

Foreword

The Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) conducted the second round of the National Service Delivery Survey (NSDS) in the year 2004. Like the 2000 NSDS, the 2004 NSDS collected information on six selected sectors namely Education, Health, Water and Sanitation, Agriculture, Transport and Governance. The survey was aimed at providing information about the performance of the selected sectors for policy formulation, implementation and monitoring at all levels of governance.

Two sets of questionnaires were used to collect information: the household questionnaire (service users) and the questionnaire for service providers. Information was documented on availability, accessibility, utilisation, satisfaction with quality and quantity, factors limiting access and utilization, and constraints affecting service provision. The report presents major findings on key indicators of service provision at national, regional and district levels.

It should however be noted that not all data was fully analysed and used in writing this report. The Uganda Bureau of Statistics is ready to provide the data sets to the stakeholders who wish to carry out further analysis. We hope the documented information will be used widely and contribute towards policy formulation, implementation and monitoring for improved service delivery.

The Bureau is very grateful to the Government of Uganda and the World Bank for providing the required funds that enabled it to carry out the survey and also extend our gratitude to the Steering and Technical Committees, the technical staff of the six sector ministries, the data processing staff, the district staff who worked as district level coordinators, all field staff and the individual households and the service providers who responded to our questionnaires for their contribution towards production of this report.

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Executive Director

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

AIDS	-	Acquired Immuno Deficiency Syndrome
CSO	-	Civil Society Organization
CBO	-	Community Based Organization
CDA	-	Community Development Assistants
DPT	-	Diphtheria Pertussis & Tetanus
ESIP	-	Education Strategic Investment Plan
EAs	-	Enumeration Areas
HH	-	Household
HIV	-	Human Immuno Deficiency
HSSP	-	Health Sector Strategic Plan
LC	-	Local Council
MFPEd	-	Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development
MOH	-	Ministry of Health
NAADS	-	National Agricultural Advisory Services
NSDS	-	National Service Delivery Survey
NGO	-	Non-Government Organization
OPD	-	Out Patient Department
PMA	-	Plan for Modernization of Agriculture
PAF	-	Poverty Action Fund
PEAP	-	Poverty Eradication Action Plan
PSU	-	Primary Sampling Unit
PPS	-	Probability Proportion to Size
PPAS	-	Programme Priority Areas
SSU	-	Secondary Sampling Unit
UBOS-		Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UNHS	-	Uganda National Household Survey
Ug. Shs	-	Uganda Shillings

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) in collaboration with the Ministry of Public Service (MPS) conducted the 2004 National Service Delivery Survey (NSDS) in all the 56 districts. The survey covered six sectors namely Health, Education, Agriculture, Road Infrastructure, Water and Sanitation, and Governance. The overall objective of the survey was to provide information for policy formulation, implementation and monitoring for all levels of governance. A representative sample of 18,000 households was randomly selected from all the 56 districts but only 17,608 households were covered.

The total estimated population from the survey was 26.3 million which is equal to the projected mid year population for 2004 using the provisional results of the 2002 Population and Housing Census.

Household population

The population is largely young with children below 15 years constituting about 48 percent while the population 60 years and above constitutes only 3 percent. This young population has an implication on the required education and health services. These findings are in line with the National Household Survey 2002/2003.

Occupation Status

Thirty one percent of the population aged 10 years and above were full time students while about one percent had not worked but looked for work in the 7 days that preceded the survey. Whereas about one quarter of the females were domestic workers, the corresponding figure for male was only about 6 percent. In addition, the survey indicated that 44 percent of the population aged 10 years and above was engaged in agriculture, fisheries and forestry related activities as their main occupation.

Education

Considering all household members, the survey revealed that 40 percent were currently in school and there were no significant differentials by residence. Being too young was the major reason given for children aged 6-12 years that had never attended school. However, most of the children considered too young were the six-year olds (63%).

Eighty three percent of the children attending day primary schools traveled a distance of less than or equal to 3 km which is below the PEAP target of 5 km. A relatively higher percentage (87%) than the national average, however, was found for the northern region.

The highest incidence of leaving school was in P6 (35%) followed by P5 (22%). The findings also indicated that a significant number (14%) did not complete primary one (P1). The reasons given for children leaving school were mainly socio-economic including high cost (39%), lack of interest (17%) and sickness/calamity in the family (12%). School environment related reasons like poor quality of school were mentioned by less than one percent of the households.

Schools reported having a problem of inadequate facilities and the inadequacy was reported highest for teachers' houses. Only about 8 percent of the schools indicated having adequate teachers' houses. Households that indicated adequacy of classrooms were more (29%) but this is not encouraging either. In addition, about 25 percent of the schools that were covered still depended on unsafe sources of water for drinking. However, inadequate buildings was identified as the most serious constraint affecting schools and this was reported by one in every three households.

Households were generally satisfied with the quality of teachers in the primary schools their children attended. Close to 50 percent rated the quality of primary school teachers as good while only 9 percent rated them as poor.

Health

During the 30 days that preceded the survey, 31 percent of the population reported falling sick. Fever/ malaria were the main contributor to the disease burden reported by slightly over 50 percent of the respondents in both rural and urban areas. The majority of the patients sought their first treatment from Government health facilities (33%). Nearly 86 percent of the patients were satisfied with the quality of government health services provided and no major differences were observed between the rural and urban dwellers. However, only 18 percent of the households indicated satisfaction with availability of drugs.

Considering all children below 5 years whose immunization cards were seen, only 41 percent had received DPT3. However, by including even those without cards, the percentage immunized almost doubled. Most households (66%) reported that all health services had improved compared to the year 2000 but they cited the highest improvement in immunization services.

Overall, about 50 percent of the patients paid for the services although only 34 percent were willing to pay. Whereas the majority patients paid official fees (68%), up to 30 percent of the patients were forced to pay some unofficial fees before getting the service.

Water

Nearly 70 percent of the households accessed safe water for drinking in the dry season while 60 percent accessed it in the wet season. The figure for the dry season is above the set targets for financial 2003/4 of 55 percent for the rural areas and 65 percent for the urban areas. Similarly, a sharp decline in the percentage of households reporting rain water as the main source during the dry season was noted implying that households lack storage facilities to enable them use the harvested water even during the dry season.

Most households accessed water within a distance of 0.5 km in both seasons (65% and 57% for wet and dry seasons respectively). Whereas households in the rural area spent 43 minutes during the dry season and 31 minutes during the wet season to fetch water, the set target is only 27 minutes. Urban Households also spend more time fetching water (22 minutes during dry season and 17 minutes during the wet season) than the target of 7 minutes. Nearly 50 percent of the households reported inadequate safe water sources as the major constraint limiting use of safe water.

Nearly two in every five households in both the rural and urban areas indicated paying for the water they used. Most rural households paid for maintenance of water points (85%) while the majority of the urban households (67%) paid user fees.

The most common way of storing drinking water in both rural and urban areas was using covered pots. However, some reasonable percentage of households used uncovered jerry cans.

Housing Characteristic

Slightly over 60 percent of the dwelling structures were roofed with iron sheets. Earth and cow dung formed the most common (35%) type of floor, followed by earth (33%) and cement screed (27%). About a quarter of the households (26%) lacked kitchens. Where the kitchens existed, in the majority of the cases (62%), they were located outside the dwelling place.

Pits and gardens were the most common methods (68%) of garbage disposal in both rural and urban areas. However, more households in the rural (74%) than in the urban (54%) areas used the method.

Agriculture

Nearly two in every three households were involved in agricultural activities and mainly engaged in crop husbandry (99%). Up to 43 percent of the households were involved in both crop and animal husbandry.

Nearly 42 percent of the households engaged in crop husbandry had never demanded any extension services. The situation was worse with fish farming where 84 percent had never demanded the services. Only 14 percent of the households had been visited by an extension worker within the 12 months before the survey compared to about 29 percent reported in the 2000 NSDS. The western and eastern regions reported the lowest percentages of households visited by extension workers of about 11 and 12 percent respectively.

Government was found to be the main source of all extension services in the 12 months that preceded the survey. Other sources included the private sector and NGOs, which provided services to less than 30 percent of the households, except for animal husbandry where it was about 38 percent. About one half of the households indicated that they were within 5 km from the extension worker while about 20 percent were within a distance of more than 10 km. More than one in every three households reported mass media as the most common method of accessing agricultural extension services although only one in every five households preferred the method. Most households preferred meetings with the extension worker.

Crop husbandry and fisheries services were generally provided free of charge and services for animal husbandry were paid for by slightly over a half of the households. Meanwhile about one in every three households was willing to pay for the services in all regions except Kampala where up to 58 percent of the households were willing to pay. Nine in every ten households were satisfied with the agricultural extension services received except for Kampala where only about two in every three households were satisfied. Except for fish farming, most households indicated one in every three households was willing to pay for the services in all regions except Kampala.

Nearly 60 percent of households had never heard about PMA. Of those who had heard about PMA, nearly 73 percent had heard about at least one activity among training, advocacy and marketing. Only about one percent had heard about all the three activities.

Except for artificial insemination, agricultural inputs were largely provided by the private sector through shops/local vendors (66%).

Most households (76%) indicated that the quality of agricultural inputs was good. Only 3 percent rated the quality of agricultural inputs as poor. Most of the information regarding agricultural inputs was got from other farmers or LC officials.

Road Infrastructure

Slightly more than three quarters of the households reported access to good and usable roads all year round. Households that reported non-usable roads attributed the condition to poor maintenance (39%) and bad weather (24%). In addition to these factors however, most sub county authorities pointed to lack of equipment and inadequate funding as constraints to limiting usability of roads all year round. Seventy percent of the sub-counties reported having access to minimum road maintenance equipment at the district but 55 percent of these reported lack of fuel as the

limiting factor for utilization of the equipment. It was generally agreed however, that road maintenance had improved during the two years that preceded the survey.

Sixty one percent of the households indicated that no new roads had been constructed in their areas during the two years that preceded the survey. One in every two households that indicated construction of some new roads in the reference period pointed out that only less than 10 km had been constructed.

