
Major Toilet Facilities				
With a Safe Toilet		91.1	66.3	69.7
Without a Safe Toilet		8.9	33.7	30.3
Total		100	100	100

As reported in the PEAP 2004/05-2007/08, households in peri-urban areas have other forms of human waste disposal including 'flying toilets' where people ease themselves in polythene bags and discard them in drainage channels, dust bins etc.

Table 2.7 shows that regional variations existed from 95 percent in central region to 61 percent in northern region. In absolute terms, by 2002, about 363,825 households

in the northern region still, did not use toilets. Generally, the people without toilets are from the northern and eastern regions.

Table 2.7: Percentage distribution of toilet facilities by major categories by Regions

Major Toilet categories	Central	Central Excluding Kampala	Eastern	Northern	Western	Uganda
No Toilet Facility	5.1	6.2	23.3	38.9	5.9	16.2
VIP Latrine	6.2	4.7	2.0	1.7	2.5	3.4
Covered Pit Latrine	69.1	68.5	56.1	49.3	78.5	64.6
Uncovered Pit Latrine	16.4	19.0	16.9	9.5	11.8	14.1
Flush Toilet	3.2	1.5	1.7	0.6	1.2	1.8
All Households	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 2.8 shows that the incidence of having safe toilet facilities (covered pit, VIP latrine and flush toilet) decreased with age of household head. It was 67 percent for child-headed households as compared to 65 percent and 63 percent for those of adults and the elderly respectively. Households that depend on subsistence farming (19 %) and property income (15 %) were more likely not to have a toilet facility compared to the others who depend on other sources of income.

Table 2.8: Percentage distribution of safe toilet facilities by selected characteristics of head

Characteristic	Covered			Uncover		Total
	pit latrine	VIP latrine	Flush Toilet	ed pit latrine	No toilet facility	
Head						
Child-Headed (<18 years)	66.7	4.6	1.7	13.8	13.1	100
Adult headed (18-59 years)	64.9	3.6	2	13.8	15.7	100
Elderly headed (60+ years)	62.8	2.0	0.9	15.5	18.8	100
Main source of livelihood						
Subsistence farming	62.4	1.5	0.6	16.1	19.4	100
Employment income	73.4	8.5	5.6	8	4.5	100
Property Income	64.5	6.3	2.3	11.5	15.4	100
Other	60	4.3	1.8	13.5	20.4	100
Uganda	64.6	3.4	1.8	14.1	16.2	100

Appendix Table A1.1 shows that at the district level, 93 percent of the households in Nakapiripirit had no toilet facilities whereas less than 1 percent in Kampala district fell in this category. Lack of toilet facilities was also high in the districts of Moroto, Katakwi, Pader, Kaberamaido and Kitgum

Lack of or failure to use toilet may be due to several factors. Whereas culture has been alleged to be a possible reason, level of education of the household head was also investigated. Table 2.9 shows that households headed by persons who never had formal education were more likely not to have toilet facilities as compared to those with some level of education.

Table 2.9: Percentage distribution of toilet facilities by education level of Household Head

Education Level of Household head	No Toilet Facility	Uncovered Pit Latrine	Covered Pit Latrine	VIP Latrine	Flush Toilet
None	26.6	16.1	55.1	1.6	0.7
Primary	15.9	15.5	65.3	2.5	0.9
Secondary	7.2	10.2	73.5	6.2	2.9
Above Secondary	3.5	5.3	70.6	9.5	11.1

2.4 Solid Waste Management

Another aspect of sanitation is solid waste management. Proper disposal of solid waste is critical to improved health and human development. Households were asked about the most common method of solid waste disposal. This mainly referred to refuse from households.

Table 2.10 shows that 40 percent of the households disposed of solid waste by simply throwing it in the gardens. However, in so doing, there was no mechanism of isolating harmful solid waste from the rest of the solid waste. The widespread use of polythene bags and the 'haphazard' disposal mechanism by households spells danger to the soils in the gardens and the environment in general.

The other common methods of disposal are dumping on a heap (24 %) and throwing in a pit (23.5). Use of skip bins was very low especially in the rural areas.

Table 2.10: Percentage distribution of Households by Method of Solid Waste Disposal

Method	Urban	Rural	Uganda
Garden	12.1	44.7	40.2
Heap	20.4	24.3	23.8
Pit	27.6	21.8	22.6
Burning	13.0	7.4	8.2
Skip bin	25.9	0.7	4.3
Other	1.0	1.0	1.0
Total	100	100	100

Table 2.11 shows that solid waste disposal in gardens was the most common method of waste disposal in all regions except the northern region where more than a half of the households used heap. The use of heaps in northern region may be due to the majority of households being found in Internally Displaced People (IDP) camps where their access to gardens was very limited.

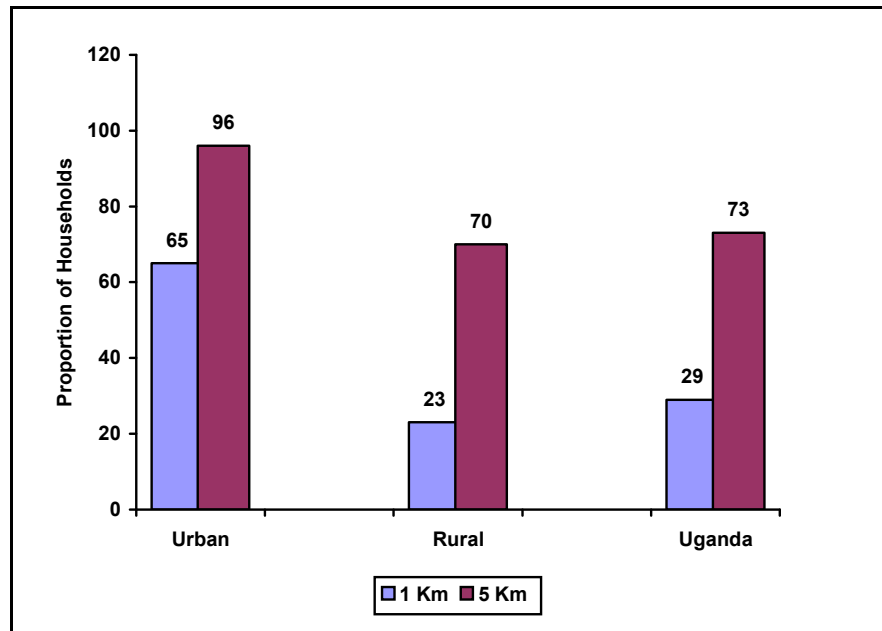
Table 2.11: Distribution of households by main method of Solid Waste Disposal by Regions

Methods	Central	Central Without Kampala	Eastern	Northern	Western
Skip bin	10.2	2.3	1.8	1.1	1.9
Pit	17.3	17.6	27.3	26.5	21.6
Heap	13.3	12.8	19.2	53.2	19.5
Garden	44.3	53.9	43.5	12.0	52.2
Burning	14.0	12.6	7.0	6.1	4.0
Other	0.9	0.8	1.0	1.2	0.9
All Households	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

2.5 Distance to a Health Facility

The distance to a health facility has a strong impact on accessing health care. Information was collected on distance to a health facility either government owned or private for no-profit organisations. This was as perceived by the respondent since it was not measured. Figure 2.3 shows that 70 percent of the rural households and 96 percent of the urban households were within 5 kilometres from a health facility, which is the recommended distance by Ministry of Health.

Figure 2.3: Proportion of Households within 5 Km from the Nearest Health Facility by Residence



Appendix Table A1.1 shows that the proportion of households within 5 km was lowest in Northern region (66 percent) and highest in Central region (78 percent). Kalangala in Central, Kumi in Eastern and Nebbi in northern had the least proportion (less than 50 percent) with in five Km from the health facilities.

2.6 Household Amenities

Use of clean power through provision of alternative energy sources would yield two benefits; first it would reduce the heavy reliance on wood fuel as the main source of fuel for cooking hence protecting the environment and second, it would also improve the health of especially women through reduced exposure to smoke from wood fuels. Energy for cooking and lighting constitute a significant proportion of total energy requirements in rural areas. Yet the quality of end product (heat and light) leaves much to be desired and the rural poor are still lagging behind in this aspect. The mass media rarely highlight the plight of rural poor who have the same aspirations as the rest of the country of getting clean fuel for cooking and lighting.

2.6.1 Fuel used for lighting

Lighting fuel used by a household partly determines the quality of the living environment. It is desirable that every household uses clean fuels in terms of emissions. Households use various forms of energy for lighting. Table 2.12 shows that paraffin was the main source of fuel for lighting. About 87 percent of all households reported using paraffin. It was used both in the paraffin candles commonly known as *tadooba*^{3*} (76 percent) and in lanterns (11 percent).

Paraffin is the main source of energy used for lighting (87%)

Use of electricity as the main source for lighting was reported by only eight (8) percent of all households. The table further shows that urban households were more likely to use electricity as a source of lighting energy source (39 percent) compared to only 3 percent in the rural areas. The current levels are well below the PEAP target of increasing access to electricity among rural households to 10 percent through the implementation of the Rural Electrification Strategy. The low utilization rates for electricity could be due to the high power tariffs which encourages use of alternative and cheaper fuels. It is hoped that the Rural Electrification Programme would increase the use of clean and safe energy as alternatives to the current forms that are being used. There were 4 percent of households that used firewood as a source of lighting.

* A *Tadooba* is a local open paraffin lamp with a wick

Table 2.12: Percentage Distribution of Households by Type of Fuel and Residence

Type of Fuel for Light	Urban	Rural	Uganda
Paraffin (<i>Tadooba</i>)	33.4	82.8	75.9
Paraffin (Lantern)	24.4	8.6	10.8
Electricity	39.3	2.7	7.8
Gas	0.2	0.2	0.2
Candle wax	2.3	0.5	0.7
Firewood	0.3	4.3	3.8
Other	0.2	0.9	0.8
Total	100	100	100

The use of paraffin remains the main source of fuel for light in all regions. The use of electricity varied between regions with Central having the highest proportion (19 percent) and Northern region having the lowest (1.2 percent). The Northern region had one in every ten households using firewood for lighting.

Table 2.13: Percentage distribution of Fuel used for lighting by Region

Fuel for Light	Uganda	Central Excluding Kampala	Central	Eastern	Northern	Western
Electricity	7.8	10.7	19.2	3.4	1.2	3.3
Gas	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
Paraffin (Lantern)	10.8	11.6	14.2	7.3	11.0	10.2
Paraffin (<i>Tadooba</i>)	75.9	75.3	63.9	85.2	73.4	82.8
Candle wax	0.7	0.7	1.2	0.6	0.3	0.6
Firewood	3.8	1.4	1.2	3.1	10.6	2.6
Cow dung or grass (reeds)	0.7	-	0.0	0.2	3.1	0.3
Other (specify)	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1

Use of tadooba is high especially in households headed by the elderly (83%)

Table 2.14 shows the use of tadooba was equally high among households but especially those headed by the elderly (83 %). Except in the children-headed households, and those whose main source of livelihood was employment income, the sex of head of household had no influence on lighting fuel used by household. For both these household categories, male headed households had a higher incidence of tadooba. Among the children-headed households, use of tadooba was more prominent (71 %) especially among the male as compared to 60 percent for the female heads. On the other hand, it was 44 percent and 34 percent for the employment income households headed by males and females respectively.

Table 2.14: Percentage distribution of households by type of fuel used for Lighting by selected characteristics of head

Characteristics	Paraffin	Paraffin	Electricity	Others	Total
	Tadooba	Lantern			
Head					
Male	76.4	10.7	7.5	5.3	100
Female	74.2	11.1	8.7	6	100
0-17	70.8	12.7	10.7	5.8	100
18-59	74.5	11.6	8.8	5.1	100
60+	83.3	6.8	2.3	7.5	100
Main Source of Livelihood					
Subsistence Farming	87.3	6.3	0.7	5.7	100
Employment Income	44	24	28.9	3	100
Property Income	60.5	18.4	15.8	5.2	100
Others	68.9	12	9	10.1	100
Total	75.9	10.8	7.8	5.5	100

The use of tadooba has health implications as the soot inhaled can cause respiratory disorders. Respiratory infections are third commonest cause of illness. Although there is no government policy to abolish tadoobas, there are efforts to encourage household use of safe fuels like solar for lighting. However, since these options are more expensive than the tadoobas, the government policy of enhancing household incomes is an indirect policy option to tackle the problem.

From Appendix Table A 1.2, district comparisons however shows that usage of electricity for lighting is still very low in most districts with the exception of Kampala (54 %), Wakiso (31 %), Jinja (15 %) and Mukono (10 %). All the other districts had less than 10 percent of the households reporting electricity as their main source of lighting. The use of tadooba was most common in the districts of Mayuge, Kamuli, Pallisa, Kyenjojo and Kibaale respectively.

2.6.2 Fuel for cooking

Cooking fuel, like that of lighting affects the living environment of household members. The fuel should be clean in terms of ease of handling, as well as limited emissions if any. Household members involved in cooking directly above the fire are exposed to episodes of high pollution levels. In Uganda, cooking is mainly done by women and the girl child. This makes them more prone to smoke related illnesses. The smoke from burning these fuels turns kitchens into polluted chambers. Particles from fuels like wood and charcoal make lungs vulnerable to acute lower respiratory infections. In addition, there is evidence to link indoor air pollution to asthma, tuberculosis, low birth weight and infant mortality and cataracts (Ezati M. and Kammen DM 2002).

Over 80 % used wood fuel (firewood and charcoal) as the main source

Households were asked what the most common fuel they used for cooking was. Over 80 percent used fire wood fuel as the main source of fuel while 15 percent used charcoal. The implication is that more than 95 percent of households in Uganda depend on wood fuel as the main source of fuel for cooking. The situation has only changed marginally from 98 percent in 1991 to 97 percent in 2002. Wood fuel is the dominant fuel used across all regions.

Table 2.15 further shows that more than two thirds (67 %) of the households in urban areas were using charcoal while firewood was used by 22 percent. In the rural areas households tend to use firewood (91 %). Use of electricity and paraffin for cooking is almost a preserve of the urban households. Wood fuel remains the most dominant source of fuel for cooking. Overall, 97 percent of the households reported using either firewood or charcoal. However, there was a marked difference in the mix by residence.

Table 2.15: Percentage distribution of households by type of Fuel mainly used for cooking by residence

Cooking Fuel	Urban	Rural	Uganda
Firewood	22.1	91.3	81.6
Charcoal	66.8	7	15.4
Paraffin	4.0	0.9	1.3
Electricity	4.3	0.3	0.8
Gas	0.7	0.1	0.2
Cow dung or grass (reeds)	0.1	0.2	0.2
Biogas	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other	1.9	0.2	0.4
Total	100	100	100

Central region uses more charcoal (31 %) than any other region

Wood fuel is the dominant fuel used across all regions. The central region uses more charcoal (31 %) than any other region. This may be due to the higher rate of urbanization in these regions compared to the rest of the regions.

Table 2.16: Percentage distribution of households by type of Fuel mainly used for cooking by Regions

Cooking Fuel	Central excluding Kampala	Central	Eastern	Northern	Western	Uganda
Electricity	1.0	2.1	0.4	0.1	0.4	0.8
Gas	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Paraffin	1.9	2.6	0.7	0.4	0.9	1.3
Charcoal	19.1	31.1	10.5	8.0	7.0	15.4
Firewood	77.1	62.8	87.8	90.9	91.1	81.6
Cow dung or grass (reeds)	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2
Biogas	-	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other	0.6	1.0	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Table 2.17 shows nearly all households depended on wood fuel irrespective of sex of the household heads. Among households dependent on subsistence farming as well as those headed by the older persons, the use of wood for cooking was slightly above the national average. Heavy dependency on wood for cooking is not only environmentally dangerous, but also negatively affects peoples' health because of the inhaled smoke.

Table 2.17: Percentage distribution of households by type of Fuel mainly used for cooking by selected characteristics of head

Characteristics	Firewood	Charcoal	Paraffin	Electricity	Others
Sex of Head					
Male	82.2	14.6	1.4	0.9	0.9
Female	79.5	18.2	1.1	0.7	0.5
Age of Head					
Child Headed (< 18 years)	65.8	27.9	2.8	1	2.5
Adult Headed (18-59 years)	79.2	17.5	1.4	1	0.9
Elderly Headed (60+ years)	94.9	3.8	0.6	0.2	0.4
Main Source of livelihood					
subsistence farming	96.6	2.4	0.6	0.1	0.3
Earned Income	40.1	51.5	3.2	3.2	2
Property Income	64	32.3	1.6	1.1	1.1
Others	71.3	24.3	2	0.7	1.7
Total	81.6	15.4	1.3	0.8	0.8

Appendix Table A1.3 shows that generally use of electricity for cooking is very low. Even in Kampala City, the percentage of households using electricity for cooking was only 6 percent. Wood fuel is the most predominant source of fuel used for cooking.

The use of alternative but cleaner sources of fuel for cooking is still out of reach of many households. The extensive use of firewood and charcoal promotes depletion of forests. It also increases the risks to natural hazards like drought due to deforestation. However, the rural poor depend on the environment for their livelihood. This coupled with deforestation further compounds the environmental problem. Although there are attempts to promote alternative energy sources through the Rural Electrification Programme, these may have for the time being been unaffordable to majority of the rural population.

2.6.3: Kitchen facilities

The issue of effects of cooking fuels is pertinent when one considers the type of kitchen that a household has. Ideally, households using “unclean” cooking fuels should have kitchens outside of the main living house. The types of kitchen used for preparing meals reflect how the household is exposed to respiratory infections and other diseases caused by certain cooking facilities.

The Census sought to know the types of kitchen used by household members. The Census sought to know the types of bathrooms and kitchens used by household. These were classified according to whether they are inside the house, outside but built, outside and makeshift or none at all. Table 2.18 shows that One in every 2

households uses a kitchen separate from the main house. Only 6 percent of the households had kitchen inside their houses and the practice is more in urban than in rural areas. About one in four households (26 percent) do not have a kitchen at all and the proportion is higher in urban areas(40 percent) than in rural areas (24 percent).

Table 2.18: Percentage distribution of households by Type of Kitchen by Residence

Type of Kitchen	Uganda	Urban	Rural
Inside	5.7	13.4	4.4
Outside, built	51.3	28.6	55.0
Outside, makeshift	17.0	17.7	16.9
None	26.0	40.3	23.6

Table 2.19 shows that across all regions, kitchens built outside as separate units were the most common type used by households with Western region leading all other regions. The Central region had the highest number of households without kitchen.

Table 2.19: Percentage distribution of households by type of Kitchen by Regions

Type of Kitchen	Uganda	Central excluding Kampala	Central	Eastern	Northern	Western
Inside	5.7	3.8	6.2	4.6	10.0	3.0
Outside, built	51.3	48.6	43.3	55.4	47.9	59.4
Outside, makeshift	17.0	18.1	18.7	17.2	14.1	16.9
None	26.0	29.5	31.8	22.8	28.0	20.7

Table 2.20 shows that the incidence of having an outside⁴ kitchen increased with age of household head. Outside kitchen were also found to be most prevalent among households that depended on subsistence farming (75 percent) compared to those that depended on either earned income (54 percent) or property income (61 percent). Although the proportion of households that had an inside kitchen was twice high the national average, this should not be of great concern since a fairly sizeable⁵ proportion of these households used electricity for cooking, paraffin, or gas and therefore had no or limited hazards of smoke, heat and ash emission.

⁴ Outside kitchen were either built (for the majority) or make shift.