Water Transport

Only 12 percent of the households reported using water as the main source of transport during the 2 years that preceded the survey. The private sector provided boat services at some fee while the government provided free ferry services. Most households reported improvement in the water transport but the few who were dissatisfied indicated unreliability of the service (44%) and bad weather (33%) as the major constraints limiting the use of water transport services. Households considered water provision, health unit, new school and road/bridge construction as the four most important projects. Whereas many households appreciated the benefits from new schools and classrooms constructed, only very few reported benefits from agriculture-related and electrification projects. They further indicated that a number of other projects had not been implemented in their areas. Close to 67 percent of the households indicated that no project had been implemented in their communities in the three years preceding the survey.

Governance

A large percentage of households (more than 60%) were within a distance of less than one kilometer from the customary courts and LC1. A half of the households were in a distance between 1-5 km from the local administration police and 66 percent were in a distance of more than 10 km from the District Land Tribunal.

Very few households reported frequent need for administrative institutions/courts. However, the few who required the services gained access to the institution. Complaints were the most common nature of cases and they were mostly registered at the District Land Tribunal. Generally most households (75%) were satisfied with the services received and the highest satisfaction was registered for customary courts (82%) and LC I – III (slightly over 75%).

Time taken to resolve the cases varied with the type and level of institution. While local government institutions took a short time of less than a month in majority of cases, 20 percent of cases presented in the high court and the land tribunal took more than 12 months.

Slightly above one half of the households (53%) paid before receiving the services and the highest incidence of payment occurred at the central police (61%) followed by the local administration police (60%). All institutions asked for bribes but the highest rate was registered at the central police (33%) followed by the local administration police (26%).

Forty eight percent of the households reported that their communities held LC meetings at least once a month while only one percent of the households reported not holding meetings at all. However only 36 percent of the households reported regular attendance of these meetings and 12 percent reported not attending at all. Households generally acknowledged that their interests were effectively represented by the LC executive and therefore appreciated their work.

**Formal and
Informal Credit**

Only 29 percent of the households confirmed that the 25% of their local revenue was remitted to their villages. Of these, 60 percent knew how the remitted money was spent. Reporting of extortions and embezzlement of public funds was very low. The findings indicated that less than 2 percent of those who knew how to report have ever reported such cases.

The survey showed that while about 18 percent of the household population aged 18 years and above required a loan or credit during the 12 months that preceded the survey, only 37 percent of these applied for it. The majority either failed or did not make any attempt to apply for a loan.

The most common purpose given for applying for a loan was setting up or expanding an enterprise (46%). This was followed by education and purchase of agricultural inputs with 12 percent and 11 percent respectively. NGOs were the most common source of loans (23%) followed by co-operative credit facility (21%) and bank (17%). Relatives and friends constituted only about 9 percent.

Most household members that did not apply for a loan gave lack of knowledge of where to invest the funds as the major reason (38%). Other reasons for not applying for a loan were, among others, given as lack of collateral security required (24%) and high interest rate (14%)

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The central and local governments in Uganda provide various services to the public under the Programme Priority Areas (PPAs) of Health, Education, Agriculture, Safe water provision, Road infrastructure and Governance. Information aimed at monitoring the performance of these sectors is compiled from administrative records by the respective line ministries to guide policy formulation and provision of improved services. The data collected however, does not address the issue of service user satisfaction. Such information can only be obtained through Service Delivery Surveys.

The government of Uganda put in place different policies aimed at ensuring effective delivery of services. Under the decentralization policy, funds for development are made available to the various Local Governments in the form of conditional and unconditional grants. In addition, various development partners directly or indirectly support the Local Governments to improve service delivery. Performance of sectors is monitored through administrative records and Service Delivery Surveys.

The Sentinel Community Surveillance, which was piloted in nine (9) districts in 1996, was the first such survey. This was followed by the first National Service Delivery Survey (NSDS) which was coordinated by the Ministry of Public Service and conducted by a consortium of consultants in 2000.

The study documented information on the extent of service delivery in terms of accessibility, utilization and satisfaction of the users. The sectors covered included; education, health, road infrastructure, water and sanitation, agriculture, and governance.

The 2004 NSDS was conducted as part of a continuous series of the NSDS that provide periodical updates on the performance of public services with regard to availability, accessibility, utilization and satisfaction of services. The findings provide indicators to facilitate bottom-up planning through monitoring and evaluation of the performance of the various actors.

The Survey provided information on the monitorable indicators under the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP). Constant monitoring of the performance of the various institutions involved in public service delivery is vital to ensure poverty reduction.

1.2 Objectives

The 2004 NSDS was aimed at providing information about the performance of selected public services for policy formulation, implementation and monitoring at all levels of governance.

1.2.1 Specific Objectives

- (i) To provide up to date information about the performance and impact of selected public services at local government and national level for poverty monitoring;
- (ii) To measure changes in service delivery in selected sectors;
- (iii) To identify constraints and gaps in the provision of selected government services by selected sectors;
- (iv) To provide recommendations for improvement in service delivery;
- (v) To generate and disseminate information about services offered by selected government sectors.

1.3 Sampling Design

The sampling design used for collecting primary data was a multi-stage cluster sample. The first stage of sampling involved the selection of Enumeration Areas (EAs). An enumeration area is an area that can be covered by one enumerator at the time of a Census, in most cases this area is equivalent to a village/ cell, while in other cases it is part of the village or many villages. The EAs had been demarcated in preparation for the 2002 Population and Housing Census. A representative sample of at least 30 enumeration areas (EAs) was selected from every district independently. The sampling process utilized the 2002 Population and Housing Census Sampling Frame using the probability proportional to size (PPS) approach. A total of 1800 EAs (Primary Sampling Units) were targeted in the entire country (see Annex 1.1 for the number of EAs covered by district).

A complete listing of households was done in each of the EAs to generate a sampling frame of households from which a sample of households was selected. Within each selected Primary Sampling Unit (PSU), ten (10) households were randomly selected as Secondary Sampling Units (SSU). Overall, the Survey targeted 18,000 households.

In order to obtain data on community services, the service outlets serving the communities selected for the Survey were interviewed. The service provider instrument respondents included Head Teachers, In-charges of Health Facilities, Community Development Assistants, Agricultural Extension Workers, Magistrates and Sub-county Chiefs.

1.4 Survey Instruments

The Survey employed two categories of questionnaires, namely Household and Service Provider. Other instruments of the Survey included the Interviewers Manual, Sampling Frame, Field Operations Manual, and Enumeration Areas Maps.

1.5 Data Quality Control Measures

Service Delivery Surveys are sample surveys. Sample surveys are affected by two types of errors, namely; non-sampling and sampling errors; and the 2004 NSDS was not an exception.

Non-sampling errors arise as a result of mistakes made during data collection, processing and analysis. Errors of non-sampling nature were minimized through strict supervision at every stage of the Survey. The stages included; questionnaire design, training of interviewers, data collection, data processing and analysis.

Sampling errors are the result of the sample selected being one of the many samples that could be selected to get about estimate the same population but yielding different results. Sampling errors measure the variability between all possible samples. A sampling error is measured in terms of the standard error for a particular statistic, such as mean, proportion and total. Annex 1.2 presents the standard errors and confidence intervals for selected variables. The Survey estimates revealed a small standard error implying that the results are representative at the desired levels that is national, residence, region and district.

1.6 Survey Organization

The Survey covered the following major activities and was conducted through out Uganda.

- Compiling service delivery standards for selected sectors
- Development of the survey instruments
- Recruitment of the fieldworkers
- Training of field workers
- Data collection
- Data processing and analysis
- Report writing
- Dissemination.

1.6.1 Service Delivery Standards

The NSDS Technical Committee collected service delivery standards from the stakeholders of the six sectors that were covered by the Survey. The sector specific service delivery standards guided the development of the Survey instruments, and were also utilized to interpret the findings.

1.6.2 Development of Survey Instruments

The development of the Survey instruments went through a number of processes that included; workshops for drafting, pre-testing, and piloting.

A five day workshop was organized for the stakeholders to draft the Survey instruments. The outputs of the workshop were draft questionnaires for administering at household and service provider level. The draft instruments were pre-tested in the districts of Mukono and Wakiso in the month of October 2003. In each of those districts, the pretest was conducted in two sub-counties. The main objective of the pretest was to refine the draft questionnaires.

The refined questionnaire was piloted in four districts of Bugiri, Kabarole, Nebbi and Rakai. The Pilot Survey was aimed at testing the refined questionnaire as well as the enumerators' capacity and skill required for conducting the Survey. The Pilot Survey fieldworkers were trained for 10 days in November 2003. Fieldwork for the NSDS pilot survey was conducted from 9th to 17th December 2003. The Pilot Survey fieldwork was closely supervised by a technical team from UBOS and other stakeholders. This exercise enabled the technical team to refine further the Survey instruments as well as test the data processing system.

1.6.3 Recruitment of Fieldworkers

The recruitment of fieldworkers followed the guidelines stipulated in the NSDS Field Operations Manual. The recruitment of District Supervisors who were in most of the instances District Planners was done by the Chief Administrative Officers (CAOs) while the team leaders and interviewers were recruited by the District Planning Officers. The guidelines required the fieldworkers to have a minimum qualification of advanced level certificate of education.

1.6.4 Training of Fieldworkers

The NSDS Technical Committee organized a 10 day training of trainers' workshop from February 10th to 19th 2004. The purpose of the training was to equip the trainers with skills for training fieldworkers and overseeing field activities in the districts. The trainers were trained on the roles of the fieldworkers, household sampling, how to fill the questionnaires, field supervision and handling of field returns. The training was blended with mock interviews and field practice. Overall, a total of 34 trainers/zonal supervisors were trained.

The training for the district fieldworkers was conducted simultaneously in 10 training centers. Overall, a total of 552 fieldworkers (61 supervisors, 117 team leaders, and 374 interviewers) were trained.

1.6.5 Data Collection

Data collection for the NSDS was conducted from March 6th to 30th, 2004 in all the districts. The fieldworkers started with listing all the households in the selected EAs before selecting a sample for interview. The data collection phase was supervised by the national stakeholders, UBOS and the District Planning Units. A total of 17,608 households were covered out of the targeted 18,000 households, revealing a coverage rate of 97.8 percent.