⁵ Compared to other household categories using electricity, paraffin or gas

Table 2.20: Type of kitchen by age and main source of livelihood of household head

	Inside	Outside	None	Total
Sex of Head				
Male	5.6	69.3	25.2	100
Female	6.2	65.3	28.6	100
Age of Head				
Child Headed (< 18 years)	5.0	53.3	41.8	100
Adult Headed (18-59 years)	5.8	67.7	26.5	100
Elderly Headed (60+ years)	5.2	72.5	22.4	100
Main Source of livelihood				
Subsistence farming	4.1	75.3	20.6	100
Earned Income	10.5	54.1	35.4	100
Property Income	6.5	61.3	32.2	100
Others	6.3	51.7	42.1	100
Total	5.7	68.3	26	100

Appendix Table A1.1 shows that households with kitchens inside the houses were commonest in the districts of Kitgum, Gulu, Pader, Kapchorwa, Kampala and Jinja respectively. This phenomenon is a worrying trend either in those districts where most houses are single rooms or huts and the main fuel used for cooking is firewood that emits smoke. For the households that had kitchen inside the dwelling unit, it was very unhealthy given that most households use firewood for cooking.

2.6.4: Bathroom facility

As part of basic sanitation, proper management of waste water is vital to good health within households. Information on the type of bathrooms is used as a proxy indicator of liquid waste disposal. About one third of the households were either using built bathrooms (35 %), makeshift bathrooms (35 %) or did not have any bathing facility (31 %). The proportion of households without a bathing facility in rural areas was 71 percent compared to 33 percent in the urban areas. Overall, the proportion of households with no bath facility at all decreased from 47 percent in 1991 to 31 percent in 2002. One in every three households used an outside makeshift bathing facility. On the other hand, almost an equal percentage (31 %) of the households did not use any bathing facility. There has nevertheless been some progress in number of households with bathing facilities. The percentage of households which used bathing facilities increased from 49 percent in 1991 to 69 percent in 2002.

Urban households are more likely to use a bathing facility than those in rural areas. Overall, 91 percent of the households in urban areas use some form of bathing facility compared to 66 percent in the rural areas.

Table 2.21: Percentage distribution of households by type of bathing facility by locality

Type of Bathroom	Uganda	Urban	Rural
Inside	4.0	12.9	2.5
Outside, built	30.6	54.7	26.7
Outside, makeshift	34.6	23.1	36.5
None	30.9	9.4	34.4

At regional level, the pattern and types of bathing facilities depicted at national level were similar across all regions. The northern and western regions led among those with no bathing facilities.

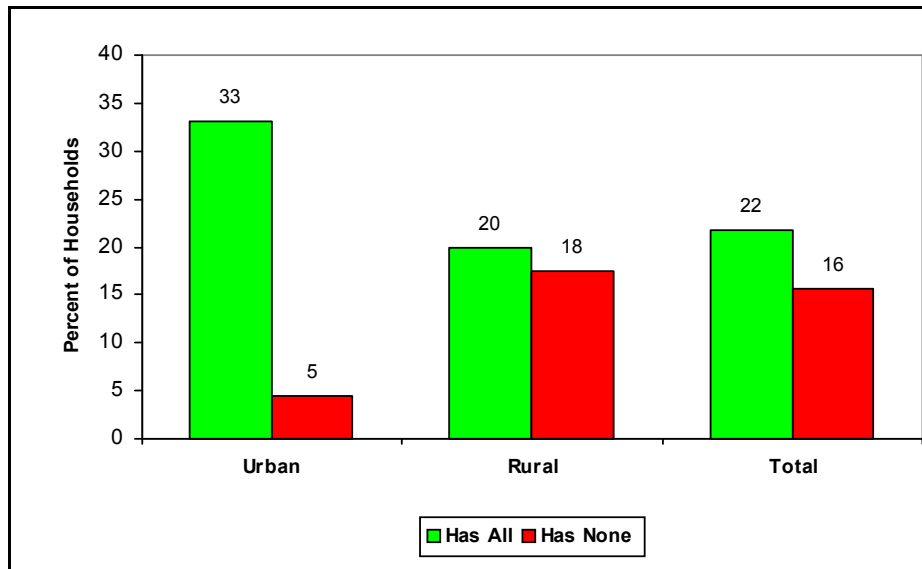
Table 2.22: Percentage distribution of households by type of Bathroom by locality

Type of bathroom	Uganda	Central	Eastern	Northern	Western
Inside	4.0	7.5	2.8	1.9	2.5
Outside, built	30.6	43.9	25.0	24.6	24.6
Outside, makeshift	34.6	25.9	43.3	35.3	35.8
None	30.9	22.8	29.0	38.2	37.1

Figure 2.4 shows that only 22 percent of the households had all the basic household facilities (a covered pit latrine, built kitchen, and built bathroom) and hence fit for human habitation. The percentage is higher in the urban areas than rural areas.

About one in every six households (1:6.5) did not have any of the facilities. Rural households were more likely to lack all the three facilities compared to urban.

Figure 2.4: Proportion of Households with all or none of the Basic Household Facilities (Built Kitchen, Built Bathroom and Covered Toilet)



2.7 Summary

The housing sector recorded a general improvement compared to the situation in 1991. Units with permanent roofs were 56 percent while those with permanent walls were 28 percent and those with permanent floors were 22 percent.

Generally, household ownership of basic items and consumption of basic necessities was low particularly in the areas where income poverty is pervasive i.e. the north and east. In less than half of households each child had an individual blanket and each household member had at least a pair of shoes. Twenty percent of households had at least set of clothing for each member; while three quarters of the households used paraffin (tadooba) for lighting.

Use of wood fuel for cooking was almost universal as only three percent were using other types of fuel. This is a threat to the environment as the country faces massive deforestation. Access to safe drinking water is not universal. Use of safe toilet facilities was also not universal as 31 percent lacked safe facilities.

The rural households fared worse than their urban counterparts. Female headed households, despite the low asset base showed a relatively higher level of welfare for their members. This re-affirms the view that women spend most of their incomes on improving the welfare of their household members.

Increasing access to safe water and in sufficient quantities and quality together with improved sanitation continues to be the cornerstone of improved public health. Census findings show that progress has been made in the provision of safe water and sanitation services. However, more efforts should be invested in developing the sector further to ensure universal provision of these basic services to all people in Uganda.

In the area of natural resources protection, there are still major challenges that need to be addressed. The majority of the households depend mainly on wood fuel for cooking. It is important that alternative and cheaper energy sources are explored to reduce on the depletion of tree cover.

The use of alternative but cleaner sources of fuel for cooking is still out of reach of many households. The extensive use of firewood and charcoal promotes depletion of forests. It also increases the risks to natural hazards like drought due to deforestation. However, the rural poor depend on the environment for their livelihood. This coupled with deforestation further compounds the environmental problem. Although there are attempts to promote alternative energy sources through the Rural Electrification Programme, these may have for the time being been unaffordable to majority of the rural population.

CHAPTER 3: HOUSING CONDITIONS

3.1 Background

Housing provides shelter to people to protect them against elements of nature and any possible danger. Housing represents one of the basic human needs that have a profound impact on the health, welfare, social attitudes and economic productivity of the individual. It is also one of the best indications of a person's standard of living and of his or her place in society.

The study of Housing is not limited to than just a shelter but it encompasses all the ancillary services and community facilities which are necessary to human well-being. These include the land, utilities and services (infrastructure) as well as the structure or shelter itself. Housing therefore refers to the totality of the built environment that supports human livelihood. The analysis of accessibility to other services has already been presented in Chapter 2.

3.1.1 Government policy and legal framework on housing

In Uganda just like in many other developing countries today, the provision of housing is a responsibility of individual households. As part of the overall economic liberalization policy, Government adopted a policy of divesting itself from direct supply of housing units. It assumed the role of an enabler to facilitate other stakeholders to play an active role in increasing the housing stock and improving the quality of housing. Government adopted this policy framework as a result of its increasing inability to construct houses for its employees let alone maintain the existing stock in the pool housing scheme.

3.1.2 Sources of Data

The Population and Housing Census is a major undertaking through which housing data is normally collected. The 2002 Census collected data on the housing conditions of the households in terms of land tenure; type of HU, the state of permanency of the Dwelling Unit with respect to materials used the type of Dwelling Unit, the size (number of rooms) and the occupancy tenure.

During the inter-censal periods, UBOS collects housing data through National Household Surveys. Other sources of data used include the 1991 Population and Housing Census and reports from the sector ministries

3.2 Construction Materials for Dwelling Units

The Construction materials of a dwelling not only indicate the durability and permanency of a Dwelling Unit but also serve as a proxy measure of the socio-economic status of the household. Some construction materials also pose a health

risk to the occupants since they serve as a good breeding ground and habitat for pests. This section covers materials used for construction of walls, floor and roof.

3.2.1 Roofing Materials

56 % of the households lived in Dwelling Units roofed with permanent roofing materials

Roofing materials were grouped into permanent roofing materials (Iron sheet, tiles, Asbestos, concrete) and temporary materials (tins and thatch). Table 3.1 shows that 56 percent of the households in Uganda were living in Dwelling Units roofed with permanent roofing materials while 44 percent had temporary roofing materials. The urban /rural distribution reflected that the urban areas had more than 88 percent of the households in the Dwelling Units roofed with permanent materials compared with 50 percent in the rural areas.

Table 3.1 further shows that between 1991 and 2002, the proportion of Dwelling Units with iron sheets increased significantly from 76 percent to 82 percent in the urban areas and from 32 percent to 50 percent in the rural areas registering an overall nationwide increment of 16 percentage points i.e. from 38 percent in 1991 to 54 percent in 2002.

Nationally, the proportion of DUs roofed with thatch declined from 52 percent in 1991 to 43 percent in 2002. In the urban areas, the proportion stagnated at 11 percent, while in the rural areas it registered a decline of 10 percent over the same period. Despite the decline in the proportion, the actual number of persons living in houses roofed with temporary materials increases by about 300,000 persons.

Table 3.1: Distribution of Dwelling Units by Roofing Materials and place of residence, 1991 and 2002

Roofing Materials	1991			2002		
	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total
Permanent roofing	86.2	33.1	39.9	88.1	51	56.3
Iron Sheets	76.1	32.1	37.8	82.3	50.3	54.8
Tiles	4.0	0.4	0.8	2.8	0.3	0.7
Asbestos	3.6	0.5	0.9	1.8	0.3	0.5
Concrete	2.5	0.1	0.4	1.2	0.1	0.3
Temporary roofing	13.6	60.7	54.4	11.9	48.9	43.7
Tins	2.1	1.4	1.5	0.2	0.1	0.1
Thatch	10.8	59.1	52.6	11.3	48.2	43
Others	0.7	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.6
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Iron sheets are generally most used irrespective of the socio-economic status of household Head. Female headed households have a higher proportion using iron sheets compared to their male counter parts. Among households that predominantly

depend on subsistence farming for a livelihood, thatch is more commonly used. Variations do exist by marital status, the singles are least likely to use thatch for their roofs.

Table 3.2: Percentage distribution of Household by Roofing Materials and selected characteristics of Household Head

Characteristics of Household Head	Iron Sheets	Tiles	Asbestos	Concrete	Tins	Thatch	Others	Total
Sex								
Male	53.0	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.1	44.8	0.6	100
Female	60.7	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.2	37.3	0.5	100
Marital Status								
Single	68.9	1.2	0.8	0.6	0.2	27.5	0.8	100
Married	52.0	0.7	0.5	0.2	0.1	45.9	0.5	100
Widowed	58.0	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.2	40.4	0.4	100
Divorced/Separated	60.6	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.2	37.4	0.7	100
Residence								
Urban	82.3	2.8	1.8	1.2	0.2	11.3	0.4	100
Rural	50.3	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1	48.2	0.6	100
Regions								
Central	80.5	1.3	0.8	0.5	0.2	16.1	0.7	100
Central Excl Kampala City	77.6	0.6	0.6	0.2	0.2	20	0.8	100
Eastern	45.7	0.6	0.6	0.3	0.2	52.3	0.4	100
Northern	8.8	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	89.9	0.6	100
Western	66.5	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.1	32	0.6	100
Main source of livelihood								
Subsistence								
farming	46.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	52.6	0.5	100
Employment								
income	79.7	1.9	1.4	0.8	0.1	15.5	0.6	100
Property Income	65.1	0.9	0.5	0.3	0.2	32.2	0.7	100
Other	58.2	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.3	38.7	1.3	100
Total	54.8	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.1	43	0.6	100

Table 3.2 shows that iron sheets are predominant across all regions except the Northern region, where more than 90 percent of the units are thatched, followed by Eastern with 52 percent and the least proportion of units with thatched roofs (16 percent) is in the Central region. However, the Qualitative Assessment Study of the UNHS 2005/06 found that grass thatched dwellings were preferred in Adjumani district because of the weather conditions, since they are cooler and more comfortable in the hot season.

90 % of the Dwelling Units in Northern Uganda have thatched roofs

3.2.2 Wall Materials

Concrete, cement blocks, stones, burnt/stabilized brick are classified as permanent wall materials while unburnt bricks (bonded with cement or mud), wood and mud and pole are considered temporary materials.

Table 3.3 shows that three out of every four households (74 percent) were living in Dwelling Units built with temporary wall materials and hence may require regular maintenance. In the urban areas, more than two thirds of the households live in units constructed with temporary materials. Generally, Dwelling Units built with permanent wall materials more than doubled between 1991 and 2002 while those with temporary wall materials declined by about 20 percent

Mud and pole was the most dominant type of wall materials and was more prevalent in the rural areas (55 percent) compared to the urban (17 percent). There was a three fold significant increment among the share of Dwelling Units built with burnt bricks/stabilized brick walls (7 percent to 21 percent) while units built with brick walls bonded with mud doubled (9 percent to 20 percent). Dwelling Units with walls built out of mud and poles declined from 75 percent in 1991 to 49 percent in 2002.

Major changes in the urban areas were also noted in units built with cement blocks that declined from 17 percent to 9 percent, burnt / stabilized bricks that almost doubled from 27 percent to 50 percent and mud and poles that declined from 41 percent to 17 percent.

In the rural areas, the use of burnt / stabilized bricks increased almost by four times and mud bonded unburnt bricks more than doubled while mud and poles declined significantly from 80 percent in 1991 to 55 percent in 2002.

Table 3.3 Percentage distribution of Dwelling Units by type of wall material by residence, 1991 and 2002

Wall Materials	1991			2002		
	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total
Permanent wall	45.8	6.8	12.0	64	19.9	26.1
Concrete	2.5	0.3	0.6	4.4	0.8	1.3
Cement blocks	16.5	2.0	3.9	8.9	1.7	2.7
Stones	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2
Burnt/stabilized brick	26.5	4.4	7.3	50.4	17.2	21.9
Temporary wall	54.3	93.2	88.2	36.0	80.1	73.8
Unburnt bricks with cement*	—	—	—	5.5	1.8	2.3
Unburnt bricks with mud*	10.9	8.8	9.1	11.9	21.0	19.7
Wood	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.7	1.4	1.3
Mud and pole	40.9	80.3	75.2	16.5	54.8	49.4
Other	2.1	3.5	3.3	1.4	1.1	1.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

* The 1991 Census classification did not differentiate between materials used for bonding unburnt bricks.

The high proportion of units with bricks, mud and poles present substantial demand on the wood and timber resources with which are required for both baking bricks and general construction. Wide use of trees in this process increases the rate of depletion of forests.

Table 3.4 gives the distribution of households by type of wall material and selected characteristics of household heads. The Central region had 51 percent of the units built with permanent walls materials compared to Eastern region with 23 percent. Western region registered 12 percent while Northern had the lowest proportion of 9 percent.

It is important to note that while the Western region had 81 percent of the Dwelling Units built in mud with bush poles, these materials were less pronounced in the North with only 25 percent.

70 % of Dwelling Units are built with mud walls

Table 3.4: Percent distribution of wall materials by selected characteristics of head

Characteristics of Household Head	Mud & Pole	Burnt /Stabilized Bricks	Unburnt Bricks with Mud	Concrete /Cement Blocks/ Stone	Unburnt Bricks with Cement	Wood	Other	Total
Sex of Head								
Male	50.0	21.6	19.7	4.0	2.2	1.3	1.2	100
Female	47.7	23	19.9	4.8	2.6	1.3	0.8	100
Marital Status								
Single	37.5	35.9	11.5	8.3	3.7	1.6	1.4	100
Married	49.2	21	21.2	4.0	2.2	1.3	1.1	100
Widowed	57.2	16	19.7	3.2	1.9	1.2	0.9	100
Divorced/ Separated	53	23	14.6	4.0	2.6	1.4	1.3	100
Residence								
Urban	16.5	50.4	11.9	13.6	5.5	0.7	1.4	100
Rural	54.8	17.2	21	2.7	1.8	1.4	1.1	100
Regions								
Central	35.9	42.5	6.1	8.7	4.2	1.5	1.2	100
Central Excl Kampala	43.0	37.7	6.3	8.0	3.4	1.8	1.3	100
Eastern	52.0	19.4	21.4	3.5	1.8	0.6	1.4	100
Northern	24.5	8	62.7	1.1	1.7	0.9	1.1	100
Western	81.0	9.9	3.1	2.1	1	2.1	0.8	100
Main source of livelihood								
Subsistence farming	57.8	13.5	23.3	1.7	1.5	1.2	0.9	100
Employment income	24.5	46.7	9.8	11.6	4.4	1.5	1.5	100
Property Income	43.1	30.2	12.3	7.1	3.7	2.4	1.5	100
Other	47.7	23.9	17.1	4.9	3.1	1.6	1.7	100
Total	49.4	21.9	19.7	4.2	2.3	1.3	1.1	100

3.2.3 Floor Materials

Floor materials mainly used in Uganda include concrete, brick, stone, cement screed, rammed earth and wood. Concrete, brick, stone, cement screed are permanent floor materials while rammed earth and wood are considered temporary materials.

More than three quarters of the household lived in structures with rammed earth floors

Table 3.5 shows that almost four out of every five Dwelling Units had temporary floors. In the urban areas, 70 percent of the dwellings had permanent floors compared to 14 percent in rural areas. Rammed earth floors were found in 86 percent in rural areas compared to 29 percent in urban areas.

Substantial changes were recorded in the share of Dwelling Units with cement screed floors that increased from 11 percent to 17 percent and those with rammed earth floors that declined from 85 percent to 77 percent nationally. Similarly, in the urban areas, cement screed floor that increased from 44 percent in 1991 to 58 percent in

2002, while units with rammed earth floors declined from 41 percent to 29 percent over the same period. The rural areas also experienced similar trend.

Table 3.5: Percentage distribution of Dwelling Units by type of floor materials by residence, 1991 and 2002

Floor Material	1991			2002		
	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total
Permanent floor	58.6	7.4	14.0	70.4	13.8	21.7
Concrete	13.7	1.5	3.0	10.1	2.3	3.4
Brick	0.3	0.2	0.2	1.3	0.6	0.7
Stone	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.4	0.4
Cement screed	44.4	5.6	10.6	58.4	10.5	17.2
Temporary floor	41.4	92.6	86.0	29.6	86.3	78.4
Rammed earth	40.7	91.7	85.1	28.8	85	77.1
Wood	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.2	0.5	0.5
Other	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.8	0.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Northern region had the highest percentage of households with temporary floor material

Table 3.6 shows that the Central region had the highest proportion of Dwelling Units with permanent floors (45 percent) while the Northern had the least (6 percent).