1.6.6 Data Processing and Analysis

All questionnaires were retrieved from after fieldwork. Data processing personnel were recruited and trained and included; 24 data editors and 12 data entrants. The data processing and analysis phase started in June and ended in November 2004.

1.7 Limitations of the Survey

The Survey was faced with some limitations as stated below;

- At the time of designing the instruments of data collection all stakeholders were visited with the objective of obtaining the service delivery standards which were to be the basis for designing the instruments. Most of the stakeholders did not have clear standards, and others had only indicators, hence the design of questions in such circumstances were based on indicators not service delivery standards.
- In an attempt to generate district estimates, a large sample was selected which necessitated putting in place district teams to manage field work. The district authorities were supplied with guidelines on the recruitment of the fieldworkers; however, some of them did not follow the guidelines. This led to delays in implementation of the Survey in the affected districts, since the non-compliant fieldworkers had to be substituted.
- Interviewers were trained in map reading in preparation for identification of EA boundaries, however the majority experienced problems. The supervisors at national level provided technical backup to avoid errors of omission and duplication.
- The 2004 NSDS instruments were overloaded; this may have led to respondent fatigue. However, the overloading of the questionnaire did not affect the quality of data.
- The Service Provider instrument was difficult to administer since it involved making follow-ups on scattered respondents. In some instances, these respondents were not available.
- Some households were not covered due to insecurity in the districts of Gulu, Lira, Katakwi, Kitgum, and Pader; while in Karamoja region (Kotido, Nakapiripirit and Moroto) due to mobility of the pastoralist communities.

CHARACTERISTICS OF HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS

2.1 Introduction

Since 1948 Population Censuses in Uganda have provided information on a number of social and demographic characteristics of the population. These Censuses have always been conducted at approximately ten years interval with the latest in 2002. However, several surveys including Household Surveys and National Service Delivery Surveys have provided estimates on various household characteristics and the household population during the inter-censal periods.

The 2004 National Service Delivery Survey (NSDS) obtained information on personal characteristics of all household members. Information was collected on sex, age, relationship to household head, marital and activity status, occupation and orphan hood. This chapter presents the main findings on household characteristics and the household population.

2.2 Household Population

HH population was
estimated at 26.3
million

A household is defined as a group of people who normally eat and live together. Table 2.1 below shows the estimated household population by sex according to the Survey. The household population estimate was 26.3 million people which was exactly equal to the 2004 mid-year population projection using the results of the 2002 Population and Housing Census. Overall, there were 13.0 million males as compared to 13.3 million females. This gives a sex ratio of 97.7 males per 100 females as compared to a sex ratio of 96.0 males per 100 females according to the 2002 Uganda Population and Housing Census results.

Table 2.1: Estimated Household Population by Sex

Sex	Pop. (millions)	Percentage (%)
Male	13.0	49.4
Female	13.3	50.6
Total	26.3	100.0

The estimated population according to age-group and sex is indicated in Table 2.2 below. The economically active population aged 15-64 years was almost a half (49%) of the entire population compared to the 46 percent reported by the UNHS 2002/03. The findings also show that a half (50%) of the females were under this category. It should be noted however, that more than a half (51%) of the population were dependants either under the age group of 0-14 years or aged 65 years and above. This is slightly lower than the 54.6 percent reported by the UNHS 2002/03.

Table 2.2: Percentage Distribution of HH Population by Age and Sex

Age group	Male	Female	Male & Female
0 - 14 years	49.3	47.5	48.4
15 - 64 years	47.9	50.1	49.0
65+	2.7	2.4	2.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

2.3 Household Composition

Information was collected about each household member's relationship with the household head. Table 2.3 below presents the percentage distribution of household members by relationship to the household head. The findings reveal that over a half (52%) of the household members were sons/daughters (biological children) of the household heads. This is equivalent to estimates of the UNHS 2002/03 which similarly reported 52 percent of the total household population as biological children of the household heads. The lowest proportion (0.5%) was for the parent to the household head possibly due to the low life expectancy of Ugandans which is at 45 years.

Table 2.3: Percentage Distribution of Household Members by Relationship to Household Head

Relationship	Percentage
Head	19.2
Spouse	13.4
Son/Daughter	52.2
Parent	0.5
Other Relative	13.4
Non Relative	1.3
Total	100.0

Further analysis of household heads by age group and sex is presented in Table 2.4. The results reveal that 0.3 percent of the households were headed by children as compared to the UNHS 2002/03 which reported 0.4 percent. About three-quarters (74%) of the household heads were aged 18-49 years which is within the economically active age bracket. Findings clearly indicate that out of the female headed households, a bigger proportion (35%) were aged 50 years and above compared to the proportion of male headed households of 23 percent.

Table 2.4: Percentage Distribution of HH Heads by Age-Group and Sex

Age group	Male	Female	Male & Female
0 - 17	0.3	0.2	0.3
18 - 25	13.5	10.8	12.9
26 - 49	63.6	53.9	61.4
50+	22.5	35.2	25.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

2.4 Marital Status

Information was collected about the marital status of all household members aged 10 years and above. Table 2.5 below shows the percentage distribution of household members aged 10 years and above by marital status and sex. Single females constituted the highest percentage at 45 percent. Those who reported as Divorced/Separated constituted only 3 percent. It should be noted that nearly 7 percent of the females were widowed compared to only 1 percent of the males.

Table 2.5: Percentage Distribution of Household Population Aged 10 Years and Above by Marital Status and Sex

Marital Status	Male	Female	Male & Female
Married	44.0	43.7	43.9
Single	49.0	41.2	45.0
Divorced	1.5	4.3	3.0
Widowed	1.1	6.9	4.1
Not stated	4.3	3.8	4.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

About 3% of the children (10 – 17) were married

Further analysis of household population aged 10 years and above by age and marital status is presented in Table 2.6 below. The survey findings show that 3 percent of the children (10 – 17) are married. Over 50 percent of the household population aged 18-24 are single probably because many of these people are still at school. It should also be noted that the higher the age group the bigger the percentage of those who are divorced/separated. The age group of 45 years and above has the highest percentage (20%) as widowed.

Table 2.6: Percentage Distribution of Household Population Aged 10 Years and Above by Age and Marital Status

Age group	Married	Single	Divorced	Widowed	Not stated	Total
10 – 17	3.0	88.7	0.2	0.0	8.2	100.0
18 – 24	41.0	54.4	2.2	0.3	2.2	100.0
25 – 34	76.4	15.4	4.4	2.2	1.6	100.0
35 – 44	80.8	6.2	5.3	5.8	1.9	100.0
45 +	65.8	5.1	6.5	20.2	2.4	100.0
Total	43.8	45.0	3.0	4.1	4.1	100.0

2.5 Activity Status of HH Population Aged 10 years and Above

The activity status of all household members aged 10 years and above during the seven (7) days that preceded the survey was investigated and the findings are presented in Table 2.7 below.

The results indicated that slightly over 31 percent of the population aged 10 years and above were full time students and about 1 percent had not worked but looked for work during that period. Further examination of the findings reveals that about a quarter (24%) of the females compared to only 6 percent of the males were domestic workers.

Table 2.7: Percentage Distribution of Household Population Aged 10 Years and Above By Main Activity Status and Sex

Main Activity Status	Male	Female	Male & Female
Employer	4.1	1.1	2.6
Own account worker	28.5	19.5	23.9
Gov't employee	5.0	2.1	3.5
Private employee	10.0	4.1	7.0
Unpaid family worker	4.9	13.6	9.3
Not worked, looking for work	0.8	0.7	0.7
Not working & not looking for work	3.8	3.3	3.6
Domestic worker	6.3	24.1	15.4
Full time student	34.2	28.4	31.2
Too young/too old	1.4	2.1	1.8
Others	1.1	0.9	1.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

2.6 Occupation of Household Population Aged 10 years and Above

Information was collected on the occupation of household members aged 10 years and above during the seven (7) days that preceded the survey. During this survey all people who had not worked, domestic workers, full time students and those who were too young/old were not eligible to be classified under any occupation. The findings presented in Table 2.8 below show that over 40 percent (44%) of the population aged 10 years and above was engaged in Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry related activities as their main occupation. Involvement in agriculture related activities was however higher for women (49%) than men (40%). The Clerks had the lowest percentage (less than 1%) among all the occupations reported.

Table 2.8: Percentage Distribution of Household Population Aged 10 Years and Above By Occupation and Sex

Occupation	Male	Female	Male & Female
Legislator & managers	1.4	0.9	1.2
Professionals	5.3	3.4	4.5
Technicians & associate Professionals	5.6	3.2	4.6
Clerks	0.5	0.5	0.5
Service & sales workers	18.8	17.4	18.2
Agric, Fisheries & Forestry workers	40.6	49.2	44.4
Crafts & related workers	3.1	1.2	2.3
Plant & machinery operator and assemblers	2.4	0.4	1.5
Elementary occupation	20.7	23.4	21.9
Armed forces	1.5	0.2	0.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

2.7 Orphanhood

The Survey investigated the survival status of the biological parents of all children below 18 years. The findings presented in Table 2.9 show that over 85 percent of the children had both parents alive with no significant sex differentials. In terms of region, Kampala had the highest percentage (6%) of children without parents whereas Eastern had the lowest percentage (2%).

Table 2.9: Percentage Distribution of Survival Status of Parents for Children Aged Below 18 Years by Sex, Region and Age Group

Sex/ Region/Age group	Both Parents alive	Only Father alive	Only Mother alive	Both Parents Dead	Don't know	Total
Sex						
Male	85.3	2.4	8.3	3.6	0.4	100.0
Female	86.3	2.0	8.1	3.2	0.3	100.0
Region						
Kampala	82.3	2.2	8.9	6.0	0.6	100.0
Central	84.0	3.0	8.7	3.9	0.4	100.0
Eastern	89.0	1.6	7.0	2.0	0.4	100.0
Northern	83.0	2.0	9.8	4.9	0.3	100.0
Western	87.3	2.2	7.3	2.7	0.4	100.0
Age Group						
0 – 4	94.6	0.8	3.5	0.8	0.3	100.0
5 – 9	87.5	2.1	7.2	2.7	0.5	100.0
10 – 14	79.8	3.0	11.2	5.6	0.4	100.0
15 – 17	73.7	3.8	15.3	6.8	0.4	100.0

8 Conclusion

In many cases demographic and social household characteristics had a direct bearing on accessibility and utilization of various services by household members. Notably among the characteristics are age, education level, residence and occupation of the household members which have an implication on the Household income level. Income in turn affects the demand and utilization of extension services.