Table 3.6: Percent distribution of Dwelling Units by type of floor materials and selected characteristics of the head

Sex of Head	Concrete	Brick	Stone	Cement	Rammed		Wood	Others	Total
					Earth				
Male	3.4	0.6	0.4	16.5	77.9		0.5	0.8	100
Female	3.7	0.7	0.4	19.5	74.4		0.5	0.7	100
Marital Status									
Single	6.6	1	0.5	35.9	54.5		0.6	1	100
Married	3.3	0.6	0.4	15.7	78.8		0.5	0.7	100
Widowed	2.4	0.5	0.3	12	83.6		0.4	0.8	100
Divorced/ Separated	3.2	0.6	0.4	17.7	76.5		0.5	1	100
Residence									
Urban	10.1	1.3	0.6	58.4	28.8		0.2	0.6	100
Rural	2.3	0.6	0.4	10.5	85		0.5	0.8	100
Regions									
Central Excl Kampala	5.3	1.2	0.6	26.9	64.2		0.6	1.3	100
Central	6.4	1.3	0.6	36.4	53.6		0.6	1.2	100
Eastern	3.1	0.4	0.4	10	85.4		0.3	0.4	100
Northern	1	0.3	0.2	4.3	93.4		0.4	0.4	100
Western	2.1	0.5	0.3	10.6	85.1		0.5	0.9	100
Main source of livelihood									
Subsistence farming	1.5	0.5	0.3	6.1	90.4		0.4	0.7	100
Employment income	9.2	1.1	0.6	48.9	39.2		0.4	0.6	100
Property Income	5.4	1.1	0.7	31.4	59.3		1	1.2	100
Other	3.9	0.8	0.5	21.7	71		0.7	1.4	100
Total	3.4	0.7	0.4	17.2	77.1		0.5	0.8	100

3.3 State of Permanency

Permanent Dwelling Units are those built with construction materials (for roof, floor and wall) that can maintain their stability for more than fifteen years. The temporary Dwelling Units are those that are built with materials that cannot maintain their stability for more than 3 years and the semi permanent are those that are built with a combination of permanent and temporary materials.

18 % of the households were staying in permanent dwellings

Table 3.7 reveals that the majority of the households lived in temporary or semi-permanent housing units. Only 18 percent of the households lived in Dwelling Units built with permanent materials. One in every 4 households in urban areas was living in the temporary Dwelling Units compared to 4 out of every 5 households in rural areas. Meanwhile permanent structures constitute almost 60 percent of the units in the urban areas as compared to 11 percent in the rural areas.

Units built in permanent materials increased from 12 % in 1991 to 18% in 2002

A comparative analysis of the distribution of housing units between 1991 and 2002 indicated significant improvements in permanency status of the dwellings. The proportion of the permanent dwellings in the urban areas rose from 47 percent in 1991 to 60 percent in 2002, compared to the rural areas which registered a modest increase from 7 percent to 11 percent. Overall the proportion of the permanent units increased from 12 percent to 18 percent.

There was a reduction in the proportion of semi-permanent dwellings from 30 percent to 11 percent. Meanwhile the proportion of temporary dwellings in the urban areas doubled compared to the rural areas where it rose from 65 percent to 79 percent. The impact of this nationally was an increase the proportion of the temporary dwellings from 59 percent in 1991 to 71 percent in 2002.

Table 3.7: Percentage distribution of Dwelling Units by State of Permanency and Residence, 1991 and 2002

Permanency Status	1991			2002		
	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total
Permanent	46.5	6.6	11.8	59.8	10.6	17.5
Semi Permanent	40.6	28.0	29.7	14.2	10.9	11.4
Temporary	13.0	65.4	58.6	26.1	78.5	71.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

The high proportion of temporary dwelling units is probably attributed to, among others, the low affordability levels since a substantial proportion of the households are low income earners with limited ability to access decent housing; high cost of inputs into construction of decent housing; and rebel insurgency in the Northern and North Eastern parts of Uganda that resulted into establishment of internally displaced people’s camps as a temporary measure to protect the population.

It should be noted that because temporary units are built in materials that cannot maintain their stability for a long time, they call for regular maintenance and/or replacement of materials. In case such units are not regularly maintained, their condition deteriorates very quickly and consequently affects the quality of lives of the inhabitants. The people who live in temporary structures are predominantly low

income earners and therefore need support to improve on the quality of their shelter, with the exception of certain areas like West Nile.

These results present an enormous challenge regarding the need to improve the quality of the housing stock in Uganda.

Table 3.8 shows that there were significant regional differentials with Central region registering comparatively better conditions than the other regions. Central region had the lowest proportion (43 percent) of the units categorized as temporary while the Northern region had the highest proportion of 94 percent followed by Western with 83 percent while the Eastern had 76 percent. There are also large differentials among the regions with regard to the distribution of the permanent units and semi permanent units. The proportion of the permanent units ranged from 38 percent in Central region to four (4) percent in the Northern region, while that of the semi-permanent ranged from 19 percent in the Central region to two (2) percent in the Northern region.

94 % of the Dwelling Units in the Northern Region are temporary

Table 3.8: Region distribution of housing units by state of permanency

Characteristics of Head	Temporary	Semi-permanent	Permanent	Total
Sex				
Male	71.9	11.3	16.8	100.0
Female	68.6	11.6	19.8	100.0
Region				
Central	42.7	18.9	38.3	100.0
Central excl. Kampala	51.1	19.8	29.1	100.0
Eastern	76.0	12.6	11.3	100.0
Northern	94.4	2.0	3.6	100.0
Western	83.4	7.9	8.7	100.0
Uganda	71.2	11.4	17.5	100.0

Appendix Table A1.5 shows that the districts of Nakapiripirit, Yumbe and Adjumani and Moyo have the highest percent of Dwelling Units constructed with temporary material, and Kampala had the lowest.

3.4. Type of Housing Unit

A Housing Unit was defined as a structure intended for habitation by a single household. It may in reality be housing two or more households as is the case of a flat shared by several households.

Table 3.9 shows that the majority of the households (65 percent) lived in detached housing units. About one out of every three households (31 percent) in urban areas were living in detached Housing units compared to almost three out of every four (71

percent) in rural areas. Only 15 percent of the households were staying in semi detached Dwelling Units and 13 percent were staying in tenements. The semi detached units constituted 17 percent in the urban areas compared to 14 percent in the rural areas.

In the urban areas, nearly half of the households (47 percent) were living in tenements, which are normally found in the informal settlements⁶. The majority of the tenements are constructed in response to the need of the low income earners.

Less than one percent of the Dwelling Units were Flats

Flats constituted a very small proportion of the housing units both in urban and rural areas. It should be noted that flats have several advantages as they optimize on the use of limited land, reduce the unit cost of service provision and enhance security. Nevertheless they require substantial initial capital outlay which many individual households do not have. The reduction in the proportion of flats from 2.3 to 1.6 percent in the urban areas is most likely attributed to the increase in the overall housing stock without a corresponding increase in the supply of flats.

Until recently, Uganda did not have a law that would facilitate sale and ownership of flats by individual. The Condominium Properties Act was enacted in 2001 and since then it has become possible to sell and own flats. It is hoped that the private sector will accordingly respond and build blocks of apartments both for sale and rental.

The implication of having more than 99 percent of the stock as single storied is that it is costly in servicing and wasteful in terms of land usage. There is therefore need for strategies that encourage development of flats.

Table 3.9: Percentage Distribution of Housing Units by Type and Residence, 1991 and 2002

Type of Housing Unit	1991			2002		
	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total
Detached House	26.0	52.3	48.9	31.1	70.7	65.2
Semi Detached House	14.2	6.6	7.6	16.8	14.3	14.7
Flat	2.3	0.2	0.4	1.6	0.2	0.4
Tenements	43.3	2.8	8.1	46.9	7.2	12.8
Servants Quarters ¹	4.8	0.6	1.1	-	-	-
Huts ²	7.8	37.1	33.3	-	-	-
Others	1.6	0.5	0.6	3.5	7.5	7.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

¹ - Servants quarters are classified among the Dwelling Unit types in 2002

² - Huts were not specified among the options in 2002 census.

⁶ This refers to unplanned or unorganised settlements

A comparison of the distribution of the housing units between 1991 and 2002 as shown in the Table 3.9 indicates that the proportion of households living in detached units increased from 49 percent in 1991 to 65 percent in 2002, while that of the tenements increased from 8 percent to 13 percent. It should be noted that the categories are not identical between the two censuses.

Table 3.10 shows that detached houses were the majority in all regions with the Western region having the highest proportion (79 percent) while Central had the least (56 percent). The tenements were more prevalent in Central region (28 percent) while in the rest of the regions, they accounted for less than 8 percent of the Housing Units. This is partly attributed to the influence of Kampala City and other urban areas on the region. The Northern Region had a high proportion of Housing Units in the residual category of 'Others'. These were most likely referring to the huts that were not classified among the Housing Unit options.

Table 3.13: Percentage distribution of housing Units by region

	Central	Central Excl. Kampala	Eastern	Northern	Western	Total
Detached house	56.1	64.7	64.4	62.6	78.7	65.2
Semi-detached house	13.8	13.8	18.6	11.4	14.1	14.7
Flat	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4
Tenement (muzigo)	27.6	19.2	7.5	5.4	5.6	12.8
Other	1.8	1.9	9.1	20.3	1.4	7.0
Total	100.0	100	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

There were very wide differentials in the distribution of housing units among the districts. Appendix, Table A1.6 shows that Adjumani and Pader districts had the lowest proportion of detached houses, while Kisoro district has the highest (91 percent). In Kampala city, tenements accounted for 62 percent of the housing units. The districts of Kisoro, Apac, Katakwi had less than one percent proportion of tenement, which indicates can be partly explained by the low levels of urbanization.

The distribution of Housing Units by permanency status (Table 3.11) reveals that tenements had the highest share of permanent structures.

62 % of the households in Kampala live in Tenements (Muzigo)

Table 3.12: Percent distribution of housing units by State of Permanency

Type of Housing Units	Temporary	Semi Permanent	Permanent	Total
Detached house	77.8	11.8	11.0	100.0
Semi-detached house/Flat	65.2	11.8	23.0	100.0
Tenement (muzigo)	31.5	16.8	51.7	100.0
Other	97.2	1.4	1.4	100.0
Total	71.2	11.4	17.5	100.0

3.5 Dwelling Units

A Dwelling Unit was defined as a structure that is occupied by a single household. The census collected information about the type of unit and the occupancy tenure.

3.5.1 Type of Dwelling Units

A Dwelling Units was classified as conventional if it was meant for Human habitation, and these include a main house, room/rooms of the main house or servants' quarters. Others were regarded as non-conventional. Table 3.12 shows that nearly all the households (97 percent) were occupying Conventional Dwelling Units. This is true for both rural and urban areas.

The majority of the households (70 percent) were living in a 'Main House' Dwelling Unit compared to 27 percent who were occupying a room (rooms) of the units. Other dwelling types constituted very insignificant proportions (3 percent). An analysis of the distribution by residence reflects that the nearly two thirds of the households in the urban areas were living in a Room (62 percent) compared to 21 percent in the rural areas. On the other hand three out of every four households in the rural areas were living in Main House units. This could be attributed to the ownership status particularly in the rural areas where the majority of the households are owner-occupied. Only 32 percent of the households in the urban areas lived in main house units.

62 % of the Dwelling Units in the urban areas were room type

A Comparison with the 1991 Census shows that there was a general decline in the proportion of households living in a "Main House' in both urban and rural areas (80 percent to 70 percent) while those living in a 'Room' registered substantial increment especially in the rural areas (12 percent to 21 percent). The other types recorded minor changes.

Table 3.12: Percentage distribution of Dwelling Units, 1991 - 2002

Dwelling Type Unit	1991			2002		
	Urban	Rural	Uganda	Urban	Rural	Uganda
Conventional						
Main house	36.8	86.2	79.8	31.7	75.6	69.5
Room type	61.4	12.0	18.4	62.3	21.1	26.9
Servants Quarter*	-	-	-	4.0	1.0	1.0
Non- Conventional						
Store/Basement	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.2	0.3
Garage	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1
Others	0.72	1.6	1.5	1.0	2.0	2.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

* Not classified as a Dwelling Unit category in 1991

The use of stores/basements, garages and other improvised units as dwellings reflects the insufficiency of housing units to meet the needs of the population. The housing shortage is also reflected by the high levels of room occupancy which are in excess of 2 persons per room (Section 3.6).

At the regional level, 'Main Houses' were the dominant type in all regions (Table 3.13). The Western region had the highest proportion of households living in main house units (83 percent) while the Central region had the highest proportion of households staying in a 'Room' Dwelling Units (39 percent). Most of these are located in the urban areas. Servants' quarters provided accommodation to 2 percent of the households in the Central region and less than 1 percent in the other regions.

Table 3.13: Percentage distribution of Dwelling Units by the type, Regions

Region	Main house	Room /Rooms	Servants Quarters	Unconventi onal Dwellings	Total
Central	57.6	38.9	2.4	1.2	100.0
Central Excl. Kampala	66.5	30.8	2.1	1.1	100.0
Eastern	73.7	20.6	0.7	5.0	100.0
Northern	65.0	31.6	0.4	3.0	100.0
Western	82.7	15.5	0.1	0.8	100.0
Uganda	69.5	26.9	1.2	2.4	100.0

Table 3.14 shows that 79 percent of the main houses are temporary, while the semi permanent and permanent units constitute equal proportions of one out of every 10. Among the 'Room' Dwelling Units, more than half of the Dwelling Units are temporary while one out of three room type dwellings are built in permanent materials. The high

52 % of the
permanent units
are room-type

proportion of permanent structures among the Servant's Quarters arises because they are usually attached to permanent structures.

Table 3.14: Percentage distribution of Dwelling Units by the type and by state of permanency

Type of Dwelling Unit	Temporary	Semi Permanent	Permanent	Total
Main house	78.5	10.9	10.5	100.0
Room or rooms	52.4	13.0	34.6	100.0
Servants quarters	30.3	15.9	53.8	100.0
Unconventional Dwellings	88.9	3.8	7.3	100.0
Total	71.2	11.4	17.5	100.0

3.5.2 Occupancy Tenure of Dwelling Units

Occupancy tenure refers to the arrangements under which the household resides in a dwelling. The arrangements include renting, owner occupancy and dwelling supplied free. Ownership of Dwelling Unit represents security of tenure of a household.

Table 3.15 indicates that in Uganda, nearly 8 in 10 dwellings units were owner occupied, with higher percentages in the rural areas (86 percent) than in the urban areas (30 percent). Rental occupancy tenure was predominantly in urban areas registering almost 57 percent. Dwellings that are freely occupied (both private and public) constituted about 10 percent in the urban areas compared to 5 percent in the rural. Rented and subsidized housing were more of an urban phenomenon while owner occupied were more for the rural areas.

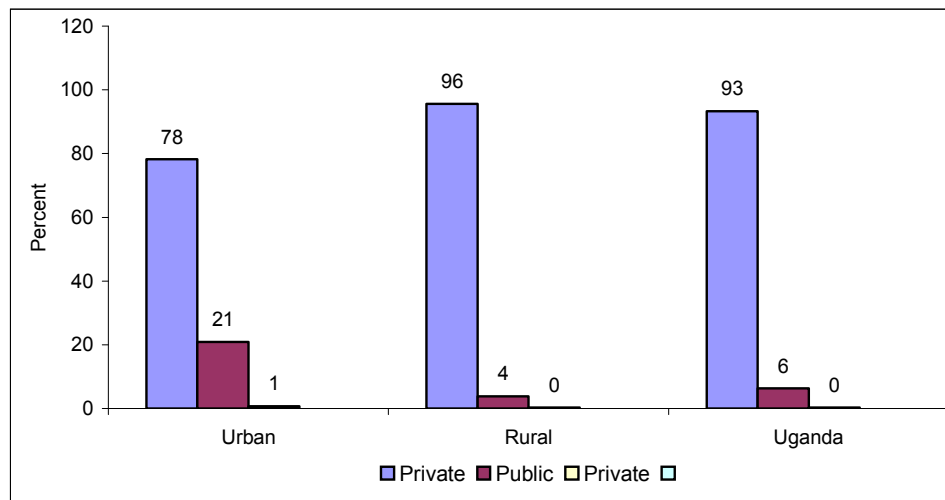
Table 3.15: Occupancy tenure by Residence and Region

Occupancy tenure	1991			2002		
	Urban	Rural	Uganda	Urban	Rural	Uganda
Owner						
Occupied	24.6	89.4	81.0	30.1	86.1	78.2
Free Public	5.6	1.3	1.8	5.3	2.0	2.5
Free Private	6.2	3.1	3.5	5.0	3.0	3.3
Subsidized public	3.9	0.5	1.0	0.8	0.1	0.2
Subsidized private	1.7	0.4	0.6	1.1	0.5	0.6
Rented Public	6.8	0.7	1.5	14.8	1.8	3.6
Rented Private	50.9	4.5	10.5	42.0	6.1	11.2
Other	0.3	0.0	0.1	0.8	0.3	0.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Figures in Appendix Table A1.7 reveal that Owner occupied dwellings constituted 85 percent or more of the Dwelling Units in Eastern, Northern and Western, while in Central it was lower at 60 percent. Central region had the highest proportion of rental housing (30 percent). The variation by district is much wider.

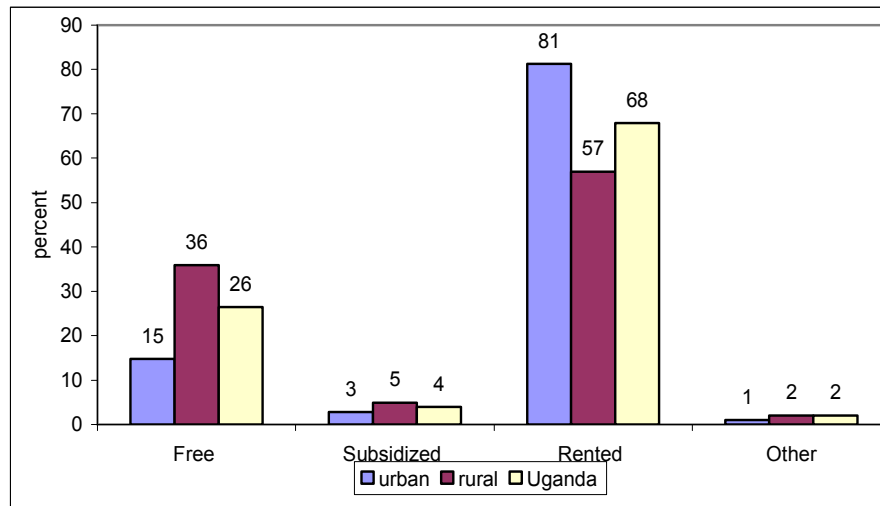
Figure 3.1 shows that the contribution of the public sector to provision of housing was minimal (6 percent), and this was true for both rural and urban areas. The contribution of the Private sector to the urban areas housing stock (21 percent) was more than fivefold that of the rural areas (4 percent). This finding goes to confirm that earlier statement that government divested itself of the direct provision of accommodation and concentrated on the ‘enabler’ role.

Figure 3.1. Occupancy Tenure by Residence and Ownership



Among the households that do not own their dwelling, more than two-thirds were living in rented housing (Figure 3.2). This is true for both rural and urban areas although the proportion in urban areas is much higher than that for rural areas. The second most common form of housing tenure was ‘free’ housing, used by one-quarter of the households (36 percent in urban areas and 15% in rural areas). Less than 10 percent of the households live in ‘subsidized’ or ‘other’ categories of housing.

Figure3.2: Occupancy Status by Residence and Sector



3.6 Household Occupancy

The 2002 collected two types of information pertaining to household occupancy. These are i) number of persons in the household, and ii) number of rooms in the household. The 2002 Census was of a *de facto* nature and therefore the information on number of persons refers to those present at the time of the census whether usual members or not.