EDUCATION

3.1 Introduction

The government of Uganda attaches great importance to improvement of the quality of education services. Mechanisms were put in place to improve access and use of education services. The Universal Primary Education (UPE) policy was introduced in 1997. This drastically increased enrolment in all schools from 3 million to 5.3 million in 1996 and 1997 respectively. The previous education facilities including classrooms, teachers' houses, libraries, water and sanitation, could not match the upsurge in the number of pupils in the government aided primary schools.

The Education Strategic Investment Plan (ESIP) 1998 – 2003 was consequently established to address issues related to improvement of education services. The strategic priorities and targets included achieving Universal enrolment of primary school age children (6 – 12 years) with net enrolment approaching 100 percent by 2003, including full enrolment of females and those currently disadvantaged by geographical location. In addition, priority would be given to expansion of education facilities through classroom building and provision of water and sanitation.

This chapter presents findings about the schooling status of the household population, education attainment, access to and use of services, quality of services and factors limiting use and provision of services. Findings presented in this chapter emphasize basic formal primary education provided under the UPE policy due to its relevancy in raising literacy levels.

3.2 Schooling Status

91% of children
aged 6 – 12 years
attended school

The respondents were asked to give information about the schooling status of the usual household members. Information was analysed for the household population aged 6 – 12 years. The findings in Table 3.1 show that about 91 percent of the household population aged 6 – 12 years was attending school at the time of the Survey. The percentage of household members schooling at the time of the Survey in the urban areas was about 94 percent compared to 90 percent in the rural areas. There was no significant variation between the rural and urban proportions regarding school attendance. The findings further revealed that about 9 percent of the household members in the rural areas had never attended school while close to 4 percent had never attended school in the urban areas.

The percentage of children aged 6 – 12 years varied between districts. The findings in Annex II Table B1.2.1 show that in Northern Uganda, the districts of Nakapiripirit (68.2%), Kotido (55.7%) and Moroto (41.5%) reported the highest percentages of children who had never attended school. The schooling status in Central region - Kalangala District (8.8%), Western region - Kisoro District

(17.2%) while in Easter region - Pallisa District (12.8%) of the children aged 6 – 12 years had never attended school.

In addition fewer females than males had left school. The percentage that had left school include the school drop-outs and the children who had transferred to other school. The findings revealed that the percentage of children who had left school was less than 3 percent with the exception of Masaka (6.4%) and Kalangala (5.2%)

Table 3.1: Percentage Distribution of the Household Population Aged 6 – 12 Years by Schooling Status and Residence

Schooling Status	Rural			Urban			National
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
Never attended school	8.8	9.0	8.9	3.3	4.2	3.7	7.4
Schooling	90.3	89.8	90.0	94.5	94.0	94.3	91.3
Left school	0.9	1.2	1.1	2.2	1.8	2.0	1.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

3.3 Reason for Never Attending School

Information was analyzed about the main reason why some of the children aged 6 – 12 years had never attended school. The major reason given by respondents was under age. Of the children whose parents indicated being too young as the major reason for never attending school, about 63 percent were aged 6 years while about 20 percent were aged 7 years. Long distances also affected the younger children more than the older ones as shown in Table 3.2.

However, children had never gone to school because they needed to work. Of these, the 12 year olds constituted up to 22 percent while the 8-10 year olds combined constituted close to 50 percent. Information analysed at district level and presented in Annex II Table B1.2.2 revealed that the common reasons were too young, long distance and lack of interest. Lack of interest was the most common reason reported in Karamoja districts with Kotido District (35.0%), Nakapiripirit (30.6%) and Moroto (27.9%). In Eastern Uganda, Pallisa reported 96.6% as being too young while 60.3 percent were reported in Kisoro District.

Table 3.2: Percentage Distribution of Household Members Aged 6-12 Years by Reason for not Attending School

Age	Too young	Long distance	High cost	Lack of interest	Disability	need to work	Other	All
6	62.5	40.4	32.4	13.8	19.7	6.3	17.2	47.6
7	19.7	15.2	18.1	25.8	19.8	15.1	28.3	19.8
8	9.8	20.7	17.6	14.7	19.6	18.3	12.7	12.6
9	3.7	4.7	5.2	10.1	7.9	12.9	26.2	5.8
10	2.4	10.1	15.0	17.0	18.6	19.3	4.1	7.1
11	1.2	1.5	3.3	7.1	6.4	5.9	6.3	2.6
12	.7	7.4	8.4	11.5	7.9	22.2	5.3	4.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

3.4 Distance to School

Most children travel less than 3 km to day primary schools

Information was collected on the distance between the household and the day primary schools where the children attended. The findings revealed that at the national level over 80 percent of the children traveled a distance of less than 3 km to their respective schools as shown in Table 3.3 below. In Northern Uganda about 87 percent of the pupils traveled a distance not exceeding 3 kilometers. Furthermore, findings presented in Table A3.3 show that in some of the districts in Northern Uganda including Pader (93.9%) and Kitgum (98.0%) the majority of the children accessed primary education within a distance of 3 kilometers. This is because the majority of households are residing in IDPs camps. The overall figure for Uganda was however lower than the PEAP target which gives the proportion of households with access to education services at community level as being slightly above 93 percent for the same distance.

Table 3.3: Percentage Distribution of Pupils by Distance to School

Residence	0 - 3 km	>3 km - 5 km	>5 km - 10 km	>10 km	Total
Rural	81.1	15.1	3.0	.8	100.0
Urban	90.0	8.0	1.4	.6	100.0
Region					
Central *	79.6	16.3	3.4	.7	100.0
Eastern	82.4	15.0	1.8	.8	100.0
Northern	87.5	9.9	1.8	.9	100.0
Western	84.4	11.7	3.1	.8	100.0
Kampala	86.9	8.9	3.7	.5	100.0
Uganda	83.5	13.2	2.6	.8	100.0

Note: - Central Region excluding Kampala

3.5 Educational Attainment

Information on educational attainment for all household members was collected. The data was analyzed and presented separately for all those who were reported as household heads and the household members aged 6 – 24 years.

3.5.1 Education Attainment of Household Heads

Nearly all Household Heads had some education

The education attainment of the household head may influence the decisions regarding the use of educational services. The findings presented in Table 3.4 revealed that less than 2 percent of the household heads did not have any primary education. The majority of the household heads had at least some primary education with 20 percent having completed lower primary and about 35 percent upper primary. The percentage of female household heads without primary education was more than twice that of the male household heads.

Table 3.4: Percentage Distribution of Household Heads by Class

Class group	Male	Female	Total
None	1.4	3.5	1.8
P1-P4	22.4	29.4	23.6
P5-P7	35.7	30.7	34.8
S1-S4	24.2	22.3	23.9
S5-S6	3.4	2.5	3.2
Tertiary	12.9	11.7	12.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

3.5.2 Educational Attainment of Household Members Aged 5 – 24 years

The findings presented in Table 3.5 below revealed that about 25 percent of the children aged 5 – 12 years had not attained any formal primary education. There were very few children aged 13 – 18 years who had not completed primary one and about 30 percent who had at least the lower primary.

Table 3.5: Percentage Distribution of Household Members Aged 5 – 24 Years by Class

Class	5-12 year			13-18 years			19 – 24 years			Total
	F	M	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	
None	25.8	23.7	24.8	5	0.6	0.6	0.1	0.5	0.3	14.8
P1-P4	65.2	67.3	66.3	30.3	26.4	28.5	3.5	4.1	3.8	49.0
P5-P6	8.8	8.6	8.7	43.3	43.4	43.3	13.5	12.2	13.0	20.8
S1-S4	0.1	0.4	0.3	24.0	27.6	25.7	43.8	42.6	43.3	12.0
S5-S6		0.0	0.0	1.5	1.9	1.7	33.0	33.8	33.3	2.9
Tertiary	0.0		0.0	0.4	0.1	0.2	6.0	6.9	6.3	0.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Note: Tertiary includes those who attained post primary certificate, post secondary diploma, degree and above

3.5.3 Net Primary School Enrolment Ratio

The Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) was computed for the children attending primary school. There was no significant difference between the NER from this survey and prior surveys as illustrated in the Table 3. 6 below.

Table 3.6: Net Primary School Enrolment Ratio

Survey	Male	Female	Total
1999/00 UNHS	85	84	84
2001 UDES	87	87	87
2002/03 UNHS	85	86	86
2004 NSDS	86	86	86

The Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) has remained almost the same over the years

40% of children at school aged 9 – 12 years were in P2

Information was analyzed for the household members aged 5 – 24 years who were schooling at the time of the Survey. The findings in Table 3.7 show that the highest percentage (23.1%) of children who had completed P1 were aged 8 years. This may be attributed to late entry to primary or repeating. In addition the total percentage of the children aged 9, 10, 11, 12 years and above was about 40 percent of the children who had completed P1 confirming late entry and/ or repeating. However, there were some children who enrolled to primary education before attaining the official school age of 6 years. This possibly could be attributed to the fact that age was recorded in completed years. The findings further indicate that the majority of children who had completed upper primary (P5 – P7) were aged 13 – 24 years.

Table 3.7: Percentage Distribution of Household Members Schooling by Class and Age

Class	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13 – 24 yrs	Total
P1	4.7	12.9	20.1	23.1	14.2	12.8	4.4	4.0	3.8	100.0
P2	1.0	3.5	8.8	17.6	17.2	20.9	9.1	10.9	11.0	100.0
P3		.7	2.7	8.5	11.3	21.5	11.4	18.8	25.0	100.0
P4			.7	2.9	4.7	14.1	11.4	20.7	45.5	100.0
P5				.4	1.4	6.1	7.9	18.3	65.8	100.0
P6					.8	2.2	4.0	13.9	79.2	100.0
P7						.9	.8	5.7	92.5	100.0
Group Total	1.1	3.2	6.0	9.7	8.9	13.4	7.8	13.5	36.5	100.0

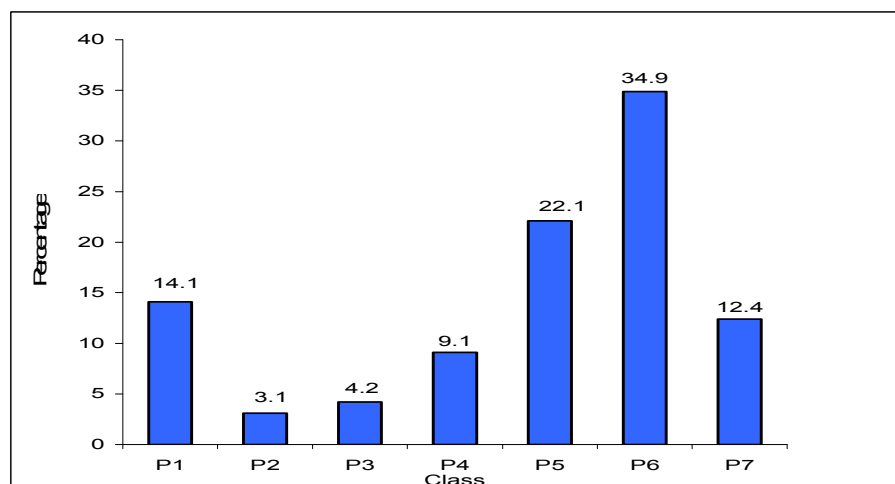
3.5.4 Incidence of Pupils Leaving School before Completing P7

Most pupils left school at upper primary level

Information was collected about pupils leaving school before completing primary seven (P7). Despite government effort to improve UPE, retaining pupils in school is still a problem. The incidence of pupils leaving school varied according to the service providers. The findings revealed that most of the pupils left school while in upper primary. Figure 3.3 shows that P6 (34.9%) was the most affected class while P2 (3.1%) was the least affected class.

The findings further indicate that slightly more than 14 percent of the children enrolled in P1 had left school before completing primary one (P1) possibly due to under age enrolment of the pupils who later fail to cope.

Figure 3.1: Percentage Distribution of Pupils Leaving School by Class



3.6: Reason for Leaving School

Marriage as reason for girls to leave school almost same for 2002 and 2003

The most common reason for leaving school was obtained from service providers. The analysis was done separately for the girls and boys for the years 2002 and 2003. The findings revealed a significant difference between the reasons that led to the boys and the girls leaving school. The most common reason why girls left school was marriage (25.6%) while transfer to another school (25.9%) explained why boys left school. However, there was an increase in the percentage of girls leaving school due to marriage during 2003 as indicated in Table 3.8 below.

Table 3.8: Percentage Distribution of Service Providers by Reason for Children Leaving School

Reason	Girls		Boys	
	2002	2003	2002	2003
Harassment at home	0.8	1.3	0.7	1.1
Harassment at school	0.4	0.5	0.1	0.1
Traditions/culture	3.1	2.5	2.5	2.1
Pregnancies	12.7	14.6		
Marriage	24.7	25.6	3.4	3.2
Search for jobs	4.3	3.8	20.8	21.9
Orphan hood	3.7	3.5	6.0	4.8
Transfer to another school	21.5	20.8	23.8	25.9
Lack of interest by pupil	9.0	7.7	18.9	17.3
Indiscipline and expelled	.3	.6	2.7	1.9
Parental decision	13.5	12.2	11.4	11.6
Insecurity	2.5	3.0	3.8	4.5
Other	3.1	3.8	6.1	6.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

High cost was main reason limiting access to education

Additional information to explain why pupils had left school was collected from the households. The household respondents however reported high cost as the main reason for children leaving

school. Table 3.9 below shows that high cost affected mostly the urban population (56%) compared to about 31 percent in the rural areas. At the national level the children that had left school due to high cost were about 39 percent. Lack of interest in education especially by children in the rural areas contributed slightly over 20 percent to leaving school. The major reasons reported by households deferred from those given by service providers. Whereas the service providers gave social/cultural reasons for children leaving school, households indicated economic reasons.

Table 3.9: Percentage Distribution of Pupils by Main Reason for Leaving School

Reason	Rural			Urban			National
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
Completed desired level	.9	1.7	1.3	3.4	6.2	5.0	2.5
Need to work	2.1	2.2	2.2	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.8
High cost	34.4	27.9	31.1	56.7	55.5	56.0	39.3
Long distance	3.8	4.2	4.0	1.9	2.6	2.3	3.5
Poor quality of schools	.4	.5	.4	.7	.4	.5	.5
Orphaned	8.8	8.2	8.5	8.1	9.0	8.6	8.5
Sickness/calamity in family	12.4	17.1	14.8	7.4	7.3	7.4	12.3
Pregnancy		5.7	2.9		4.4	2.6	2.9
Marriage	.1	4.2	2.1		1.3	.8	1.7
War/insecurity	4.7	3.1	3.9	1.1	1.0	1.0	2.9
Parent decision	3.6	3.9	3.7	2.3	3.5	3.0	3.5
Lack of interest	25.7	16.9	21.2	12.9	5.4	8.5	17.0
Other	3.2	4.4	3.8	4.5	2.1	3.1	3.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

3.7: Payments made for Education at School

Average of Shs. 10,000 paid to schools mainly for lunch and building fund

Information was collected about the average amount that parents/guardians paid per child at school for the different items as indicated in Table 3.10 below. The findings revealed that over 60 percent of the households did not pay for any item at school. Payments made to schools were mostly for lunch fees (27%) and building fund (27%) but in amounts less than Ug. Shs 10,000/=

Table 3.10: Percentage Distribution of Pupils by Payment for School Requirements and Amount

Item	No payment	Less than Ug. Shs.10,000	Ug. Shs. 10,000- <40,000	Ug. Shs. 40,000 and above	Total
Dev't/ Building fund	67.9	26.9	4.7	0.6	100.0
Lunch fee	67.8	27.1	5.0	0.1	100.0
School uniform	89.0	7.5	3.5	0.1	100.0
Exercise books	96.9	2.9	0.2	0.0	100.0
Text books	98.6	1.0	0.5	0.0	100.0
Pens &pencils	97.1	2.9	0.0	0.0	100.0
Geometry sets	97.6	2.4	0.0	0.0	100.0
Rulers	98.1	1.9	0.0	0.0	100.0
Coaching fees	97.7	2.1	0.2	0.0	100.0
Other	37.3	48.4	7.2	7.2	100.0

3.8 Rating of Payment by Residence

Payments unaffordable

The respondents who had made payments for school requirements were asked to rate the affordability of payments. Table 3.11 shows that about 68 percent of the households rated the payments as not affordable. The situation was however different for Kampala where slightly less than 55 percent of the households could not afford to pay for the school requirements. In the rural areas about 71 percent of the households reported payments not being affordable compared to 66 percent in the urban areas.

Table 3.11: Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Residence and Rating of Payments

Residence	Affordable	Not affordable	Total
Rural	29.4	70.6	100.0
Urban	34.3	65.7	100.0
Region			
Central	35.1	64.9	100.0
Eastern	35.7	64.3	100.0
Northern	30.3	69.7	100.0
Western	26.1	73.9	100.0
Kampala	48.5	51.5	100.0
National	32.3	67.7	100.0

3.9 Educational Facilities

The Education facilities covered by the survey included classrooms, teachers' houses, libraries, laboratories, workshops and latrines/toilets. In addition information was sought on availability of water sources for the schools. The findings presented in Table 3.12 revealed that most schools had all the required facilities though inadequate. Nearly all respondents at the schools that were covered by the survey reported availability of classrooms but a small percentage (28.5%) deemed them adequate. The survey further revealed that less than 10 percent of the schools had adequate teacher's houses. Most schools did not have laboratories (0.5%).

Classrooms are
inadequate

Table 3.12: Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Availability and Adequacy of Facilities

Facility	Available (%)	Adequate (%)
Class rooms	98.8	28.5
Teachers houses	51.8	8.3
Library	15.3	26.8
Laboratory	0.5	42.9
Workshop	1.3	33.3
Latrine/Toilets	97.6	30.9

Information was analyzed about the main source of water for drinking at the schools. The findings revealed that about 25 percent of the schools covered by the Survey still depended on unsafe sources of water (*rain water, lake/ river / stream/dam/pond and other*) for drinking while nearly 2 percent had no water source as illustrated in Table 3.13.

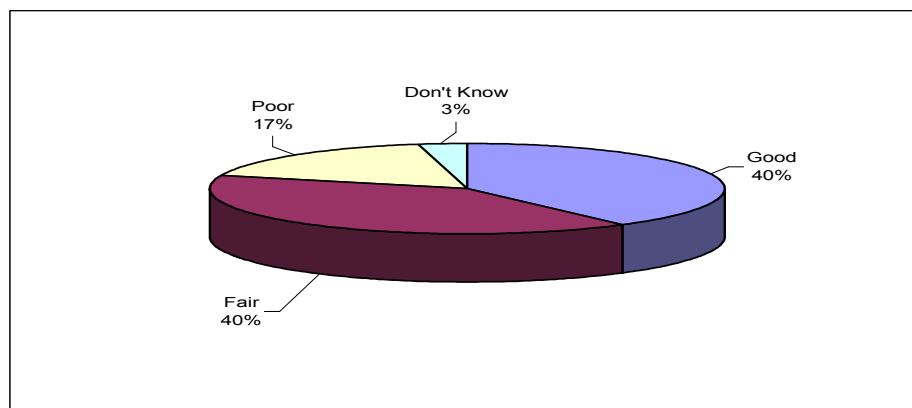
Table 3.13: Distribution of Respondents by Main Source of Water for Drinking at School

Water Source	Percentage
Piped water at school	16.0
Piped water outside school	3.8
Borehole water at school	19.4
Borehole water outside school	19.6
Protected spring	14.9
Rain water	9.3
Lake/river/stream/dam/pond	11.1
Other	4.2
None	1.6
Total	100.0

80% Generally
satisfied with the
quality of the
available facilities

The household respondents were also asked to rate the quality of facilities in the schools where their children attended. The findings indicated that the respondents were generally satisfied (80%) with the quality of the available facilities as illustrated in Figure 3.2 below.