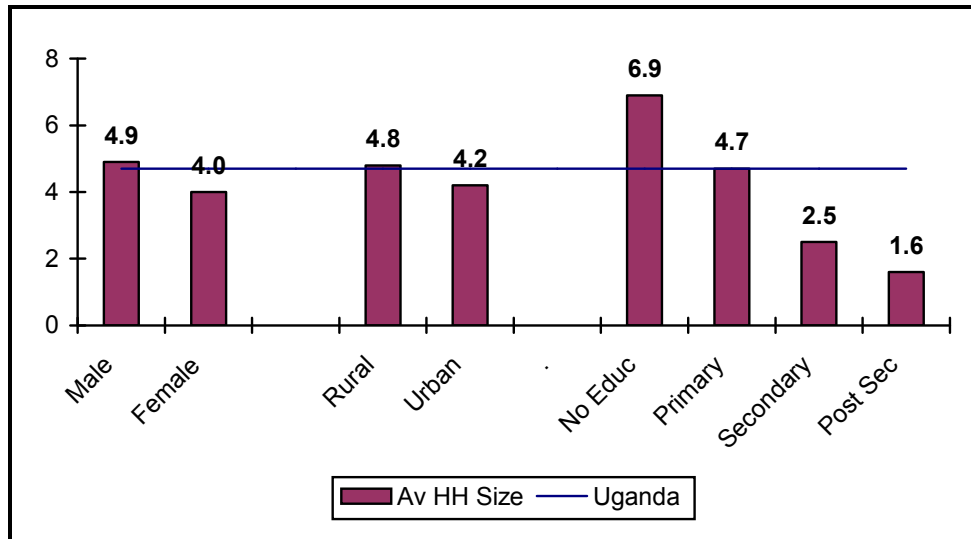
3.6.1 Household Size

The mean household size is a summary measure that gives the number of persons per household and is obtained as the ratio of the total household population to the number of households in an area.

The census revealed that Uganda had a population of 23.8 millions living in five million households. This gave an average household size of 4.7 persons. This is quite close to 4.8 and 4.7 persons obtained from the 1991 and 1969 censuses respectively. The stability in the household size is a reflection of the stable fertility behaviour Uganda has experienced over the past three decades. Figure 3.3 shows the variation in average household size. It is evident that male headed and rural households had a larger size than their female headed or urban counterparts. The average household size also varied with the education level of the household head. It ranged from 6.9 persons in the household whose head had no education to only 1.6 persons where the household head had post-primary education.

The Average Household size in Uganda was 4.7 persons

Figure 3.3: Average Household Size by Selected Characteristics of Household Head



Among the regions, the average household size varied from 4.2 in Central Region to 5.0 persons in Northern region. The average household size was smallest in Kalangala district (2.6 persons) and largest in Yumbe district (5.9 persons) as indicated in Table A1.1.

3.6.2 Size of Dwelling Unit (Number of Rooms)

The information on number of rooms relates to the actual number of rooms used for sleeping. This is irrespective of the original intention or whether the room is also being used for other purposes the room is used for such as cooking, storage, etc.

Half of the Dwelling Units (50 percent) had only one room used for sleeping and the proportion declines as the number of rooms increases (Figure 3.4). The proportion with more than 4 rooms was negligible.

Figure 3.4: Distribution of Households and Household Population by Number of Rooms used for Sleeping, 1991 - 2002

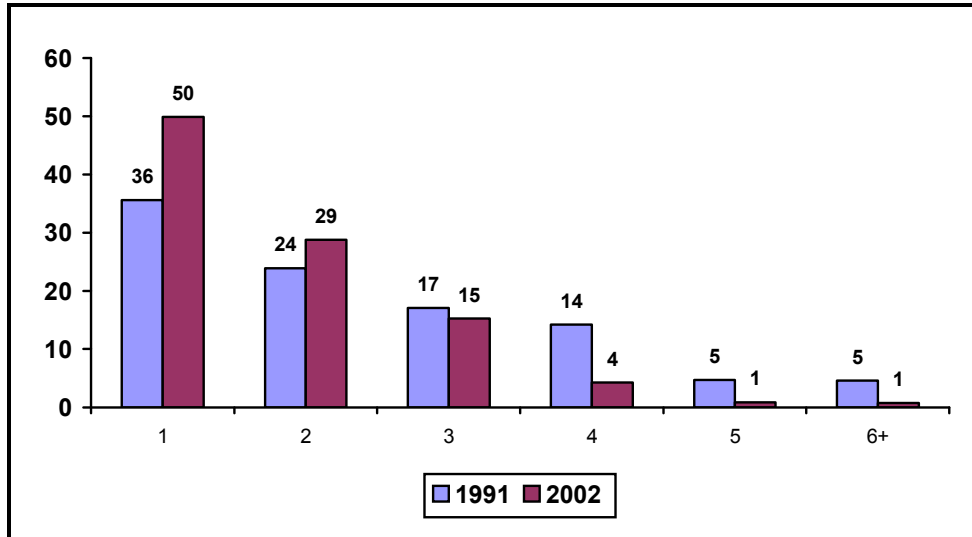


Table 3.16 shows that the single roomed dwellings were more common in urban areas (62 percent) than in the rural areas (48 percent). The Central region had a distribution pattern similar to the national one while those of Northern and Eastern are also similar. Western region had higher percentage of two roomed (35 percent) and the 3-roomed units (25 percent).

Table 3.16: Distribution of Dwellings by Number of rooms used for sleeping and Residence/Region.

Residence Region	Number of Sleeping Room						Total
	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Six+	
Residence							
Urban	62.2	21.6	10.3	3.6	1.1	1.2	100
Rural	47.9	30.0	16.1	4.4	0.9	0.8	100
Region							
Central	51.1	27.7	14.4	4.8	1.0	1.0	100
Central Excl Kampala	47.3	29.7	15.8	5.3	1.0	0.9	100
Eastern	59.8	25.1	11.0	2.7	0.7	0.6	100
Northern	58.0	27.4	9.8	3.2	0.9	0.8	100
Western	32.8	34.7	24.5	5.9	1.2	0.8	100
Uganda	49.9	28.8	15.3	4.3	0.9	0.8	100

Table 3.18 shows that although majority of households have one room used for sleeping, it is only 13 percent of households that are a one-person household. Thirty nine percent of households had between two and four members, while 48 percent had at least five people. It is clear that there is a problem of crowding. Crowding is undesirable especially in conditions where communicable diseases are rampant.

Table 3.17 shows that 48 percent had between two and four rooms. The incidence of having a single-roomed dwellings decreased with age of household head. Thus 69 percent of the child headed households had one room compared to 50 and 41 percent for the households headed by adults and older persons respectively. Households headed by persons 'looking for work' had a high proportion of single-roomed dwellings compared to those headed by persons working or outside the labour force.

Table 3.18: Percentage distribution of Households by Number of Rooms and Characteristics of Household head

Characteristics of Household Head	Number of Rooms				Total
	1	2	3	4+	
Residence					
Urban	62.2	21.6	10.3	5.9	100.0
Rural	47.9	30.0	16.1	6.1	100.0
Sex of Head					
Male	49.5	28.7	15.6	6.2	100.0
Female	51.0	29.1	14.5	5.4	100.0
Age of Head					
Below 18years	69.0	19.9	7.7	3.4	100.0
18 – 59 years	51.5	28.7	14.4	5.4	100.0
60 years and Over	40.6	29.8	20.5	9.1	100.0
Household Size					
1 – 2	74.8	18.4	5.1	1.8	100.0
3 – 4	56.6	29.8	10.6	3.0	100.0
5 – 6	41.0	35.6	17.9	5.5	100.0
7+	24.3	32.1	29.1	14.5	100.0
Activity Status					
Working	49.7	28.8	15.4	6.2	100.0
Looking for Work	59.9	24.9	11.1	4.0	100.0
Outside the Labour Force	49.5	29.2	15.6	5.8	100.0
Total	49.9	28.8	15.3	6.0	100.0

3.5.2 Overcrowding

Overcrowding refers to a state when a Dwelling Unit is occupied by more persons than they were designed to accommodate to a degree that endangers health, safety and welfare of the occupants. An average size habitable room is regarded as overcrowded if occupied by more than 2 persons. The UN recommends a maximum of 2 Persons per Room of 12 feet by 12 feet⁷. The 2002 Census collected information on the number of rooms used for sleeping. However, no information was collected on the area of the rooms.

⁷ United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-HABITAT),: *Slums of the World; The Face of Urban Poverty in the New Millennium*, 2003.

The average Room Occupancy density was 2.7 Persons per Room

Table 3.18 gives the Room Occupancy Density as 2.7 persons per room (2.6 in urban areas and to 2.8 in rural areas). This is higher than the maximum recommended. The high level of room occupancy implies that housing is inadequate and hence over crowding. While physical construction of a house is a major determinant of the living environment, the manner of use of the dwelling also influences health.

The highest Room Occupancy Density (3.8 Persons per Room) was reported in single roomed dwellings. The density declines as the number of rooms per dwelling increases. One half of the Dwelling Units had only one room used for sleeping. The households with four or more rooms have a Room Occupancy Density which meets the recommended standards.

Table 3.18: Percent Distribution of Households and Average Room Occupancy by Size of Dwelling (Number of Rooms)

No. of Rooms used for Sleeping	Households (percent)			Room Occupancy Density (person per Room)		
	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total
One	62.2	47.9	49.9	3.1	3.9	3.8
Two	21.6	30.0	28.8	2.5	2.6	2.6
Three	10.3	16.1	15.3	2.3	2.2	2.2
Four	3.6	4.4	4.3	2.0	1.9	1.9
Five	1.1	0.9	0.9	1.8	1.7	1.7
Six or More	1.2	0.8	0.8	1.6	1.4	1.5
Total	100	100	100	2.6	2.8	2.7

The distribution pattern of Dwelling Units by size (number of rooms) is not in consonance with the households sizes. There is an inverse relationship between the Room Occupancy Density and Dwelling Unit size. Dwelling units with fewer rooms tend to have a higher the occupancy density.

Table 3.19 shows that 55 percent of the households were staying in overcrowded Dwelling Units i.e. with more than 2 persons per room. Similarly, 49 percent of the households in urban areas live under overcrowded conditions compared to 56 percent in the rural areas. The results show average room occupancy of 2.7 persons nationwide (2.6 persons per room in the urban areas and compared to 2.8 persons in the rural areas).

Close to half (44 percent) of the rooms in urban areas wee overcrowded, compared to 50 percent in the rural areas. The population living under overcrowded conditions, the urban areas registered 67 percent compared to 74 percent in the rural areas, giving a national average of 73 percent.

The Mean Dwelling Unit size is 1.8 rooms per Dwelling Unit

The table also reveals substandard housing conditions. There were wider variations by place of residence than by sex of household head. Further analysis of the census data revealed that the average Dwelling Unit size was 1.8 rooms per Dwelling Unit in Uganda; in rural areas it was 1.8 while in the urban it was 1.6.

Every 100 housing units accommodate 130 households

An analysis of the Occupancy Ratio in Table 3.19 indicated that the rural areas had higher occupancy ratio of 1.3 than the urban areas. Thus it can therefore be deduced that there is a housing deficit of 27 percent in the urban areas compared to 31 percent in the rural areas. This translates into a national deficit of 30 percent implying that every 100 housing units accommodate 130 households.

Table 3.19: Selected Housing Overcrowding Indicators by Residence

Housing Indicator	Urban	Rural	Uganda
Average Household Size (Persons/Household)	4.2	5.0	4.7
Average number of rooms used for sleeping	1.6	1.8	1.8
Average Room Occupancy Density	2.6	2.8	2.7
Sharing Ratio	1.3	1.3	1.4
Housing Backlog (percent)	27.0	31.0	30
Overcrowded (>2ppr) rooms (%)	44.3	49.9	49.0
Overcrowded Dwelling (percent) (Households)	48.8	56.1	55.1
Overcrowded Population (%)	69.7	73.5	72.7

Figure 3.5 indicates that there were significant levels of over-crowding (more than 2 persons per room) in households with 3 or less rooms Dwelling Units. Dwelling Units with 4 rooms and above had fairly low levels of overcrowding.

Figure 3.5: Proportion of Households in Overcrowded Dwellings by Number of Rooms

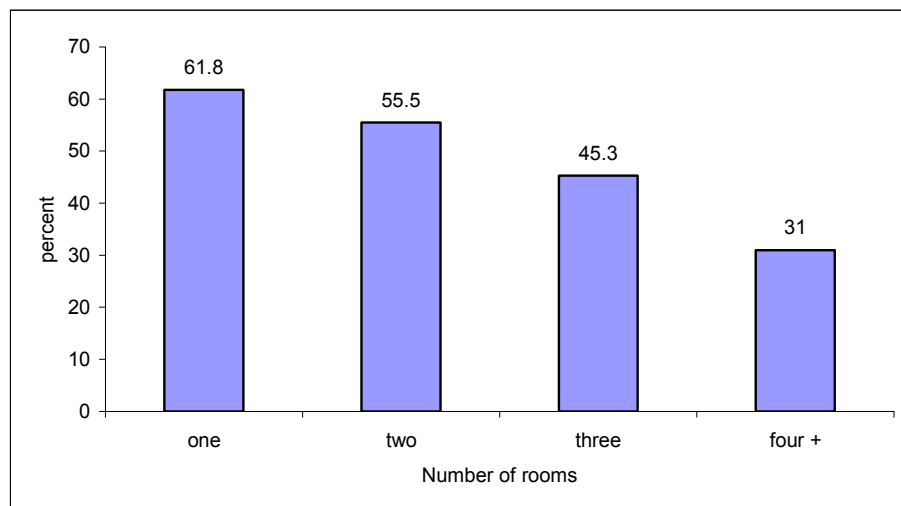


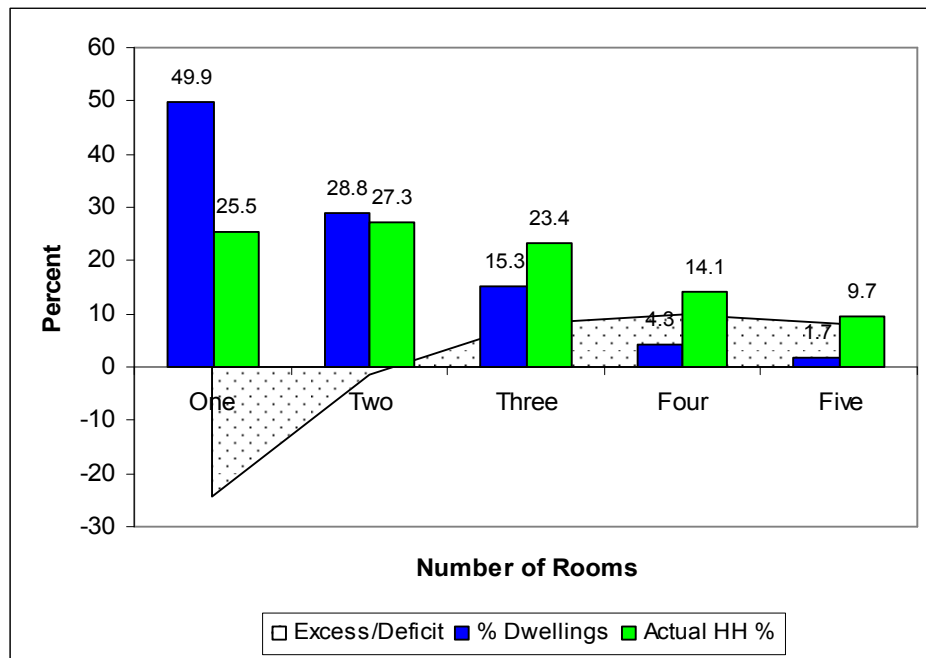
Table 3.20 shows that considering the standard acceptable occupancy density of two persons per room, one roomed dwellings should ideally accommodate not more than two persons (25 percent) instead of the actual 50 percent which gives an average room occupancy density of 3.6 persons per room. Similarly two-roomed Dwelling units should not accommodate more than four persons (27 percent) instead of the actual 29 percent.

Table 3.21: Distribution of rooms used for sleeping by selected characteristics

Number of Rooms	Ideal Household Size (persons)	Percent of dwelling with Ideal Household Size	Percent of Dwellings	Excess/deficit	Average Room Occupancy
1	1 – 2	25.5	49.9	-24.4	3.8
2	3 – 4	27.3	28.8	-1.5	2.6
3	5 – 6	23.4	15.3	+8.2	2.2
4	7 – 8	14.1	4.3	+10.1	1.9
5+	9 +	9.7	1.7	+8.0	1.6

Figure 3.6 shows a gap that exists between the actual distribution of the Dwelling Units by number of rooms and the distribution of the households according to the ideal household size. The deficit that is reflected among the one and two roomed Dwelling Units indicates that these units accommodate more households than necessary. On the other hand, there are more Dwelling Units with three or more rooms than the corresponding number of households.

Figure 3.6: Dwelling Unit occupancy levels in relation to housing backlog



The majority of Ugandans are customary tenants

3.7 Land Tenure

For purposes of the census, Land Tenure is the arrangement under which a plot of land on which a Dwelling Unit stands. The reform of the land tenure resulted into decentralization of land administration, creation of District Land Board, District Land Tribunal and recognition of the customary tenants.

The information on Land Tenure was collected from only those households living in owner occupied buildings, which constituted 86 percent of all households in the country (Section 3.5). The information refers to only the Dwelling Unit where the household was living, and not all Dwelling Units that the household owns. Further, this information was as reported with no soliciting for documentary proof⁸.

The following are brief descriptions of the different land tenure systems operated in Uganda:

- Customary land:** This is the type of land tenure system where land is passed from generations to generations. The land is owned under prevailing customs, traditions or tribal laws of the specific community. It provides for the communal ownership and use of land characterised by local customary regulation. This land is owned in perpetuity (for ever or for a long time).

⁸ The Land Tenure System in Uganda was reformed in 1998 and it is possible that some respondents were not very conversant with the system in existence at the time.

- **Freehold tenure:** This involves the holding of a registered land for ever or for a less period. The system enables the holder to exercise, subject to the law the powers of ownership of land including but not necessarily limited to:
 - i. Using and developing land for lawful purpose;
 - ii. Taking and using the land and any produce from it;
 - iii. Entering into transaction in connection with the land;
 - iv. Disposing of the land to any person by will.
 - v. For avoidance of doubt, a freehold title may be procured by the owners of land here.

- **Mailo land tenure System:** This involves the holding of registered land in perpetuity. It allows the separation of ownership of land from the developments on land made by a lawful or bona fide occupant.

- **Leasehold:** Under leasehold land tenure system, land is owned on contract for a specified period of time. The tenant (lessee) gets powers from the landlord (leaser) to have exclusive powers of owning land within the specified time limit. The land is usually but not necessarily owned in return for a rent, which may be a capital sum known as premium or both rent and a premium but may be in return for services or may be free of any required return.

Table 3.21 gives the distribution of households in Owner-occupied dwellings by Land tenure arrangement. More than two thirds (69 percent) of the households were on customary land while 19 percent were on freehold land. Nine percent were mailo land owners while those on leasehold were four (4) percent.

The share of households living on customary land was twice as high in the rural areas (70 percent) compared to the urban areas (37 percent). However, the census did not separate the customary tenants on public land from those on private land.

Table 3.21: Land tenure of Plot by residence and region

Land Tenure	Residence		Central Excl. Kla	Region				Total
	Urban	Rural		Central	East	North	West	
Customary	37.3	70.2	2.6	2.5	8	92	4	68.6
Freehold	.7	.3	2.0	.0	8.6	5.5	6.5	18.6
Mailo	8.4	8.8	5.8	5.8	0.6	.4	4	9.2
Leasehold	9.6	.7	.1	7	2	2.1	3.1	3.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	00	100	00	00	100.0

3.8 Summary

The housing sector recorded a general improvement compared to the situation in 1991. Units with permanent roofs were 56 percent while those with permanent walls were 28 percent and those with permanent floors were 22 percent. Use of concrete and cement blocks is 13 percent in urban areas. The high proportion of units with bricks, mud and poles present substantial demand on the wood and timber resources, which increases the rate of depletion of forests. The high percentage of temporary Dwelling Units is principally attributed to the low affordability levels.

There is inadequate housing as reflected by the high levels of room occupancy density of 2.6 persons per room is equivalent to a sharing ratio of 1.3 households per housing unit which translates into a housing deficit or backlog of 0.2 million units in the urban areas and 1.6 millions in the rural areas. There is therefore need for increased housing stock to meet the national scale of housing needs for the entire population.