Figure 3.2 Rating Quality of Facilities in the Schools



3.10 Management and Performance of Primary Schools

Information was sought about the type of meetings that had been held at the school. The findings revealed that almost all (99.2%) schools held staff meetings. However, one to one parent – teacher meetings were least held. Information was collected on the frequency of the meetings. Table 3.14a shows that staff meetings were the most frequent meetings held. Nearly 68 percent of the respondents that held staff meetings indicated that they held them monthly.

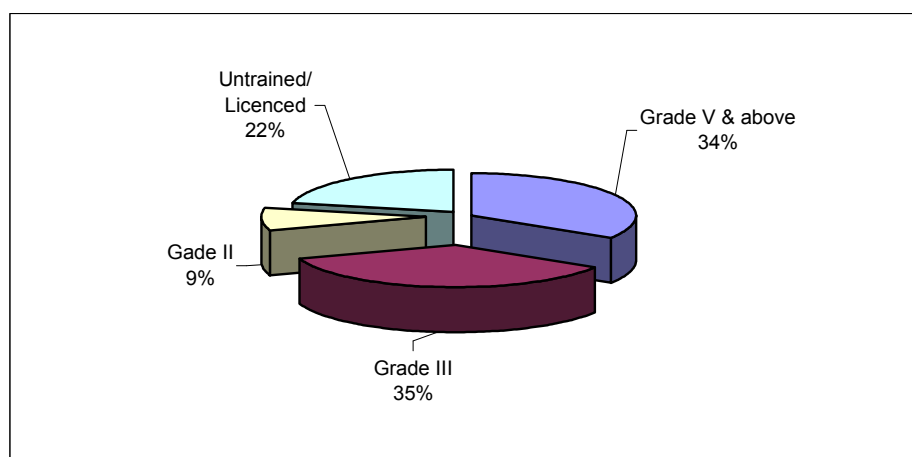
Table 3.14a: Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Type of Meeting

Type of meeting	Weekly	Monthly	Once a term	Half yearly	Yearly	Ad hoc
Staff meeting	5.3	67.8	17.6	0.8	.1	8.3
PTA/School management committees	1.2	22.4	58.6	5.5	5.5	6.8
One-to-one parent - class teacher	10.9	12.9	22.0	2.4	4.0	47.8
Student leader/ staff meetings	18.4	25.9	30.5	1.3	2.7	21.2

3.11 Staffing Position of Primary Schools

22% of primary teachers were untrained or licensed

Information was collected about the staffing position of the primary schools. The findings revealed that Grade II and untrained/ licensed teachers are still employed as teachers in the primary schools although they are being phased out. Figure 3.3 shows that the untrained teachers constituted 22 percent of the staff in the schools that were covered during Survey.

Figure 3.3: Percentage Distribution of Teachers by Grade

3.12 Academic Performance of the Pupils in PLE

The respondents of the schools that were covered during the survey were asked to state the total number of PLE candidates from 2000 to 2003. Additional information on the total number of candidates who passed with grades I, II and III was reported. The findings suggest an increase of 33 percent in the number of candidates from 51308 in 2000 to 68232 in 2003. However, there was a decline in academic performance as illustrated in the Table 4.14b below.

Table 4.14b: Distribution of Candidates who Passed with Grades I, II and III in PLE by Academic Year

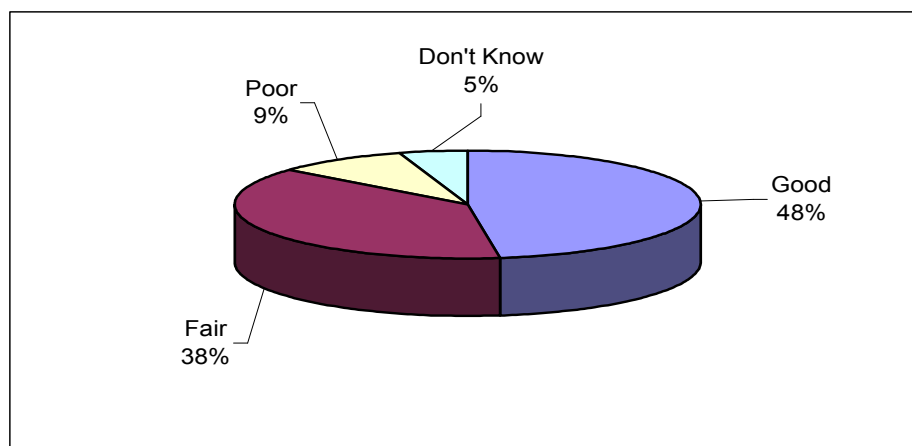
Year	Total number of candidates	% with grades I, II and III
2000	51308	64
2001	53189	74
2002	62100	72
2003	68232	70

3.13 Quality of Teachers

86% satisfied with the quality of the teachers

The respondents were asked to rate the quality of teachers at the schools their children attended. The findings revealed that the households were generally satisfied (86%) with the quality of the teachers with 48 percent saying they were good and 38 percent saying they were fair as illustrated in the Figure 3.4 below.

Figure 3.4: Rating the Quality of Primary School Teachers



3.14 Constraints to School Performance

Inadequate buildings was the most serious problem

Information was collected on the constraints that affected the performance of government primary schools, and were asked to mention at least three constraints starting with the most serious. The findings in Table 3.15 below reveal that schools did not have adequate buildings. Among the problems identified and ranked as most serious, inadequate buildings had the highest rank, followed by poor attitude of staff and long distance to school. The district level analysis in Annex II Table B 2.4 shows that the common factors reported as limiting school performance included inadequate buildings, poor attitude of staff, poor management of the schools and long distance. However, various districts were affected differently. In Western Uganda – Kyenjojo District about 52 percent of the respondents reported inadequate buildings as a major constraint. Other districts that reported high percentages for inadequate buildings included Kiboga (47%) in the Central region, Mayuge (48.5%) in Eastern Uganda and Yumbe (44.4%) in Northern Uganda.

Table 3.15: Problems/Constraints affecting Performance of the School (%)

Constraint	Most Serious	Serious	Less Serious
Inadequate Buildings	30.2	17.6	12.3
Poor attitude of staff	18.6	20.8	12.5
Long distance to school	11.2	12.7	10.4
Bad behaviour of pupils	5.9	9.3	9.5
Lack of parental interest	5.7	10.0	14.0
Insecurity	7.2	4.6	4.6
Poor management of school	10.4	15.3	24.1
Other	10.9	9.7	12.6
Total	100	100	100

3.15 Conclusion

The UPE is intended to raise literacy levels by enabling all children of primary school going age to have basic formal primary education. However, the policy is yet to address the issue of pupil retention until completion of primary seven. Due to various reasons, there are still children aged 6 years and above who had never attended school. In addition pupils had continued to leave school before completing primary seven (P7).

It should be noted that leaving school referred to both dropping out of school and transferring to another school. Both scenarios could lead to wastage of government resources. The situation may even be worse when a child transfers to another school and there is no mechanism in place to track such transfers. This may lead to a situation where the child becomes a ghost pupil in the school of origin and payment is made to both the original and the new school where the pupil transfers. Furthermore, the problem of inadequate facilities still persists. There is need to revisit the policy and ensure that hindrances to accessing and utilizing education services are adequately addressed.

Payment made to schools such as building fees and lunch fees was perceived by the parents/guardians who paid as not being affordable. It should be noted that nutrition for the pupils through provision of lunch at school is one of the ways of improving the quality of education and possibly retaining pupils in school.

Access to education services has improved with over 80 percent of the pupils traveling a distance not exceeding 3 kilometers to their respective schools. This improvement however had not been matched by the available facilities. The effort to increase facilities through provision of SFG and CCG is likely to have contributed to the improvement.

Despite the SFG and CCG, the available facilities such as classrooms were still inadequate to accommodate the large number of pupils in the different classes especially lower primary. More support in form of grants to address the issue of inadequate classrooms is vital to reduce on the congestion in the classes. It should be noted however that increasing the number of classrooms should be followed by recruiting more teachers who were observed to be inadequate at the time of the survey.

Enrolment to primary education was determined by age of the children. Some of the children delayed to enroll for primary one. The official age of 6 years was viewed by some households as being young instead 8 years was perceived as the appropriate age for P1 enrollment for children.

HEALTH

4.1 Introduction

One of the strategies to achieve the fourth pillar of the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) focusing on improving the quality of life of the poor is through the provision of basic health care. Ill health due to malaria and HIV/AIDS continue to be the number one problem affecting people. However, with improved access to and use of health services the problem of ill health may be contained (MFPED, 2003). The Government of Uganda through the Ministry of Health has developed a 5-year Health Sector Strategic Plan (HSSP) (2000-2005) which stipulates a number of strategies to address the priority concerns in the Health Sector. Within the Strategic Plan, a Uganda National Minimum Health Care Package has been defined to address issues of quality, access and resource allocation for health services.

The Uganda Poverty Status Report, 2003 reported that funding for basic services has consistently risen and the health sector is on track to achieving the PEAP targets (MFPED, 2003). The Basic Package of Health Services provides a measure against which performance can be compared and assessed at each level of the health care system. The package stipulates the range of services to be provided by health facilities, input and process standards for health centres, supervision and monitoring guidelines, staffing requirements by level of Health Unit and equipment requirements (Ref: MoH, March 2001, Guidelines for the Provision of the Uganda National Minimum Health Care Package).

The NSDS investigated the status of some of the PEAP health indicators. Broadly, the Survey investigated prevalence of ill health, household accessibility to and utilization of services and their perception on the adequacy of health services. Also investigated were the quality of the services and reasons for the current health service access and utilization levels. An attempt was made to establish the changes in indicators since the last NSDS in 2000. A comparative analysis was undertaken to establish the status of and improvements in the health sector service delivery. The next sections present the findings of the survey.

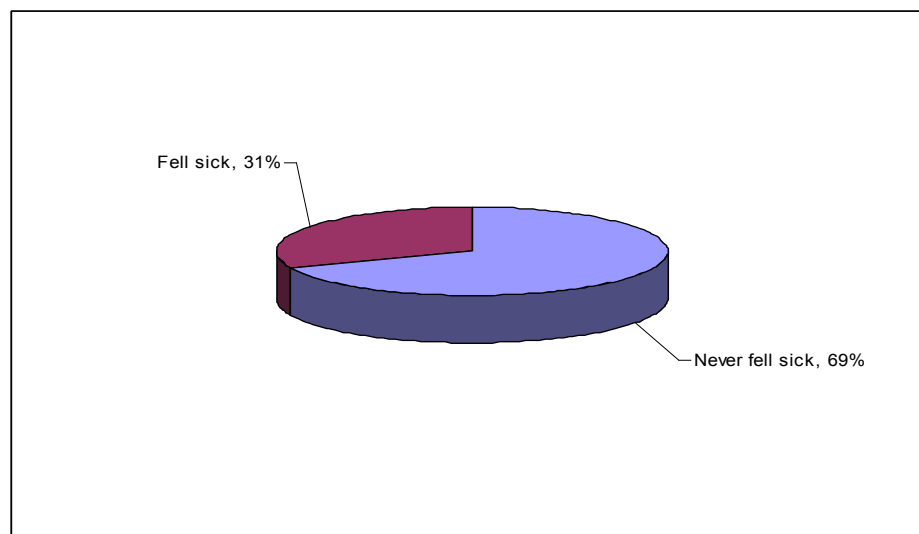
4.2 Household Health Status

The survey inquired whether any member of the household fell sick in the 30 days that preceded the survey. Overall 31 percent of the household members were reported to have fallen sick as shown in Figure 4.1. The 2000 NSDS estimated the incidence of ill health in a household while the current survey looked at how many people were sick in the household. The 2000 NSDS report indicated that nearly 42 percent of Ugandan households were estimated to have had a sick person during a single month. While both indicators measure incidence of ill health, they cannot be

Only 31% of the Household members fell sick during the 30 days that preceded the survey

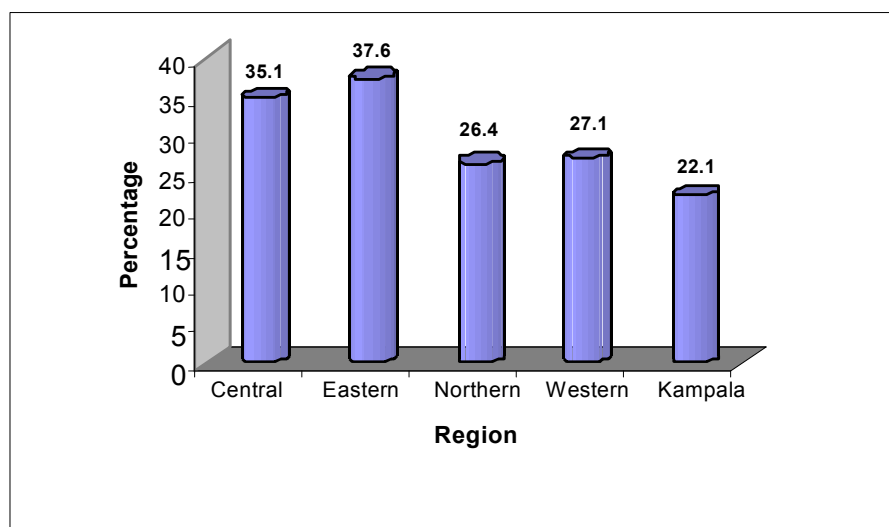
compared since investigate different aspects. It is necessary that the sector establishes a target for incidence of ill health that can be evenly monitored during the NSDS.

Figure 4.1: Percentage Distribution of Household Members who Fell Sick in the 30 days Prior to the Survey.



Apart from Kampala, the lowest prevalence of ill health was reported in the northern region, despite the prevalent civil strife in the region, as illustrated in Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2: Percentage Distribution of Household Members who Fell Sick in the 30 Days Prior to the Survey by Region



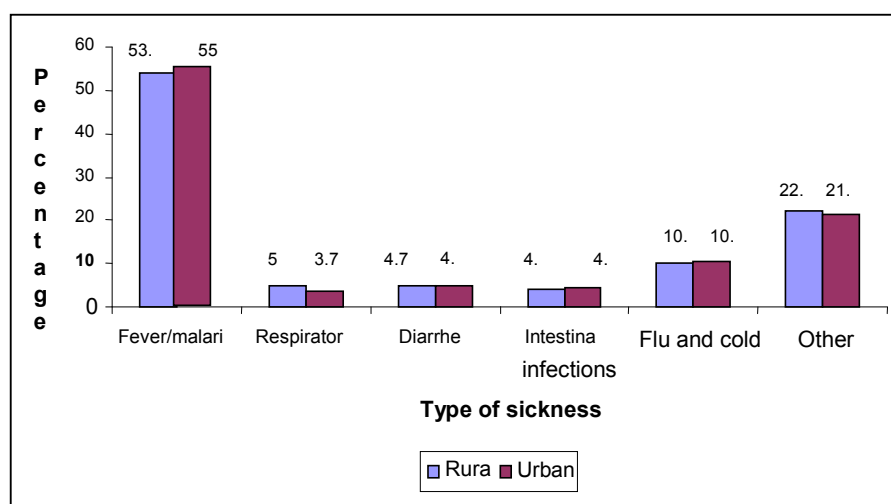
Ill health was found more prevalent in the rural than in the urban areas. For every three sick persons in the rural areas, one person was reported sick in the urban area. Further, the pattern of prevalence of ill health among males and females was the same for rural and urban residents. Females reported falling sick more often than males in both the rural and urban areas.

Over 50% of the sick suffered from fever/malaria

The Survey revealed that malaria was the number one health problem for most households. This was similar to the finding in the second National Integrity Survey (2003) in which 76 percent of the most recent visit to a health unit were mainly due to malaria. The Uganda Poverty Status Report, 2003 also underlines that malaria is a major problem experienced by most people. Over 50 percent of the population in urban and rural areas who reported falling sick suffered from fever/malaria. The next common diseases were, flu/cold which were reported by 10 percent of household population that fell sick in both the rural and the urban areas. There were no significant sex differences in the rural area regarding the prevalence of malaria/fever (54% and 53% for males and females respectively). However, there was a slight sex difference in the urban area where 61 percent and 59 percent of the males and females respectively reported suffering from malaria.

Findings in Annex II Table B 2.5 show that Western Uganda was the most affected region with Rukungiri and Kanungu districts reporting 74.5 and 74.1 percent respectively. In Eastern Uganda, Iganga District reported 68.0percent while Sembabule reported 64.9 percent. The percentage distribution of household members who reported falling sick in the last 30 days that preceded the survey by type of sickness and residence is illustrated in Figure 4.3.

Figure 4.3: Percentage Distribution of Household Members who Reported Falling Sick by Type of Sickness and Residence



4.3 Availability and Physical Access to Health Services

Only 33% of the sick during the 30 preceding days sought treatment from a government facility as first source

Health services were accessed from conventional static health units, mobile/outreach arrangements and sometimes from other non-traditional health institutions like schools. The facilities were largely owned by government, the private sector for profit and private sector not-for-profit. The Survey revealed that static government facilities remain the major source of general health services, immunization services and birth-related services compared to other sources. For all the types of sicknesses reported, government facilities provided the first source of treatment as illustrated in Table 4.2.

However, it should be noted that the majority (67%) did not use government health service as the first source of treatment. The findings in Annex II Table B 2.6 show that none use of the government facilities was mostly due to long distance to the facilities and non-availability of drugs at the facility. The findings for districts of Gulu (5.6), Pader (8.6%) and Kitgum (9.0%) was because the majority of households are residing in IDP camps where the facilities are located and should not be interpreted as being fair. The findings further revealed that drug shortages was reported by slightly over 55 percent of those who never used government health facilities in Pader District.

Table 4.2: Percentage Distribution of Population who Fell Sick by First Source of Treatment

Type of health facility	Percentage using facility as first source for treatment
Government health facility	33.0
Private health facility	28.6
Pharmacy/Drug shop	17.8
Home/self medication	10.6
None	3.8
Religious mission facility	2.7
Traditional healer	1.1
NGO health facility	1.0
Other	0.9
Community health workers	0.4
Total	100.0

The average distance to government facilities where people sought first treatment was 5.2 km in the rural areas, slightly longer than the PEAP target of 5 Km. Expectedly, the PEAP target has been met in the urban areas. Overall, the survey revealed that the population that used government facilities as the first source of treatment lived in an average distance of 4.7 Km, a distance that is less than the PEAP target. Table 4.3 below shows the average distance to the nearest government facility where people sought first treatment.

Table 4.3: Average Distance in Km to the Health Facility where Treatment was First Sought by Residence and Region

Region	Residence		Total
	Rural	Urban	
Central **	6.0	4.1	5.3
Eastern	5.1	2.1	4.1
Northern	4.9	2.4	4.2
Western	5.1	2.9	4.8
Total	5.2	2.9	4.7

Note: ** - Central includes Kampala

The distance to health facilities where people sought first treatment was further analysed by range of distance to establish those who traveled distances longer than the target of 5 km. Table 4.4 presents the percentage distribution of the people who were traveling distances equal to or longer than the targeted 5 km by region.