Findings show that the housing market is dominated by individual owners developing small - own occupied detached units using their own incomes Dwelling Units. These tend to be more over-occupied much more than the bigger Dwelling Units. This is partly attributed to the affordability considerations of the majority of the households. Besides, it reflects the dominance of the shelter delivery system by numerous small individual developers who use their small savings to build such units, which apparently are on high demand.

The formal private sector is still too weak to make a significant contribution to the housing delivery to meet the housing needs. Lack of mortgage financing is a major bottleneck that needs to be addressed. The low propensity to save probably due to poor culture of savings or lack of confidence in the financial industry has greatly affected mobilization of domestic resources for long term mortgage financing.

CHAPTER 4: HOUSEHOLD WELFARE

4.0 Background

Household welfare is a measure of the quality of life of the household members. The welfare of households, to a large extent, depends on their asset base as well as the economic activities undertaken. In this section, household welfare was studied with respect to the source of household livelihood, ownership of selected household assets and utilities available to the households and poverty levels.

Improving the quality of life and enhancing the human capital of the poor comprise an essential component of Uganda's poverty eradication strategy. Enhancing social welfare objectives is not only important in its own right but also necessary in fostering incomes of the poor. During the 1990s, income poverty fell dramatically. The proportion of Ugandans whose expenditures fell below the poverty line (the poverty headcount) fell from 56 percent in 1992 to 44 percent in 1997/8 and even further to 34 percent in 2000.

However, there was a reversing trend thereafter and one of the explanations that have been flagged is that of asset distribution. There are signs that the distribution of assets as well as incomes became more unequal during the late 1990s and early 2000s. In general, this reflects the underlying causes of increased inequality.

Despite the long-term trend showing reducing income poverty, there are concerns that these have not been translated into improved quality of life. The quality of life of most Ugandans continues to fall short of the standards achieved in the developed world as reflected for example by the life expectancy of only 47 years.

Variations in the above indicators are a reflection of the poverty levels of the household members. This chapter reviews poverty indicators pertaining to the consumption of a food item (sugar); a non-food item (soap), ownership of basic requirements (clothing, foot wear, blankets); household assets (radios, means of transport); and the source of livelihoods.

Since households are not homogenous, efforts were made to have some classifications. The age and sex of the household head were taken to be critical factors in determining the livelihood options as well as the capacity of the head to

cater for the welfare of their members. Three age groupings were used namely child⁹, adult and elderly heads.

4.1 The 2002 Census Data

The 2002 Population and Housing Census collected data on welfare indicators as well as selected poverty correlates. The data collected is described below:

(A) Welfare indicators

The following questions were asked:

- *Does every member of the Household use soap to bathe?*
- *Did every member of the Household take sugar (at least once a day) during last week?*
- *Does every child in the Household (i.e. all those under 18 years) have a blanket?*
- *Does every member of the Household have at least one pair of shoes?*
- *Does every member of the Household have at least two sets of clothing?*

(B) Selected Poverty Correlates

The following questions were asked:

- What is the main source of the Households livelihood?
- For Transportation; Does the Household own any of the following (Motor car, Motor cycle, Bicycle)?
- For Communication; Does the Household own a Radio?
- Number of rooms used for sleeping
- What type of fuel does the household Mainly use for cooking?
- What type of fuel does the household Mainly use for lighting?
- What is the household's main source of water for drinking?
- What type of toilet facility does the household Mainly use?
- What type of kitchen does the household Mainly use?

For purposes of this chapter, only three correlates (main source of household livelihood, ownership of a means of transport and a radio) were discussed and others were presented in the on Household Utilities. Data on household welfare can also be obtained from the Uganda National Household Surveys of 1999/00 and 2002/03.

4.2 Main sources of livelihood

It is clear that resource endowments differ markedly between households, with female headed-households having the least. These variations influence the

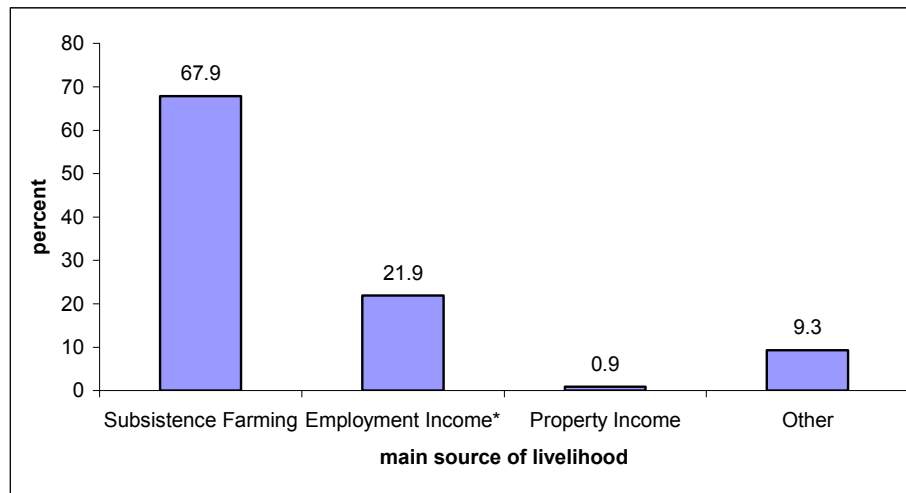
⁹ Children are aged 0-17 years, adults are 18-59 years while the elderly are 60 years plus.

livelihood options that a household can have and therefore levels of poverty that it may experience.

68 % of the households depended on subsistence farming

Figure 4.1 shows that the majority of the households (68 %) depended on subsistence farming for a livelihood. About 22 percent of the households were dependent on employment income.

Figure 4.1: Percentage Distribution of Households by Main Source of Livelihood



* - Employment income includes wages / salaries, business enterprises and or cottage industry

Table 4.1 shows that while subsistence farming was more predominant in the rural areas (77 %), more than two thirds (70 %) of the households in the urban areas depended on employment income. The Northern region had the highest proportion of households depending on subsistence farming as the main source of livelihood while Central region had the lowest proportion. About eight in ten household heads with either no education or primary education depend on subsistence farming as a main source of livelihood, with 78 and 76 percent respectively. Slightly more than two thirds (68 %) of the household heads with post secondary education depend on employment income.

Given the predominance of subsistence farming, the government designed the Plan for Modernisation of Agriculture (PMA) aimed at commercialisation of agriculture. The PMA is focusing on accelerated agricultural growth through technological change throughout the sector. The key objective of the PMA is to transform the subsistence farmer by removing constraints to agricultural modernisation. The PMA is complemented by the Rural Development Strategy that is also emphasizing focusing of public resources on rural development interventions.

Table 4.1: Percentage distribution of main source of livelihood by Household's Background Characteristics

Major Source of Household Livelihood	Subsistence Farming	Employment Income	Property Income	Other	Total
Residence					
Rural	77.0	14.1	0.7	8.2	100
Urban	11.9	69.7	1.8	16.5	100
Region					
Central	47.8	39.0	1.2	12.0	100
Central(Excl Kla)	59.2	28.7	1.0	11.1	100
Eastern	75.9	14.6	0.6	8.8	100
Northern	79.4	11.1	0.6	8.9	100
Western	75.6	16.5	1.0	7.0	100
Sex of head					
Male	69.1	22.7	0.8	7.4	100
Female	63.9	19.2	1.0	15.9	100
Educational Attainment					
No Education	77.9	7.3	0.9	13.8	100
Primary	75.7	16.1	0.8	7.4	100
Secondary	46.2	43.1	1.1	9.5	100
Post Secondary	24.8	68.0	0.8	6.4	100

4.3 Consumption and ownership of basic necessities

Household consumption is a proxy for income. Ability to consume basic food and non-food items is an indicator of the well-being of a household. The 2002 Census collected information on selected basic necessities including consumption of sugar, soap, and ownership of clothing, shoes and blankets.

Nearly half of the households had all members access sugar at least once a day

Table 4.2 reveals the percentage distribution of consumption of basic necessities. Sugar consumption and use of soap for bathing was not universal. Only 48 percent of the households had all members having access to sugar at least once a day. Similarly, less than half of the households had every household member having a pair of shoes. Access to at least two sets of clothing per person and use of soap for bathing was more common. Only a quarter of the households had all the five basic necessities. Apart from use of soap for bathing, there is a very big gap between the rural and urban households with regards to access to the basic necessities. Given the strong correlation between poverty status of households

and access to these basic necessities, these results imply that many households have low levels of welfare. For households which had children, only 35 percent had all the children with each having a blanket. The proportion was highest in urban areas (50%) than rural areas (32%).

Table 4.2: Percentage Distribution of Households by Consumption of Basic Necessities

Consumption of Basic Household Necessities	Residence		
	Urban	Rural	Total
Proportion of households that consumed processed sugar at least once a day	86.0	42.0	48.2
Proportion of households that used soap for bathing	96.9	90.4	91.3
Proportion of households where every Household member had a pair of shoes	83.7	37.6	44.0
Proportion of households where every household member had at least two sets of clothing	93.0	37.6	78.6
Proportion of households where every child had a blanket*	49.7	32.4	34.8
Proportion of households that had all the above*	45.1	16.1	20.2

* *Based on households with at least one child*

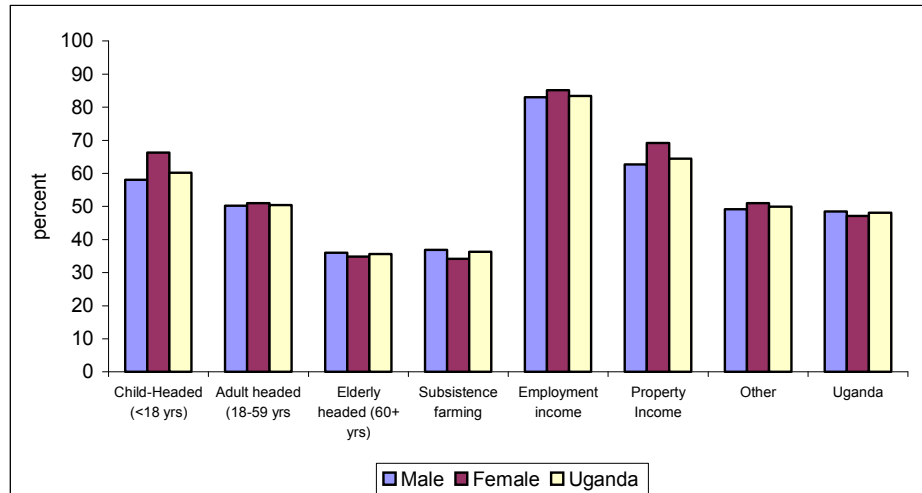
4.3.1 Household Consumption of sugar

All households should have access to sugar. The smaller the percentage of households having all their members consuming sugar, the less income a household is assumed to have¹⁰.

Figure 4.2 shows that about half (48 %) of households had all their members taking sugar at least once a day. The percentage is fairly similar for both male (49 %) and female (47 %) headed households. The sugar consumption was highest among children headed households (60 %) and lowest among those of elderly (36 %). It was also noted that sugar consumption was very low among subsistence farmers compared to household with other sources of livelihoods.

Figure 4.2 Household consumption of sugar by sex, age and source of livelihood of head

¹⁰ If there are no prohibitions of sugar consumption based on medical grounds



Appendix Table A1.7 shows that the Northern region has the least percentage of households that consume sugar (30 %) and the Central region has the highest (65 %). Sugar consumption was least in the districts of Moroto, Nakapiripirit, Kitgum, Pader, Katakwi and Kisoro respectively.

4.3.2 Household use of soap

Personal hygiene is a must for a healthy living. Ideally, all households should have access to bathing soap. The smaller the percentage of households having all their members bathing with soap, the less income a household is assumed to have.

Table 4.3 shows that soap use among children and adult headed households was the same (92%) but differed for those households headed by the elderly (86%). With the exception of child-headed households, soap use was lower among female-headed households compared to their male counterparts. Among households with subsistence farming as main source of livelihood, as well as those headed by the elderly, soap use was below the national average.

Table 4.3: Percent distribution of households using soap for bathing by age, sex and main source of livelihood of head

Characteristic	Sex of Head		Uganda
	Male	Female	
Child-Headed (<18 years of age)	92.2	92.0	92.1
Adult headed (18-59 years of age)	91.7	89.7	91.2
Elderly headed (60+ years of age)	86.4	84.2	85.5
Main source of livelihood			
Subsistence farming	90.9	88.2	90.3
Employment income	97.3	96.9	97.2
Property Income	92.7	94.0	93.1
Other	83.8	84.4	84.0
Uganda	91.8	89.3	91.3

Appendix Table A1.7 shows that there are no major regional variations for the percentage of households using soap for bathing. The districts of Moroto, Nakapiripirit, Kitgum, and Pader respectively, had the lowest percentage of households which use soap for bathing.

4.3.3 Households with all children having blankets.

Clothing is a basic need and its lack is a violation of a human right¹¹. Beddings are part of clothing that individuals must have. All household members should have individual blankets. The smaller the percentage of households having all their members with individual blankets, the less income a household is assumed to have.

Table 4.4 indicates that children-headed households (63 %) had the highest incidence of children with individual blankets while those headed by the elderly (42 %) had the lowest. The subsistence farming households as well as those headed by the elderly were below the national average. Almost three quarters of those with employment income have a blanket for each child. On average, female-headed households were better than their male counterparts.

¹¹ Except in cases where nudity is preferred as a cultural practice

Table 4.4: Percentage distribution of households with children having individual blankets by age, sex and main source of livelihood of head

Characteristic	Sex of Head		Uganda
	Male	Female	
Child-Headed (<18 years of age)	62.0	63.9	62.5
Adult headed (18 to 59 years of age)	44.0	47.2	44.7
Elderly headed (60+ years of age)	41.7	42.8	42.1
Main source of livelihood			
Subsistence farming	36.6	38.6	37.1
Employment income	70.9	73.5	71.5
Property Income	55.6	64.0	58.0
Other	44.1	49.3	46.3
Uganda	44.0	46.4	44.5

Appendix Table A1.7 shows that the Eastern and Northern Regions have lower percentages of households where each child had a blanket. The districts of Moroto, Nakapiripirit, Katakwi, Kumi, and Kaberamaido respectively had the fewest households where each child had an individual blanket.

4.3.4 Household members having at least one pair of shoes each

Like blankets, shoes are part of the basic clothing that each person should have. The shoes are particularly important, not only for smartness, but also for enhanced personal hygiene. All households should have their members at least a pair of shoes each. The smaller the percentage of households having all their members with shoes, the less income a household is assumed to have.

Table 4.5 shows that 44 percent of households had each member with at least one pair of shoes. The percentage is highest among child-headed households (63 %) and lowest among those headed by the elderly (30 %). The households depending on subsistence farming as the main source of livelihood, like those headed by the elderly were less likely to have each member with at least one pair of shoes compared to the others and they were below the national average. On average female-headed households are either better than or equal to their male counterparts

Table 4.5: Percentage distribution of households with each member having at least a pair of shoes by age, sex and main source of livelihood of head

Characteristic	Sex of Head		
	Male	Female	Uganda
Child-Headed (<18 years of age)	61.3	66.5	62.7
Adult headed (18 to 59 years of age)	45.8	48.6	46.4
Elderly headed (60+ years of age)	31.5	30.0	30.9
Main source of livelihood			
Subsistence farming	32	31.7	31.9
Employment income	79.6	82.5	80.2
Property Income	59.7	67.2	61.8
Other	45.5	45.7	45.6
Uganda	44.0	44.0	44.0

Appendix Table A1.7 shows that regional variations exist with the Northern and Eastern regions having lower percentages for households having their members own at least a pair of shoes which is 24 and 29 percent respectively and the Central region had the highest (67 %). The districts with the lowest proportion of households having their members owning at least a pair of shoes were Moroto, Nakapiripirit, Katakwi, Pallisa, Kaberamaido and Kumi respectively.

4.3.5 Household members having at least two sets of clothing each

As already noted, clothing is basic need. Each household member should have at least two sets of clothing- one for daily use and the other for occasions and/or travel outside of the home.

Table 4.6 shows that 79 percent of households have each member with at least two sets of clothing. Subsistence farming households and those headed by the elderly were the least likely to have each member with at least two sets of clothing and are below the national average. On average, the sex of household head did not make much difference to ownership of clothing for the household members.

Table 4.6: Percentage distribution of households with each member having at least two sets of clothing by age, sex and main source of livelihood of head

Characteristic	Sex of Head		Uganda
	Male	Female	
Child-Headed (<18 years of age)	82.2	84.5	82.8
Adult headed (18 to 59 years of age)	79.8	79.7	79.8
Elderly headed (60+ years of age)	72.3	71.5	72
Main source of livelihood			
Subsistence farming	75.2	74	74.9
Employment income	92.5	93	92.6
Property Income	81.6	85.5	82.7
Other	70.7	73.7	71.9
Uganda	78.8	77.7	78.6

Appendix Table A1.7 shows that the Regions have no major variations, with Northern Region having 70 percent and Central region 86 percent. Households where each member had at least two sets of clothing were fewest in the districts of Moroto¹², Nakapiripirit, Kitgum, Pader and Gulu respectively.

4.4 Ownership of Selected Assets

Household welfare can be measured with respect to ownership of assets which are believed to have a strong association with the poverty levels of a country. Poverty assessment studies have revealed that the possession of certain assets helps to assess whether households are poor or not. The items included were those that showed a strong relationship with the poverty status of a household as shown by the Uganda National Household Survey (UNHS) 1999/2000. In terms of asset endowments, house ownership and means of transport and radio were considered.

The assets that are classified¹³ into five categories include natural (land, forests, livestock, etc); human; financial; social capital as well as physical assets (infrastructure, houses, means of transport, equipment, furniture etc). From the 2002 Census, household endowments in terms of human, natural and physical assets give some useful insights. However, this section is confined to the poverty correlates in terms of human assets (household size, and education levels) as well as physical assets (ownership of radios and means of transport).

¹² Having limited clothing among household members in the Karamoja region may be a reflection of the cultural practices and not necessarily a sign of poverty.

¹³ The classification is based on the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework that was developed by the Department for International Development.

4.4.1 Household size and related characteristics

Slightly over half of the households (53%) were small (with a maximum of four persons), and half of these had at most two people. Household sizes¹⁴ seemed relatively similar across both male and female-headed households. Although many households were relatively small, there was an average dependency ratio of 110 percent. In households of divorced females, the proportion of orphans was higher (6.2 %) compared to 4 percent for the divorced male heads.

At regional level, the Eastern region has the highest dependency ratio (120.4), while it was 110.4, 107.7 and 102.9 for the Western, Northern and Central regions respectively. At the district level, all except Kalangala, Kampala, Wakiso and Moroto had a dependency ratio above 100. The highest dependency ratio was in the districts of Iganga, Masaka, Sembabule, and Kaberamaido respectively which registered a ratio of over 130. For more detailed information see monograph on Population composition.

4.4.2 Education levels of Household heads

It is important to study the education levels of household heads in relation to welfare because they are the point of entry into a household in case of an intervention. The 2002 census results showed that nearly one quarter of the household heads had never had education, while about one half had only primary level education. Close to 50 percent of the female headed households did not have any education, compared to 18 percent of the male counterparts.

Government is committed to the attainment of the following Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by 2015.

- Achieving universal primary education by 2015. This is being effected through the implementation of the Universal Primary Education (UPE) which is complemented by Functional Adult Literacy (FAL) programmes.
- Achieving gender parity by 2005 in primary and secondary and all levels of education by 2015.

The attainment of these two MDGs would ensure a universal literacy rate for all Ugandans. From the 2002 Census, the adult literacy rate¹⁵ stands at 64 percent with 54 percent for females and 75 percent for males.

It was also noted that 13 percent of the total population¹⁶ had attained no education, with 67 percent of these being females. The majority, 95 percent were from rural areas, while 35 percent of the total was from the Northern region.

¹⁴ Based on the UNHS 2002/03 data analysed by David Lawson.

¹⁵ This is for those who are 18 years and above

4.4.3 Physical assets

Ownership of physical assets in terms of motor vehicles, motorcycles, bicycles, and radios are examined. These assets show households' living environment in terms of ease of mobility resulting from having means of transport, as well as possibility of communication for those with radios.

Table 4.7 shows that most households owned the dwelling they were residing in. Nearly half of the households owned a radio and more than one third owned a bicycle. There are wide variations in asset ownership by place of residence and the female-headed households had generally fewer physical assets. Except for bicycles, rural households owned fewer assets compared to their urban counterparts.

Table 4.7: Proportion of Households owning Selected Assets

Type of Asset	Sex of Head		Residence	
	Male	Female	Rural	All Categories
House/Dwelling Unit	79.0	75.7	86.1	78.2
Bicycles	38.9	16.6	36.2	33.7
Any Other Means of transport	6.0	2.7	4.4	5.3
Radio	52.6	37.9	46.1	49.2

4.4.3.1 Means of transport

Means of transport¹⁷ influence household's level of access to public services, markets as well as exposure to developments in other areas. The transport sub-sector policy aims at promoting efficient and effective transport services as a means of providing effective support to increased agricultural and industrial production, trade and tourism, social and administrative services. The policies include 'among others, providing an optimum and sustainable road network as well as promoting private sector participation in road transport services.

Table 4.8 shows that about 2 percent of the households owned motor vehicles, with no difference by place of residence. Appendix Table A1.8 shows that variations between districts exist and Pader, Kaberamaido, Katakwi, and Moyo had the least motor vehicles ownership.

¹⁶ This was the population aged 10 years and above

¹⁷ Ownership of means of transport has to be interpreted with caution as it is not mutually exclusive. The same households could own the different types of transport.

Motorcycles ownership is in only 3 percent of the households. According to place of residence the urban areas had twice the proportion in the rural areas, 0.5 percent for urban and 2 percent for rural. Appendix Table A1.8 shows that variations between districts exist and Nakapiripirit, Sironko, and Moroto had the lowest percentage of households that own motorcycles. This is an issue for concern since many up-country areas are using motorcycles as means of public transport.

Thirty four percent of the households owned bicycles with male-headed households (30 %) being eight times more likely to own a bicycle compared to their female counterparts (4 %). The percentage of households who owned bicycles in the rural areas (31 %) is eight times more than that for the urban areas (3 %). There is minimal variation by region with the Eastern having more bicycles than other Regions. By age of head, ownership of bicycles was lower for the child headed households.

Table 4.8: Proportion of Households owning a means of transport

Characteristic	Motor vehicle	Motor cycles	Bicycles	Other	Any means
Residence					
Urban	0.8	0.5	2.6	0.1	3.5
Rural	0.8	2.0	31.1	1.0	32.9
Region					
Central	1.1	1.2	8.5	0.3	10.0
Central(Excl Kila)	0.5	1.0	8.1	0.3	9.6
Eastern	0.2	0.4	10.0	0.3	10.4
Northern	0.1	0.2	7.6	0.3	7.9
Western	0.3	0.7	7.6	0.2	8.1
Head					
Male	1.4	2.2	29.9	1.0	32.3
Female	0.2	0.3	3.8	0.1	4.2
Child-Headed (<18 years of age)	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.2
Adult headed (18 -59 years of age)	1.5	2.2	29.0	1.0	31.4
Elderly headed (60+ years of age)	0.1	0.3	4.6	0.1	4.8
Total	1.7	2.5	33.7	1.1	36.4

Note: Ownership of means of transport has to be interpreted with caution as it is based on count of households.

Appendix Table A1.8 shows that the districts of Kapchorwa, Moroto, Nakapiripirit, Kampala, Kalangala and Sironko respectively, had the least bicycle ownership. However low bicycle ownership in the districts of Karamoja is partly a reflection of the livelihood systems in the region; while in Sironko and Kapchorwa the difficult

terrain has to be borne in mind. In the city (Kampala), it should not be an issue because other means of transport are readily available.

4.4.3.2 Means of Communication

Ease of communication greatly influences the effectiveness of social capital¹⁸ assets of households. In addition it eases access to information, which is a key ingredient for any meaningful development efforts.

Figure 4.3 shows that almost half (49 %) of the households owned radios. It also shows that regional variations exist and that the Central region has the highest radio ownership (61 %) which is twice that of the Northern region (33 %).

Figure 4.3: Proportion of Households owning a radio by Region

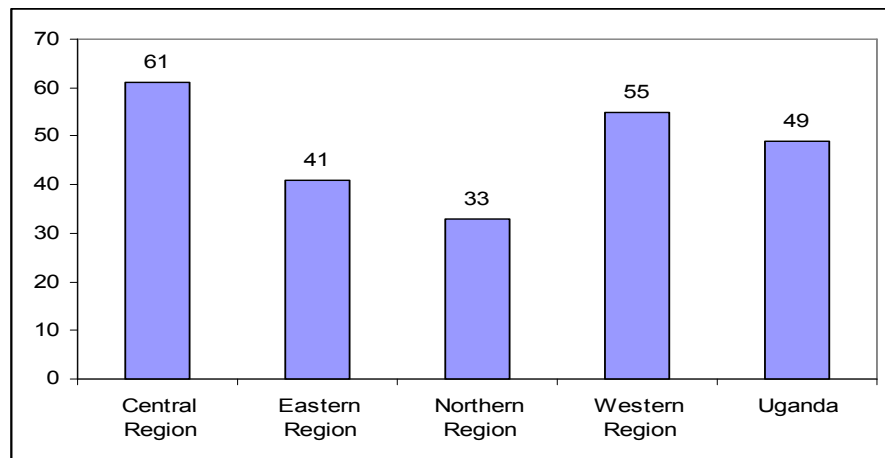


Table 4.10 shows that, 77 percent of the male-headed households and 23 percent of the female headed household own a radio. For all ages and livelihood categories of household heads, ownership of radios was lower for female heads than that of their male counterparts. With a lower literacy rate in the country, women's low ownership of radios makes them a marginalized group in terms of any media based communication efforts geared towards development. Radio ownership was highest among households that were headed by adults (79 %) and worst for those headed by the children (64 %). Slightly more of the rural male headed households (78 %) owned radios compared to their rural counterparts. Radio ownership was highest among the male household heads that depend on employment income.

¹⁸ Social capital includes networks, groups, trust, and access to wider institutions.

Table 4.10: Proportion of Households owning a radio

Characteristic	Sex of Head		Uganda
	Male	Female	
Residence			
Urban	72	28	100
Rural	78	22	100
Child-Headed (<18 years of age)	74	26	100
Adult headed (18 to 59 years of age)	79	21	100
Elderly headed (60+ years of age)	64	36	100
Main source of livelihood			
Subsistence farming	78	22	100
Employment income	80	20	100
Property Income	72	28	100
Other	61	39	100
Uganda	77	23	100

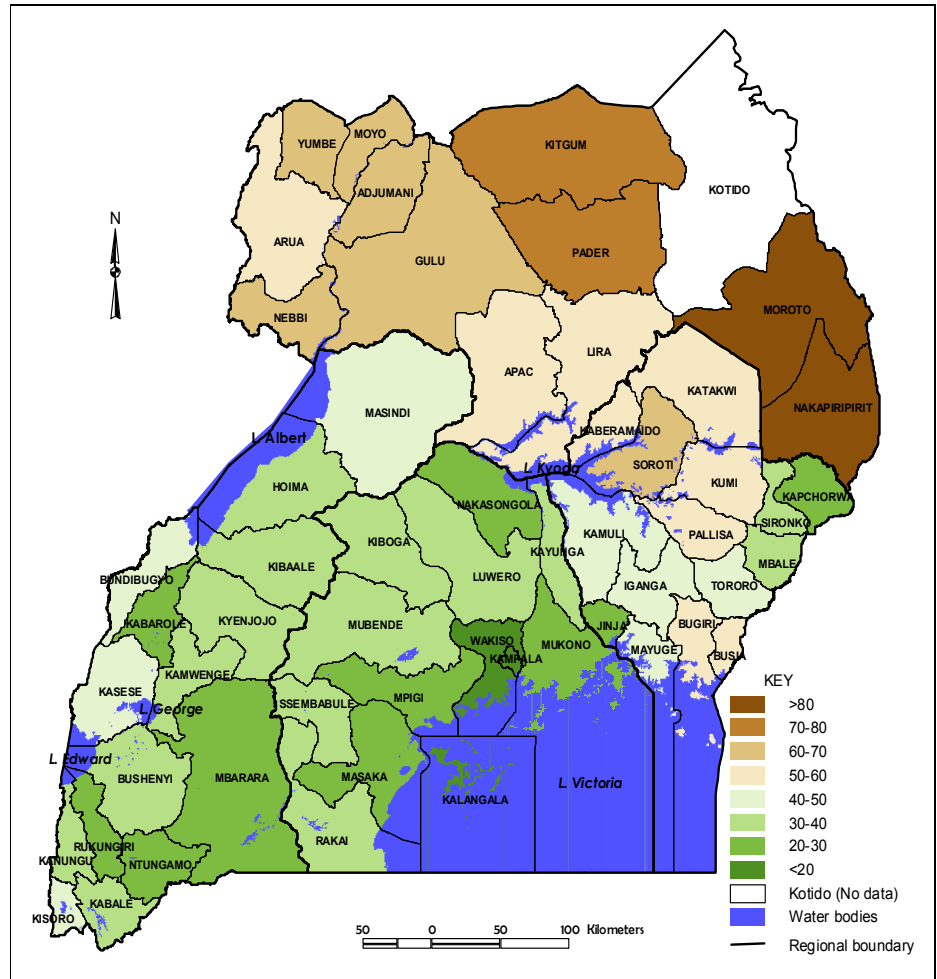
Appendix Table A1.8 shows that Radio ownership was lowest in the districts of Moroto, Nakapiripirit, Pader, Adjumani and Kitgum respectively.

4.5 Household Poverty Estimates

The 2002 Census collected information on various characteristics of households. Comparable information was collected in the UNHS 2002/03. The UNHS 2002/03 used the consumption approach to estimate the poverty. Poverty estimates were also made at the regional level. Regression models were applied to the information on household characteristics from the 2002 Census to estimate poverty levels at district and lower geographical levels. These estimates are consistent with those from the UNHS 2002/03 at the national and regional levels.

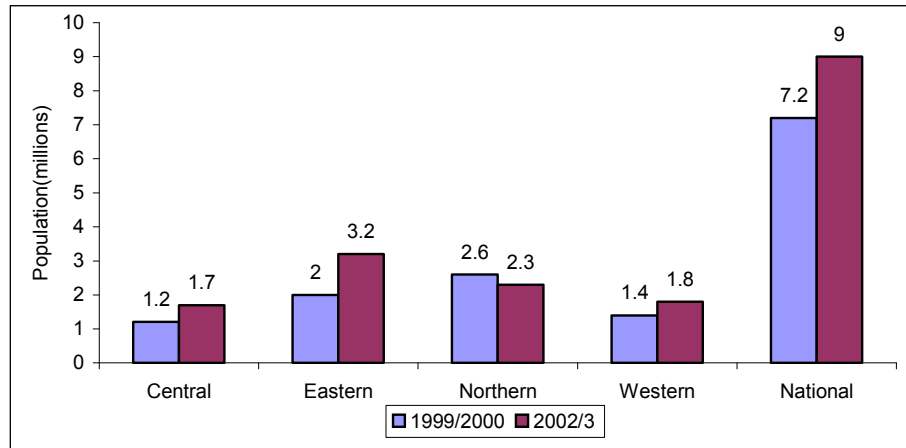
According to the UNHS 2002/03, 39 percent of the households in Uganda were classified as poor, the incidence being highest in Northern region (63 %) and lowest in Central region (22 %). Figure 4.4 gives poverty estimates at the district level. From the figure it is evident that poverty levels were highest in the North east and lowest in the Central and south west.

Figure 4.4: Poverty Incidence (Proportion of population below poverty line) by district



Generally, household welfare is low particularly in the areas where income poverty is pervasive- the north and east. The poverty trends analysis affirms to this (Figure 4.5)

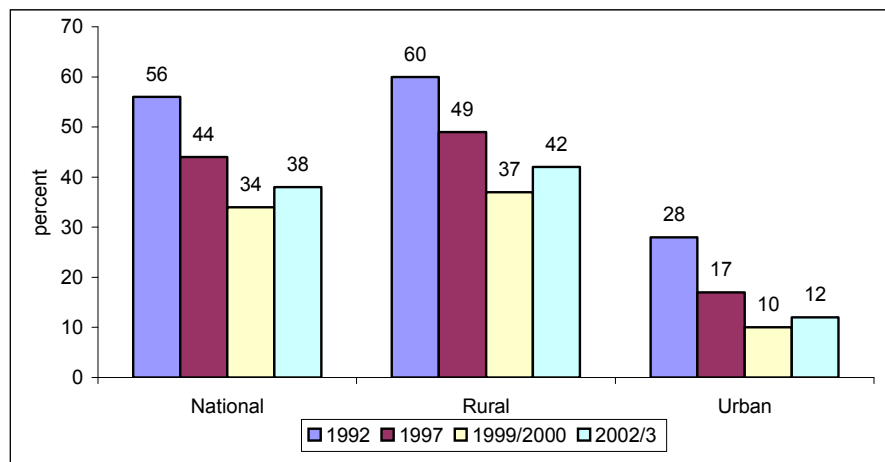
Figure 4.5: Absolute numbers of the poor by region (millions)



Source: Calculated from Poverty trends data, UNHS 99/00 and 02/03

Majority of Ugandan households are still subsistence farmers, a group that is most poverty stricken in light of the welfare indicators. This is confirmed by the UNHS poverty trends data shown in Figure 4.6 where poverty is clearly manifested as a rural phenomenon because the bulk them are subsistence farmers.

Figure 4.6: Poverty Trends in Uganda 1992-2003



Source: IHS, UNHS 97, 99/00 and 02/03

4.6 Summary

Specifically, rural populations fared worse than their urban counterparts. Household welfare was very low among households headed by the elderly as well as those depending on subsistence farming. Female headed households, despite the low asset base showed a relatively higher level of welfare for their members. Children-headed households showed relatively high levels of welfare of their members, which was an interesting observation.

In general many households are faced with low levels of welfare as outlined below:

- Sugar consumption and use of soap for bathing was not universal.
- Less than half of households had children having individual blankets
- Less than half of Uganda's households had members with at least a pair of shoes each.
- Twenty percent of households had only one set of clothing for each member.

In terms of asset endowments, there was a wide variation between male and female-headed households with the latter being marginalized. Females were less literate and had fewer physical assets. With the exception of bicycles, rural households were less endowed with assets compared to their urban counterparts. Subsistence farming households also had less physical assets compared to those depending on other livelihoods. On the other hand, households headed by the elderly, were very poorly endowed with assets too. The most deprived households in terms of physical assets were in the Karamoja, Teso and Acholi sub- regions.

CHAPTER 5: POLICY IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter summarises the policy implications based on the preceding analysis and related studies, and derives messages that are useful in the monitoring of the PEAP and MDGs.

Improving the quality and quantity of human settlement

The housing stock in Uganda consists mostly of temporary structures. Permanent housing units provide better protection against natural and man made disasters. Provision of adequate housing for all households should be the ultimate goal of both government and the population in general. A review of the Housing policy and related legislation to ensure that the public sector plays a more active role in guiding, regulating and supporting housing development is required. This will enhance the accessibility of all to decent housing and ensure sustainable human settlement development.

Promoting proper management of environmental resources

Improved access to safe water supply and sanitation is one of the priority areas in the PEAP. Although government has put in place policies to address them, more needs to be done and in some cases a re-think of the implementation strategies is required. The current policy emphasizes community management of water resources. This implies that the community takes care of the basic maintenance of the water source. This however, has cost implications and communities may have to charge a fee to effectively manage the water resources. However, the policy is unclear on how the very poor can access the safe water sources that are managed by the community. This should be addressed so as to discourage the use of unsafe water sources.

A policy on sanitation is in existence and its implementation is shared among the Ministries of Water and Environment, Ministry of Health and Ministry of Education and Sports. Although the responsibilities of each institution are well known, the overall ministry responsible for coordinating and monitoring of the sanitation programme remains unclear. Poor sanitation at household level poses a health risk but not much has been done to enforce toilet construction. In addition, the sanitation policy does not fully address the disposal of hazardous waste such as polythene bags. These issues need to be addressed.

The use of wood fuel for cooking by households is widespread in both rural and urban areas. The protection of the environment and further prevention of deforestation would only be possible if the demand for wood fuel declined. Increasing access to clean energy has great health and human development benefits by

reducing indoor pollution. The current policy on alternative energy sources and rural electrification, however, needs to examine the cost of using alternative forms of energy.

Improving Household Welfare

Gender inequalities are partly responsible for the persistent poverty due to the imbalances in the ownership and access to resources that are poverty-reducing. The development of the National Gender Policy was aimed at addressing some of these imbalances but little progress has been made to date.

Studies have shown that people living in rural areas and subsistence farmers in particular are the poorest in Uganda. There is need to redirect efforts to those interventions that will directly boost the incomes of these households. These may include but are not limited to:

- Provision of affordable micro-finance facilities
- Provision of appropriate and affordable inputs (seeds, fertilizers, irrigation technologies, farming implements)
- Encouragement of group marketing e.g. through farmer cooperatives,
- Diversification into other livelihoods.

Poverty mostly affects households headed by the vulnerable groups (elderly, children, and disabled). These should be given special attention through the Social Investment Development Plan (SIDP). This plan is yet to be effected but it is clear that the elderly as a vulnerable group need prioritizing especially because many are looking after orphans.

Female-headed households are generally poorer than the male headed households. Studies should be done to understand how these households cope especially in relation to the health and wellbeing of the children in these households and explore ways on a how the situation can be improved.

Improving the supply of information

There is need to continue carrying out inter-censal housing surveys to generate information about the housing sector required for planning.

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Table A1.1: Percentage of households by select household utilities by district

Regions/ District	With Access to Safe Drinking water	Having a Kitchen Inside the House	No toilet facility	Proportion within 5Kms from health facility
Central				
Kalangala	35.3	1.7	27	48.4
Kampala	97.6	15.8	6.3	94.3
Kiboga	44.9	3.3	40.4	74.2
Luwero	72.0	2.9	23.9	56.9
Masaka	43.5	3	19.8	71.9
Mpigi	48.6	2.3	27.8	78.9
Mubende	30.5	3.1	31.5	73.1
Mukono	73.5	3.8	26.4	67.4
Nakasongola	48.6	2.9	43.1	69.6
Rakai	29.5	2.3	26.1	56.4
Ssembabule	17.0	2	41.3	78.9
Kayunga	70.1	2.2	28.2	56.4
Wakiso	76.6	8.2	14.1	85.3
Region	63.1	6.2	21.5	77.6
Eastern				
Bugiri	39.3	2.7	47.7	73.0
Busia	63.8	3.5	29.2	82.2
Iganga	73.1	2.4	33.8	85.4
Jinja	92.9	10.7	18.7	96.5
Kamuli	76.9	3.3	32.9	58.9
Kapchorwa	59.9	17.3	32.3	61.6
Katakwi	66.8	1.8	83	82.3
Kumi	61.3	4.7	56.5	43.7
Mbale	73.9	4.6	26.6	74.9
Pallisa	59.3	2.8	38.7	68.2
Soroti	68.1	6.7	59.6	77.9
Tororo	68.7	4.4	42.5	81.8
Kaberamaido	64.3	7.4	73.9	82.0
Mayuge	43.7	2.4	48.3	65.8
Sironko	62.8	4.7	28.8	79.0
Region	67.0	4.6	40.2	75.3

Table A1.1: Percentage of households by select household utilities by district

Regions/ District	With Access to Safe Drinking water	Having a Kitchen Inside the House	No toilet facility	Proportion within 5Kms from health facility
Northern				
Adjumani	84.9	9.5	47.6	86.6
Apac	55.2	5.1	41.2	55.4
Arua	71.8	5.7	35.8	75.6
Gulu	50.7	22.1	42.3	68.3
Kitgum	50.0	28.7	74.1	58.0
Kotido	*		*	*
Lira	63.2	5.0	44.8	60.5
Moroto	73.4	3.3	91.3	65.3
Moyo	85.6	6.4	30.3	89.5
Nebbi	65.0	5.8	27.2	45.4
Nakapiripirit	61.8	10.6	93.5	82.1
Pader	40.7	20.1	82.1	53.5
Yumbe	44.3	2.6	53.6	51.0
Region	61.1	10.0	48.4	65.8
Western				
Bundibugyo	45.0	2.1	28.5	80.7
Bushenyi	53.8	1.9	8.5	76.5
Hoima	52.3	3.4	30.9	72.7
Kabale	84.0	3.3	6.3	83.4
Kabarole	54.6	3.3	18.2	82.1
Kasese	69.0	4.1	11.5	50.2
Kibaale	46.4	3.9	26.7	72.6
Kisoro	43.8	5.1	18.6	81.9
Masindi	63.9	7.0	41.1	57.7
Mbarara	39.5	2.5	16.2	78.1
Ntungamo	58.5	1.0	11.4	55.5
Rukungiri	66.1	1.1	7.5	67.4
Kamwenge	30.0	3.1	21.2	65.6
Kanungu	58.0	1.6	9.2	78.2
Kyenjojo	21.2	2.2	20.7	77.8
Region	52.1	3.0	17.8	71.5
UGANDA	60.9	5.7	30.3	73.3

Table A1.2: Percentage of households by fuel used for lighting by district

Regions/ District	Electricity	Paraffin- Lantern	Paraffin- Tadooba	Candle wax	Other ¹⁹	Total
Central						
Kalangala	0.1	2.3	83.8	1.0	2.8	100
Kampala	53.8	24.6	18.0	3.3	0.3	100
Kayunga	4.6	7.0	85.6	0.6	2.1	100
Kiboga	2.0	6.7	87.6	0.7	2.9	100
Luwero	7.2	10.0	80.7	0.7	1.	100
Masaka	9.2	9.2	79.7	0.5	1.4	100
Mpigi	4.6	8.3	85.1	0.3	1.7	100
Mubende	5.4	6.4	85.3	0.4	2.5	100
Mukono	10.2	12.5	75.3	0.7	1.3	100
Nakasongola	3.7	13.4	79.7	0.4	2.8	100
Rakai	3.9	7.1	86.3	0.6	2.0	100
Ssembabule	0.6	8.6	87.4	0.5	2.9	100
Wakiso	30.5	3.6	43.5	1.4	1.0	100
Region	19.2	14.2	63.9	1.2	1.4	100
Eastern						
Bugiri	1.3	7.3	88.4	1.1	1.9	100
Busia	3.6	12.0	82.5	0.4	1.6	100
Iganga	3.7	5.3	88.9	0.5	1.7	100
Jinja	15.4	8.8	74.1	0.8	0.9	100
Kamuli	2.2	2.8	91.9	0.4	2.7	100
Kapchorwa	0.8	14.6	80.7	0.6	3.2	100
Katakwi	0.0	5.7	74.0	0.3	20.0	100
Kumi	1.1	6.0	86.9	0.6	5.3	100
Mbale	5.2	11.6	80.7	0.7	1.8	100
Pallisa	1.1	4.6	91.6	0.2	2.6	100
Soroti	4.4	5.9	81.4	1.0	7.3	100
Tororo	3.9	7.0	86.6	0.5	2.0	100
Kaberamaido	0.1	4.8	87.1	0.2	7.8	100
Mayuge	1.1	4.3	92.4	0.4	1.8	100
Sironko	1.4	13.2	82.7	0.7	2.1	100
Region	3.4	7.3	85.2	0.6	3.5	100

¹⁹ Other includes gas, firewood, cow dung or grass reeds, etc

Table A1.2: Percentage of households by fuel used for lighting by district

Regions/District	Electricity	Paraffin-Lantern	Paraffin-Tadooba	Candle wax	Other ²⁰	Total
Northern						
Adjumani	0.7	9.5	80.9	0.2	8.7	100
Apac	0.3	8.6	86.1	0.3	4.7	100
Arua	0.8	15.4	78.8	0.3	4.7	100
Gulu	3.3	9.7	77.9	0.5	8.6	100
Kitgum	2.0	11.2	55.4	0.5	30.9	100
Kotido	*	*	*	*	*	100
Lira	2.5	10.4	81.2	0.4	5.5	100
Moroto	0.1	5.1	9.3	0.6	84.9	100
Moyo	0.8	11.3	78.9	0.2	8.8	100
Nebbi	0.5	13.7	81.3	0.2	4.3	100
Nakapiripirit	0.2	4.6	8.7	0.6	86.0	100
Pader	0.3	12.4	63.7	0.5	23.0	100
Yumbe	0.1	11.0	80.2	0.1	8.5	100
Northern	1.2	11.0	73.4	0.3	14.1	100
Western						
Bundibugyo	0.1	5.7	84.9	1.2	8.1	100
Bushenyi	2.8	15.5	79.3	0.6	1.8	100
Hoima	3.4	8.7	83.3	0.8	3.7	100
Kabale	4.1	9.7	81.6	0.6	4.0	100
Kabarole	5.2	9.3	82.1	0.4	3.1	100
Kasese	7.6	8.4	81.0	0.8	2.2	100
Kibaale	0.4	4.7	90.6	0.5	3.8	100
Kisoro	1.3	5.6	88.5	0.3	4.3	100
Masindi	3.5	11.4	81.1	0.6	3.4	100
Mbarara	5.7	13.6	77.4	0.6	2.7	100
Ntungamo	1.9	10.8	85.5	0.4	1.5	100
Rukungiri	2.8	14.4	80.5	0.3	2.0	100
Kamwenge	0.4	5.6	88.9	0.2	4.9	100
Kanungu	0.4	11.5	83.8	0.8	3.6	100
Kyenjojo	0.6	4.5	90.7	0.3	3.9	100
Region	3.3	10.2	82.8	0.6	3.2	100
UGANDA	7.8	10.8	75.9	0.7	4.8	100

²⁰ Other includes gas, firewood, cow dung or grass reeds, etc

Table A1.3: Percentage of households by fuel used for cooking by district

Regions/District	Paraffin	Charcoal	Firewood	Electricity	Other ²¹	Total
Central						
Kalangala	2.5	26.6	68.1	0.1	2.7	100
Kampala	5.7	79.2	5.1	6.2	3.9	100
Kayunga	0.7	9.7	88.6	0.3	0.6	100
Kiboga	1.0	8.6	89.9	0.1	0.4	100
Luwero	1.5	13.5	83.1	1.4	0.5	100
Masaka	1.5	12.7	83.8	1.1	0.9	100
Mpigi	1.3	9.0	88.9	0.3	0.5	100
Mubende	1.2	10.6	87.5	0.3	0.4	100
Mukono	1.8	22.8	73.6	0.8	0.9	100
Nakasongola	0.9	3.4	83.9	1.0	0.8	100
Rakai	1.2	8.7	89.3	0.3	0.5	100
Ssembabule	1.6	4.4	93.5	0.1	0.4	100
Wakiso	4.2	47.3	44	3.0	1.5	100
Region	2.1	2.6	31.1	62.8	1.4	100
Eastern						
Bugiri	1.0	10.3	87.9	0.2	0.5	100
Busia	0.9	17.6	80.7	0.1	0.7	100
Iganga	0.4	11.9	87.1	0.2	0.5	100
Jinja	1.1	37.1	58.4	2.1	1.2	100
Kaberamaido	0.1	2.6	96.7	0.0	0.5	100
Kamuli	0.5	5.5	93.4	0.1	0.4	100
Kapchorwa	0.6	5.0	94.1	0.1	0.2	100
Katakwi	0.3	2.2	97.3	0	0.2	100
Kumi	0.3	4.8	94.5	0.1	0.3	100
Mayuge	1.2	11.6	86.7	0.2	0.4	100
Mbale	1.3	13.8	83.2	0.5	1.2	100
Pallisa	0.6	3.0	96.1	0.1	0.3	100
Sironko	0.9	3.5	94.9	0.2	0.5	100
Soroti	0.4	12.3	86.7	0.2	0.4	100
Tororo	0.9	8.8	89.1	0.7	0.5	100
Region	0.4	0.7	10.5	87.8	0.6	100

²¹ This includes gas, biogas, cow dung or grass reeds, etc

Table A1.3: Percentage of households by fuel used for cooking by district

Regions/ District	Paraffin	Charcoal	Firewood	Electricity	Other ²²	Total
Northern						
Adjumani	0.3	11.0	88.2	0.1	0.5	100
Apac	0.3	2.6	96.5	0.1	0.5	100
Arua	0.7	11.3	87.4	0.1	0.5	100
Gulu	0.6	16.6	82.1	0.2	0.5	100
Kitgum	0.5	7.1	91.4	0.1	0.9	100
Kotido						
Lira	0.4	11.7	87.2	0.1	0.5	100
Moroto	0.1	6.0	93.3	0.0	0.5	100
Moyo	0.2	7.3	92.0	0.1	0.3	100
Nakapiripirit	0.2	1.7	97.8	0.1	0.3	100
Nebbi	0.3	3.9	95.4	0.1	0.3	100
Pader	0.6	3.0	95.9	0.1	0.4	100
Yumbe	0.5	3.6	95.4	0.1	0.3	100
Region	0.1	0.4	8.0	90.9	0.5	100
Western						
Bundibugyo	1.1	7.8	89.8	0.1	1.1	100
Bushenyi	0.7	4.7	93.8	0.2	0.6	100
Hoima	1.0	9.9	88.6	0.2	0.3	100
Kabale	0.4	7.8	90.8	0.2	0.8	100
Kabarole	1.6	4.4	92.6	0.9	0.5	100
Kamwenge	1.9	2.4	95.3	0.1	0.4	100
Kanungu	0.5	5.3	93.9	0.1	0.2	100
Kasese	1.0	13.1	84.0	1.6	0.4	100
Kibaale	0.3	3.3	96.0	0.1	0.3	100
Kisoro	0.4	3.4	94.9	0.1	1.2	100
Kyenjojo	0.8	1.3	97.5	0.2	0.2	100
Masindi	1.2	12.3	85.6	0.4	0.5	100
Mbarara	1.0	9.2	88.5	0.6	0.7	100
Ntungamo	1.1	6.0	91.0	0.2	1.7	100
Rukungiri	0.6	6.4	92.3	0.2	0.5	100
Region	0.4	0.9	7.0	91.1	0.6	100
UGANDA	1.3	15.4	81.6	0.8	0.8	100

²² This includes gas, biogas, cow dung or grass reeds, etc

Table A1.4: Percentage of Households by State of permanency and District

Region / District	Temporary	Semi-Permanent	Permanent	Total
Central				
Kalangala	88.7	6.0	5.3	100
Kampala	9.1	15.4	75.5	100
Kayunga	59.6	19.3	21.1	100
Kiboga	76.5	11.8	11.7	100
Luwero	47.7	25.2	27.1	100
Masaka	45.5	26.8	27.7	100
Mpigi	57.4	21.7	20.9	100
Mubende	69.5	14.5	16.0	100
Mukono	46.7	20.3	33.0	100
Nakasongola	75.1	11.2	13.7	100
Rakai	67.2	16.7	16.1	100
Ssembabule	57.7	27.9	14.4	100
Wakiso	22.9	18.0	59.1	100
Region	42.7	18.9	38.3	100
Eastern				
Bugiri	81.7	7.7	10.7	100
Busia	79.4	3.9	16.7	100
Iganga	55.6	27.4	16.9	100
Jinja	41.5	21.9	36.6	100
Kaberamaido	94.8	1.9	3.3	100
Kamuli	58.8	29.9	11.3	100
Kapchorwa	96.1	1.9	2.0	100
Katakwi	97.2	0.9	1.9	100
Kumi	92.2	2.1	5.7	100
Mayuge	70.9	19.2	9.9	100
Mbale	84.6	5.7	9.7	100
Pallisa	77.0	14.9	8.1	100
Sironko	92.5	3.4	4.0	100
Soroti	88.8	3.4	7.8	100
Tororo	79.9	9.4	10.8	100
Region	76.0	12.6	11.3	100

Table A1.4: Percentage of Households by State of permanency and District – Continued

Region / District	Temporary	Semi-permanent	Permanent	Total
Northern				
Adjumani	98.2	0.5	1.3	100
Apac	94.9	2.2	2.8	100
Arua	93.3	2.3	4.4	100
Gulu	92.2	1.4	6.4	100
Kitgum	93.2	1.9	4.9	100
Kotido				
Lira	91.5	4.2	4.2	100
Moroto	94.8	0.9	4.3	100
Moyo	97.9	0.3	1.8	100
Nakapiripirit	98.2	0.9	0.9	100
Nebbi	95.4	1.4	3.2	100
Pader	97.3	1.0	1.7	100
Yumbe	98.2	0.6	1.2	100
Region	94.4	2.0	3.6	100
Western				
Bundibugyo	95.1	2.5	2.5	100
Bushenyi	80.6	10.0	9.5	100
Hoima	77.2	9.7	13.1	100
Kabale	87.4	7.2	5.4	100
Kabarole	81.4	7.3	11.3	100
Kamwenge	91.8	5.0	3.3	100
Kanungu	89.3	6.9	3.8	100
Kasese	75.9	9.0	15.0	100
Kibaale	88.3	5.9	5.8	100
Kisoro	87.0	7.3	5.7	100
Kyenjojo	90.6	4.1	5.2	100
Masindi	81.5	6.3	12.2	100
Mbarara	77.5	10.7	11.9	100
Ntungamo	87.1	7.4	5.5	100
Rukungiri	84.9	10.0	5.1	100
Region	83.4	7.9	8.7	100
UGANDA	71.2	11.4	17.5	100

* Data for Kotido District were excluded from the analysis

Table A1.5: Percentage of Households by type of housing unit and District

Region / District	Detached	Semi-detached	Flat	Tenement (Muzigo)	Others	Total
Central						
Kalangala	68.5	8.5	-	21.8	1.0	100
Kampala	21.2	13.8	2.2	61.6	1.2	100
Kayunga	68.4	12.2	0.3	14.5	4.6	100
Kiboga	70.3	18.0	0.1	8.5	3.1	100
Luwero	66.7	16.2	0.7	14.6	1.8	100
Masaka	70.2	11.1	0.4	17.5	0.8	100
Mpigi	71.8	15.0	0.2	11.9	1.2	100
Mubende	74.7	11.0	0.2	12.2	1.8	100
Mukono	58.3	16.2	0.4	22.8	2.4	100
Nakasongola	74.7	9.8	0.2	10.3	5.1	100
Rakai	77.2	8.5	0.1	13.1	1.1	100
Ssembabule	64.7	21.5	0.2	9.6	4.0	100
Wakiso	45.0	15.8	0.5	37.1	1.6	100
Region	56.1	13.8	0.7	27.6	1.8	100
Eastern						
Bugiri	76.5	12.5	0.3	8.0	2.6	100
Busia	55.1	10.9	0.2	12.2	21.6	100
Iganga	76.9	11.6	0.4	10.2	0.9	100
Jinja	55.4	17.4	1.6	24.2	1.3	100
Kaberamaido	47.3	19.0	0.1	8.3	25.3	100
Kamuli	76.2	16.2	0.1	4.9	2.5	100
Kapchorwa	78.3	17.9	0.1	2.9	0.8	100
Katakwi	20.8	76.9	0.2	0.8	1.4	100
Kumi	20.3	4.8	0.4	1.9	72.7	100
Mayuge	73.1	11.8	0.2	13.4	1.5	100
Mbale	59.1	30.0	0.5	8.4	1.9	100
Pallisa	64.2	9.2	0.4	2.1	24.2	100
Sironko	74.1	19.4	0.1	3.2	3.2	100
Soroti	82.4	10.2	0.2	5.3	2.0	100
Tororo	77.0	15.6	0.3	5.7	1.3	100
Region	64.4	18.6	0.4	7.5	9.1	100

Table A1.5: Percentage of Households by type of housing unit and District

Region / District	Detached	Semi-detached	Flat	Tenement (Muzigo)	Others	Total
Northern						
Adjumani	3.3	2.7	0.6	1.5	91.8	100.0
Apac	86.9	11.1	0.3	0.8	0.9	100.0
Arua	77.3	6.7	0.3	3.8	11.9	100.0
Gulu	21.2	12.8	0.5	5.9	59.6	100.0
Kitgum	71.0	16.3	0.7	5.6	6.4	100.0
Kotido						
Lira	73.1	12.1	0.2	2.5	12.1	100.0
Moroto	35.1	18.5	0.5	6.6	39.3	100.0
Moyo	78.9	5.6	0.1	1.2	14.2	100.0
Nakapiripirit	78.0	10.0	0.1	4.0	7.8	100.0
Nebbi	67.4	17.7	0.1	1.7	13.1	100.0
Pader	9.7	11.6	0.6	36.8	41.3	100.0
Yumbe	88.3	10.2	0.2	1.0	0.2	100.0
Region	62.6	11.4	0.3	5.4	20.3	100
Western						
Bundibugyo	61.0	29.5	0.4	5.2	3.9	100
Bushenyi	83.3	11.4	0.2	4.0	1.1	100
Hoima	81.0	9.6	0.1	8.1	1.2	100
Kabale	87.3	9.0	0.2	3.0	0.5	100
Kabarole	69.0	19.9	0.2	9.5	1.5	100
Kamwenge	84.4	10.6	0.2	3.7	1.1	100
Kanungu	83.8	11.1	-	2.3	2.9	100
Kasese	69.4	17.6	0.2	11.2	1.6	100
Kibaale	83.3	11.6	0.2	4.0	0.9	100
Kisoro	91.0	7.5	-	0.7	0.7	100
Kyenjojo	87.8	8.7	-	3.1	0.3	100
Masindi	75.1	16.7	0.2	4.3	3.7	100
Mbarara	71.4	18.3	0.3	8.7	1.3	100
Ntungamo	78.5	16.3	0.2	4.0	0.9	100
Rukungiri	87.7	8.4	0.1	3.6	0.3	100
Region	78.7	14.1	0.2	5.6	1.4	100
Uganda	65.2	14.7	0.4	12.8	7	100

Table A1.6: Percentage of owner occupied dwelling units by land tenure system and District

Region / District	Owner Occupied	Free	Subsidized	Rented	Other	Total
Central						
Kalangala	66.2	10.5	0.5	22.5	0.3	100
Kampala	21.8	8.3	1.8	67.4	0.6	100
Kayunga	77	6.6	1.1	14.9	0.4	100
Kiboga	80.9	7.3	0.7	10.8	0.3	100
Luwero	73.5	9.5	1.3	15.4	0.3	100
Masaka	71.8	8.2	1	18.6	0.3	100
Mpigi	77.3	7.4	1.3	13.7	0.3	100
Mubende	78.2	8.2	0.9	12.4	0.3	100
Mukono	64.1	10.2	1.3	23.9	0.4	100
Nakasongola	76.1	9.6	0.9	13.1	0.2	100
Rakai	79.9	5.3	0.7	13.4	0.7	100
Ssembabule	82	5.8	1.4	10.1	0.7	100
Wakiso	49.3	10.7	1.6	38	0.4	100
Region	60.2	8.6	1.3	29.5	0.4	100
Eastern						
Bugiri	85.9	3.5	0.4	10.1	0.1	100
Busia	81.0	2.0	0.6	16.2	0.2	100
Iganga	84.6	2.9	0.6	11.7	0.2	100
Jinja	52.6	6.4	4.8	33.3	2.9	100
Kaberamaido	94.8	2.8	0.3	1.9	0.2	100
Kamuli	90.0	2.7	0.4	6.8	0.1	100
Kapchorwa	87.6	3.6	0.7	7.7	0.5	100
Katakwi	93.3	4.5	0.3	1.8	0.2	100
Kumi	93.0	3.0	0.3	3.3	0.4	100
Mayuge	82.4	5.5	0.8	11.1	0.2	100
Mbale	84.8	3.6	0.6	10.9	0.1	100
Pallisa	95.4	1.4	0.3	2.6	0.3	100
Sironko	92.5	3.0	0.3	4.0	0.2	100
Soroti	83.9	4.5	1.2	10.3	0.1	100
Tororo	88.6	3.4	0.4	7.6	0.1	100
Region	85.8	3.5	0.8	9.6	0.4	100

Table A1.6: Percentage of owner occupied dwelling units by land tenure system and District

Region / District	Owner Occupied	Free	Subsidized	Rented	Other	Total
Northern						
Adjumani	89.0	7.1	0.6	3.0	0.3	100
Apac	94.0	3.8	0.4	1.7	0.1	100
Arua	89.2	4.9	0.6	5.2	0.1	100
Gulu	77.4	9.0	0.8	10.0	2.8	100
Kitgum	85.0	7.1	0.6	6.7	0.5	100
Lira	87.3	4.0	0.5	8.1	0.2	100
Moroto	80.9	11.3	1.2	3.9	2.6	100
Moyo	93.2	4.8	0.4	1.6	0.1	100
Nakapiripirit	91.5	6.3	0.5	1.5	0.2	100
Nebbi	90.3	4.6	0.4	4.5	0.2	100
Pader	89.7	7.1	0.3	2.5	0.3	100
Yumbe	94.6	3.0	0.4	1.9	0.2	100
Region	88.4	5.6	0.5	4.9	0.5	100
Western						
Bundibugyo	84.0	7.2	0.7	7.5	0.6	100
Bushenyi	88.7	3.2	0.4	7.6	0.1	100
Hoima	83.3	5.5	1.0	9.9	0.4	100
Kabale	89.8	3.2	0.6	6.3	0.1	100
Kabarole	78.3	8.6	1.1	11.8	0.3	100
Kamwenge	91.4	2.5	0.4	5.6	0.1	100
Kanungu	88.6	3.6	0.3	7.3	0.2	100
Kasese	76.1	6.2	0.8	16.7	0.2	100
Kibaale	89.3	3.8	0.4	6.3	0.2	100
Kisoro	95.4	2.0	0.2	2.3	0.1	100
Kyenjojo	90.6	3.3	0.6	5.2	0.2	100
Masindi	74.2	10.1	1.3	13.5	0.9	100
Mbarara	81.4	5.0	0.6	12.7	0.3	100
Ntungamo	88.8	3.1	0.3	7.7	-	100
Rukungiri	88.7	3.0	0.4	7.8	0.1	100
Region	85.0	4.8	0.6	9.4	0.2	100
UGANDA	78.2	5.7	0.9	14.8	0.4	100

Table A1.7: Percentage distribution of households by selected welfare indicators by district

Regions/ District	Take Sugar	Use Soap For Bathing	Each Child Has a Blanket	Have at Least A Pair of Shoes Each	Each Has at Least 2 Sets of clothing	Total
Central						
Kalangala	75.3	93.1	24	69.3	87.4	100
Kampala	95.1	98.2	54.6	94.9	97.1	100
Kayunga	42.7	90.2	31.9	37.2	69.3	100
Kiboga	44.5	95.0	40	49.6	78.6	100
Luwero	52.5	94.0	38.3	55.6	81.4	100
Masaka	54.8	92.9	44.5	58.4	84.3	100
Mpigi	46.7	91.8	38.1	51.5	79.7	100
Mubende	44.8	94.5	43.5	55.2	84.1	100
Mukono	66.2	93.5	41.7	62.4	83.6	100
Nakasongola	56.0	95.3	33.0	48.6	80.6	100
Rakai	45.9	92.8	37.6	47.6	79.5	100
Ssembabule	42.0	90.6	43.3	49.4	78.1	100
Wakiso	85.6	96.8	56.9	86.7	93.5	100
Region	65.4	94.7	45.5	67	86.3	100
Eastern						
Bugiri	44.1	92.8	29.5	28.2	64.4	100
Busia	42.6	94.1	35.9	40.2	77.4	100
Iganga	60.8	92.4	34.3	32.8	71.8	100
Jinja	75.1	95.5	40.2	57.5	83.9	100
Kaberamaido	23.1	87.4	10.1	13.6	73.8	100
Kamuli	50.7	91.6	32.9	27.2	70.0	100
Kapchorwa	69.1	94.7	32.2	46.9	80.0	100
Katakwi	20.8	90.2	7.7	10.8	71.2	100
Kumi	29.4	93.2	8.3	13.7	78.6	100
Mayuge	52.1	92.7	28.0	27.5	64.2	100
Mbale	66.6	92.8	30.3	36.1	73.2	100
Pallisa	32.5	89.1	11.9	12.7	61.9	100
Sironko	77.8	93.9	30.6	32.4	70.5	100
Soroti	34.1	90.0	11.0	19.4	74.3	100
Tororo	41.6	92.0	18.8	26.1	69.5	100
Region	50.3	92.2	25.4	28.8	71.7	100

Table A1.7: Percentage distribution of households by selected welfare indicators by district

Regions/District	Take Sugar	Use Soap For Bathing	Each Child Has a Blanket	Have at Least A Pair of Shoes Each	Each Has at Least 2 Sets of clothing	Total
Northern						
Adjumani	32.9	85.5	23.4	34.2	82.3	100
Apac	29.0	92.2	19.2	19.2	76.7	100
Arua	42.2	93.3	23.2	32.7	84.7	100
Gulu	27.2	81.2	32.6	25.7	60.7	100
Kitgum	15.4	61.5	15.6	16.4	51.6	100
Lira	32.7	90.9	20.6	19.9	78.1	100
Moroto	12.6	20.4	4.3	9.6	19.9	100
Moyo	38.5	83.0	38.1	37.3	82.5	100
Nebbi	27.1	85.6	24.7	28.9	80.9	100
Nakapiripirit	14.0	28.7	6.3	9.3	23.0	100
Pader	16.4	74.7	18.1	15.2	56.1	100
Yumbe	39.9	77.5	29.2	29.8	62.7	100
Region	29.6	81.4	22.1	23.7	70	100
Western						
Bundibugyo	47.2	78.8	38.2	36.8	68.3	100
Bushenyi	37.3	95.1	49.4	52.6	85.1	100
Hoima	55.1	95.9	41.5	49.8	84.5	100
Kabale	28.9	93.8	41.9	43.5	89.4	100
Kabarole	62.1	94.1	42.9	55.9	80.8	100
Kamwenge	25.3	91.9	36.8	35.2	80.0	100
Kanungu	28.3	91.3	28.2	37.1	86.2	100
Kasese	39.9	90.5	32.5	44.4	78.3	100
Kibaale	39.9	95.2	38.9	39.8	82.2	100
Kisoro	21.1	95.0	31.9	32.3	89.4	100
Kyenjojo	39.2	93.5	34.2	38.7	78.1	100
Masindi	52.7	93.0	40.1	44.8	80.0	100
Mbarara	37.1	94.6	44.1	53.6	82.2	100
Ntungamo	32.2	94.2	45.3	48.9	83.0	100
Rukungiri	30.1	93.9	44.0	51.7	85.1	100
Western	39.0	93.4	40.7	46.4	82.4	100
UGANDA	48.1	91.3	34.8	44	78.6	100

Table A1.8: Percent of households by ownership of a means of transport/radio by district

Region/district	Own a Bicycle	Own a Radio	Own a Car	Own Motorcycle	Total
Central					
Kalangala	7.9	50.7	0.7	0.7	100
Kampala	7.4	73.1	3.0	3.0	100
Kayunga	41.8	46.1	2.8	2.8	100
Kiboga	44.1	52.0	5.1	5.1	100
Luwero	44.4	59.8	5.1	5.1	100
Masaka	34.4	57.7	3.7	3.7	100
Mpigi	32.2	54.8	4.1	4.1	100
Mubende	34.2	52.4	4.4	4.4	100
Mukono	27.3	58.8	3.2	3.2	100
Nakasongola	59.4	56.4	4.3	4.3	100
Rakai	36.9	53.3	3.5	3.5	100
Ssembabule	39.4	55.4	4.9	4.9	100
Wakiso	20.9	71.5	4.4	4.4	100
Region	27.9	61.2	3.8	3.8	100
Eastern					
Bugiri	44.6	41.6	1.8	1.8	100
Busia	44.5	43.2	1.0	1.0	100
Iganga	46.1	39.8	2.4	2.4	100
Jinja	33.7	53.1	2.7	2.7	100
Kaberamaido	51.7	33.5	0.8	0.8	100
Kamuli	53.3	41.6	2.5	2.5	100
Kapchorwa	3.9	35.1	0.6	0.6	100
Katakwi	44.3	29.0	0.8	0.8	100
Kumi	51.9	39.0	1.3	1.3	100
Mayuge	40.3	40.9	2.0	2.0	100
Mbale	16.3	43.5	0.7	0.7	100
Pallisa	47.2	35.8	1.6	1.6	100
Sironko	10.0	38.1	0.4	0.4	100
Soroti	57.9	44.1	1.1	1.1	100
Tororo	43.3	40.0	1.4	1.4	100
Region	39.5	40.6	1.5	1.5	100

Table A1.8: Percent of households by ownership of a means of transport/radio by district

Region/district	Own a Bicycle	Own a Radio	Own a Car	Own Motorcycle	Total
Northern					
Adjumani	37.3	23.9	0.9	0.9	100
Apac	53.9	39.1	1.3	1.3	100
Arua	42.4	37.0	1.7	1.7	100
Gulu	46	39.8	1.6	1.6	100
Kitgum	36.7	24.4	1.6	1.6	100
Kotido	*	*	*	*	*
Lira	48.8	37.6	1.7	1.7	100
Moroto	6.2	8.4	0.3	0.3	100
Moyo	36.0	31.0	1.0	1.0	100
Nebbi	30.1	38.1	0.9	0.9	100
Nakapiripirit	7.3	9.0	0.3	0.3	100
Pader	34.5	20.5	0.9	0.9	100
Yumbe	47.4	29.2	1.2	1.2	100
Region	40.9	32.9	1.3	1.3	100
Western					
Bundibugyo	16.2	35.4	1.5	1.5	100
Bushenyi	25.5	61.2	2.1	2.1	100
Hoima	50.9	65.6	6.0	6	100
Kabale	19.6	52.9	0.8	0.8	100
Kabarole	34.3	61.4	3.7	3.7	100
Kasese	20.5	43.4	2.0	2.0	100
Kibaale	36.7	61.6	4.5	4.5	100
Kisoro	14.6	28.5	0.7	0.7	100
Masindi	50.3	54.1	3.1	3.1	100
Mbarara	34.3	62.4	3	3.0	100
Ntungamo	28.9	58.2	2.1	2.1	100
Rukungiri	16.2	58.2	1.5	1.5	100
Kamwenge	30.6	47.2	2.4	2.4	100
Kanungu	14.1	47	1.4	1.4	100
Kyenjojo	30.6	54.5	3.2	3.2	100
Region	29.8	55.3	2.7	2.7	100
UGANDA	33.7	49.2	2.5	2.5	100

Table A.1.9: Percent distribution of Occupancy Tenure by selected characteristics of head

Sex of Head	Owner					Total
	Occupied	Free	Subsidized	Rented	Other	
Male	79.0	5.8	0.8	14.0	0.4	100.0
Female	75.7	5.6	0.9	17.5	0.4	100.0
Marital Status						
Single	44.1	13.2	2.0	39.9	0.8	100.0
Married	81.5	5.0	0.7	12.4	0.3	100.0
Widowed	89.0	3.8	0.5	6.4	0.3	100.0
Divorced/Separated	70.1	7.5	1.1	20.7	0.6	100.0
State of Permanency						
Temporary	88.8	4.3	0.5	6.0	0.4	100.0
Semi Permanent	70.7	6.2	1.0	21.8	0.3	100.0
Permanent	40.0	11.3	2.3	46.1	0.4	100.0
Main source of livelihood						
Subsistence farming	92.8	3	0.4	3.6	0.2	100
Employment income	39.3	13.2	2.2	44.7	0.6	100
Property Income	73.6	6.2	0.7	19.2	0.4	100
Other	63.9	8.3	1.3	25.3	1.2	100
Total	78.2	5.7	0.9	14.8	0.4	100.0

Table A1.10: Percent distribution of type of Dwelling Unit by selected characteristics of head

Characteristics	Main	Room	Store/ Basement	Garage	Servants quarters	Other	Total
Sex of Head							
Male	70.3	26.1	0.3	0.1	1.2	2.1	100
Female	66.9	29.6	0.3	0.1	1.3	1.9	100
Marital Status							
Single	45.5	48.3	0.5	0.2	3.7	1.7	100
Married	71.5	25.1	0.2	0.1	1	2.1	100
Widowed	77.6	19.3	0.2	0.1	0.6	2.3	100
Divorced/Separated	65.4	31	0.3	0.1	1.8	1.4	100
State of Permanency							
Temporary	76.7	19.8	0.2	-	0.5	2.8	100
Semi Permanent	66.7	30.8	0.4	0.1	1.7	0.3	100
Permanent	41.9	53.3	0.5	0.3	3.8	0.2	100
Main source of livelihood							
Subsistence farming	79.9	17.3	0.2	0	0.4	2.2	100
Employment income	42.6	51.8	0.4	0.2	3.5	1.5	100
Property Income	61.3	34.8	0.4	0.1	1.8	1.5	100
Other	57	37.8	0.4	0.2	2.3	2.4	100
Total	69.5	26.9	0.3	0.1	1.2	2.1	100

Table A1.11: Percent distribution of Housing Unit Type by selected characteristics of head

Characteristics	Detached House	Semi-Detached House	Flat	Tenement (Muzigo)	Others	Total
Sex of Head						
Male	65.9	14.5	0.4	12.1	7.0	100
Female	62.7	15.1	0.5	15	6.7	100
Marital Status						
Single	44	16.7	0.8	34.1	4.3	100
Married	66.9	14.5	0.4	10.6	7.5	100
Widowed	72.1	14.0	0.3	6.6	7.0	100
Divorced/Separated	62.2	14.5	0.3	18.2	4.9	100
State of Permanency						
Temporary	71.2	13.4	0.2	5.6	9.5	100
Semi Permanent	64.7	15.2	0.4	18.9	0.8	100
Permanent	40.9	19.3	1.5	37.8	0.5	100
Main source of livelihood						
Subsistence farming	74.5	13.5	0.2	3.8	7.9	100
Employment income	41.2	17.7	1.1	36.1	3.9	100
Property Income	55.3	20.1	0.7	19.3	4.5	100
Other	54.7	15.2	0.4	22.3	7.4	100
Total	65.2	14.7	0.4	12.8	7.0	100

Table A1.12: Percent distribution of Land Tenure systems by selected characteristics of Head

Characteristics	Customary	Free Hold	Mailo Land	Leasehold	Total
Sex of Head					
Male	69.4	18.4	8.7	3.5	100
Female	65.8	19.3	11.1	3.8	100
Marital Status					
Single	57.8	21.0	15.6	5.6	100
Married	70.8	17.9	7.9	3.4	100
Widowed	66.9	19.2	10.7	3.3	100
Divorced/Separated	55.3	23.6	16.7	4.4	100
Residence					
Urban	37.3	24.7	18.4	19.6	100
Rural	70.2	18.3	8.8	2.7	100
Regions					
Central	22.5	34.0	35.8	7.7	100
Central Excl Kampala	22.6	34.5	35.8	7.1	100
Eastern	78.8	18.6	0.6	2.0	100
Northern	92.0	5.5	0.4	2.1	100
Western	76.4	16.5	4.0	3.1	100
State of Permanency					
Temporary	74.5	16.0	6.9	2.7	100
Semi Permanent	50.0	28.5	17.2	4.3	100
Permanent	34.6	31.6	22.7	11.1	100
Main source of livelihood					
Subsistence farming	66.2	16.3	7.9	2.5	100
Employment income	17.8	10.5	6.9	4.1	100
Property Income	34.7	19.2	10.3	9.3	100
Other	37.2	14.8	7.9	4.0	100
Total	68.6	18.6	9.2	3.6	100

Annex 2: Glossary of Terms

Geography Definitions

Enumeration Area (EA) – An area demarcated for purposes of census enumeration. It consists of a complete LC I, part of an LC I or more than one LC I in the same parish.

Residence – Classification of EAs between rural, peri-urban and urban areas

Urban Areas – All gazetted cities, municipalities and town councils

District – A district in Uganda where a person was enumerated. At the time of census enumeration, there were 56 districts in Uganda

Household Definitions

Household – A group of persons who normally live and eat together.

Head of Household – A person who is acknowledged as the head by other members either by virtue of age or social standing in the household. The head has primary authority and responsibility for household affairs.

Household Size – Number of persons who are members of a given household.

Housing Definitions

Building - An independent, enclosed and permanent structure covered by a roof and enclosed with external walls.

Housing Unit – That building intended for habitation by a single household. This is irrespective of how many households actually live in it.

Dwelling - A structure or portion thereof used exclusively for human habitation.

Dwelling Unit – That building that is actually occupied by a single household. This is irrespective of the size of the household, building size or intended use.

Detached Housing Unit – A stand alone independent residential unit intended for the habitation of a single household.

Flat - An independent residential unit, within a multi-storeyed structure, joined by a common wall and floor/roof and sharing certain facilities such as staircase with other similar units within the structural block.

Permanent Dwelling Units – Dwelling units built with durable materials (wall, floor and roof) that can maintain their stability for at least 15 years

Semi Permanent Dwelling Units – Dwelling units built with a combination of durable materials, and require regular maintenance.

Semi-detached house - One of a pair of single-family houses joined by a common wall and forming a structural unit.

Overcrowding - Occupancy of dwelling units by more persons than they were designed to accommodate to a degree that endangers health, safety and welfare of the occupants. An average size habitable room is regarded as overcrowded if occupied by more than 2 persons.

Sharing Ratio – Is a measure of the occupancy density (in terms of households per housing unit) or level of overcrowding of the existing housing units.

Tenement - A low-rent dwelling unit, located in a slum of informal settlement, often ageing and in substandard condition, poorly maintained and overcrowded; it is commonly referred to as “Muzigo”.

Tenant - An occupant of a dwelling unit with the owner’s assent, who pays rent to the owner of the unit in return for the right to occupy the dwelling unit.

Temporary Dwelling Units – Dwelling units built with non-durable wall floor and roof materials that can maintain stability for more than 3 years. They require regular replacement. All housing units thatched with untreated natural fibres are classified as temporary irrespective of wall and floor materials.

Household Facilities

Safe Water Source – Includes Tap/piped water, Borehole and Protected Well/Spring. All the other sources are classified as unsafe.

Kitchen - A room or space in a dwelling set apart for storage of food and various operations involved in preparation and serving of meals and cleansing of dishes and cooking utensils.

Toilet - A room containing a facility through which human waste is disposed of. Such a facility may be a sanitary fixture with a seat and bowl containing water to flush away human waste after use, OR a covered pit with a hole through which one gets rid of waste liquid or waste matter from one's body.

Safe Toilet – covers VIP, flush and covered pit excludes uncovered pit latrine.