Table 4.4: Percentage Distribution of Population by Distance to Health Facility where they Sought First Treatment by Region

Region	Distance		Total
	5 Km or below	More than 5 Km	
Central (minus Kampala)	80.8	19.2	100.0
Eastern	82.7	17.3	100.0
Western	78.1	21.9	100.0
Northern	78.9	21.1	100.0
Kampala	89.6	10.4	100.0
Total	80.5	19.5	100.0

80% of the sick who sought first treatment from a government health facility traveled not more than 5 km

About 20 percent of the population sought first treatment from health facilities, which were located in distances longer than 5 km. When the data on distance to government health facility was analysed, it was observed that a larger percentage of people were located further than 5 km from the nearest government facility as compared to where they sought first treatment as illustrated in Table 4.5 below. The Central region minus Kampala has the largest population that is located furthest (30%) and expectedly Kampala has the largest population that is within 5 Km from the government Health Unit (78%).

Further analysis by district presented in Annex II Table B 2.7 show that in Central region – Kalangala District about 61 percent of the households were residing more than 5 km from a government health facility. Other districts where the majority of respondents reported a distance of more than 5 km included Kaberamaido (59.7%) in Eastern region, Kamwenge (54.5%) and Kibaale (53.3%) in Western region. The Ministry of Health should consider provision of health units closer to the population that is still traveling distances longer than the target (5Km).

Table 4.5: Percentage Distribution of Population by Distance to Nearest Government Health Facility by Region

Region	Distance		Total
	5 Km or below	More than 5 Km	
Central (minus Kampala)	70.3	29.7	100.0
Eastern	76.6	23.4	100.0
Western	71.5	28.5	100.0
Northern	76.3	23.7	100.0
Kampala	78.2	21.8	100.0
Total	73.6	26.4	100.0

4.4 Health Services Utilization

The PEAP target for health service utilization was set to be at least 50 percent of the population attending Out Patient Department (OPD) once a year. The Survey did not have a specific question to measure this target. However a question was asked to establish the first source of treatment for those who fell sick and the results can be used as a proxy to the indicator of the target. People reported various sources of health services from which they sought first treatment.

Responses to the question on source of first treatment sought by members of households reflected a wide variation in health seeking behaviour. About 16 percent of household members who had fallen sick in the 30 days that preceded the survey sought treatment from non-professional health workers. Another variation was in terms of the type of source from which first treatment was sought. Most people who reported that they were sick opted for government health facilities as first source of treatment.

Considering all patients that visited a health facility (Government health facility, Private health facility, mission facility and NGO facility) as a proxy for OPD attendance, the data showed that 63 percent of people who had fallen sick in the 30 days preceding the survey had utilized the formal health services as shown in Table 4.6 below. Higher utilization of private facilities was reported in the rural as compared to the urban areas. It may not be possible to compare the results with the baseline indicator of 2003/4 from the sector, which was estimated at 0.72. For the latter, uses the entire population as the denominator while the survey only considered those who were sick. However, there is an indication of increasing utilization of health services.

Table 4.6: Percentage Distribution of Population by First Source of Treatment by Residence

First Source of treatment	Percent using facility as first source		National
	Urban %	Rural %	
None	2.6	4.2	3.8
Home/self medication	10.6	10.2	10.6
Traditional healers	0.8	1.1	1.1
Government facility	34.8	35.8	33.0
Private health facility	24.5	27.7	28.6
Religious/mission facility	2.2	3.0	2.7
Pharmacy/drug shop	21.6	15.4	17.8
Community health worker	0.4	0.5	0.4
NGO health facility	1.6	1.2	1.0
Other	0.8	0.8	0.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Long distance to government health facilities was still a major limiting factor to access in the rural areas

Over 40 percent of the sick people who did not use government health facilities as the first source of treatment in the rural areas attributed the omission to long distances to the government facilities. Non-availability of drugs in the government facilities however, featured as the most common reason (30%) for sick people in the urban areas not using government facilities as the first option for treatment. In effect, it is not surprising that a significant percentage used pharmacies/drug stores as the first source of treatment.

Of particular importance to health service delivery is the level of immunization for children and utilization of birth-related services as indicators of success for the sector. Information was gathered on routine immunization of children against Polio, BCG, DPT, and Measles and whether children had received Vitamin A capsules. Regarding birth-related services, the survey established whether the services were required and obtained by a member of the household and whether members were satisfied. The next sections present the findings.

4.4.1 Under Five Immunization

The interviewers requested for immunization cards as a way of confirming whether a child had been immunized. Results of the data analysis revealed that there was a significant number of children who were reported immunized but their immunization cards were not shown to the interviewers. There was also a category of children who were reported un-immunized and another category whose immunization status was not known. The PEAP target for immunization coverage is 60 percent for DPT3. Table 4.6 presents the percentage distribution of children who were immunised against DPT3 by region. Information was further analysed by district. Annex II Table B 2.8 (Annex II) shows that if we consider immunization status of children whose card were seen, only 7 districts had met the PEAP target for DPT3.

Table 4.7: Percentage Distribution of Children Under 5 Years Immunized against DPT3 by Region

Region	Yes – card seen	Yes – card not seen	Not immunized	Don't know	Total
Central minus Kampala	36.8	47.1	12.4	3.7	100.0
Eastern	41.2	43.5	12.6	2.7	100.0
Northern	44.3	46.3	7.0	2.4	100.0
Western	44.0	46.7	7.3	2.1	100.0
Kampala	28.4	65.2	4.5	2.0	100.0
National	41.4	45.7	10.1	2.7	100.0

Only 41% of the children that were reported to have been immunized against DPT3 showed their cards

Overall, the immunization target is yet to be realized if we consider only children whose cards were seen. The data indicated that only 41 percent of the children that were reported to have been immunized against DPT3 had their cards seen. It is very evident that Kampala has very low immunization coverage if we consider only children whose cards were seen.

Although a big percentage (65%) were reported immunized in Kampala their cards were not seen. Most of the immunization against DPT3 took place in Government health facilities (81% in both the rural and urban areas). The private health facilities as a source of immunization against DPT3 were more common in the urban as compared to the rural areas, 9 and 15 percent respectively. The remaining 12 and 5 percent reported immunized in the rural and urban areas respectively, were covered by mobile unit facilities and other sources like schools.

There were notable differentials in the immunization status by age as presented in Table 4.8 below. Less than 20 percent of the children were immunised within the first year for all vaccinations. The lowest percentage was reported for measles. These results indicate a challenge to ensure timely immunization for children. The Ministry of Health could examine further reasons why children are not immunized on time and at the recommended age.

Table 4.8: Percent Immunized Against Four Diseases by Age and Residence

Vaccine	Residence					
	Rural			Urban		
	Age in months			Age in months		
	0-12	13-24	25-29	0-12	13-24	25-29
Polio 0	17.3	17.4	37.6	7.4	6.0	14.4
BCG	17.3	17.7	37.7	7.1	6.0	14.2
DPT1	16.2	18.0	38.6	6.4	6.1	14.6
DPT2	14.8	18.2	39.7	6.0	6.3	15.1
DPT3	13.9	18.4	40.4	5.6	6.4	15.4
Polio 1	15.1	18.3	39.6	5.9	6.1	14.9
Polio 2	14.0	18.4	40.5	5.6	6.3	15.3
Polio 3	12.8	18.5	41.4	5.2	6.4	15.8
Measles	12.2	18.9	42.1	4.4	6.6	15.9

A significant percentage (76%) of children had received the Vitamin A supplement during the last six months preceding the survey. The remaining 24 percent had either not received or the caretakers did not know the status. Vitamin A supplement is a relatively new routine health service for children. Results reveal that its popularity amongst households is encouraging. However, more effort is needed to ensure universal access and utilization/acceptance of the supplement.

4.4.2 Birth-related Services

Indicators of utilization of birth-related services have remained poor despite the heavy investment and intensity of programmes by various stakeholders. Rapid population growth, a reflection of limited utilization of birth-related services, was reported to be wiping out gains of improved social spending according to the PEAP status report 2003. The sector PEAP target is set to have 35 percent of deliveries in health Units. The baseline value for the year 2003/04 was estimated at 24 percent and expected to rise to 50 percent by the year 2010 (MTR of the HSSP Report 2003).

The survey inquired about the first source of treatment for various sicknesses, including those related to birth. Results presented in Table 4.9a below shows that about 54 percent used government health facilities to meet their birth related problems. The high percentage is not surprising because available information has shown that while a big percentage of women attend antenatal, very few deliver from health facilities. Strategies need to be devised to ensure that all women who seek birth-related services deliver from health facilities.

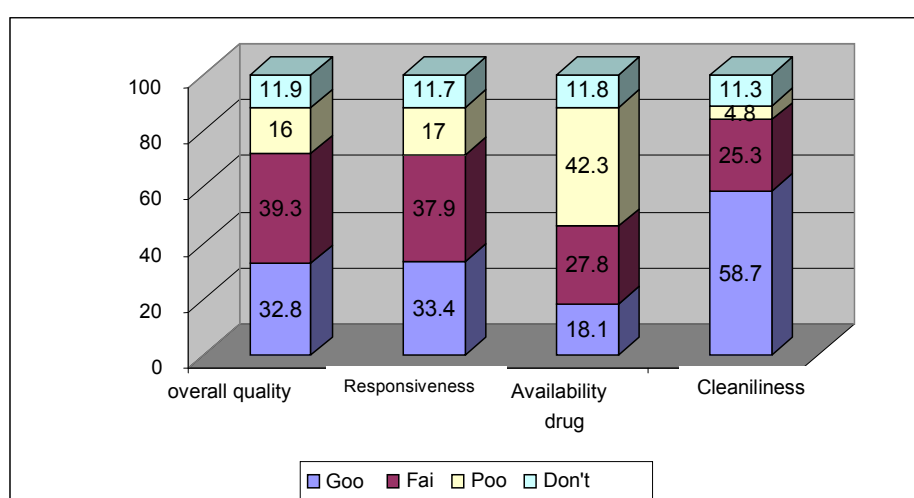
Table 4.9a: Percentage Distribution of Household Members Who Fell Sick in the Last 30 Days by First Source of Treatment and Type of Sickness

First Source of treatment	Fever /malaria	Respiratory	Diarrhea	STI/HIV/AIDS	birth-related	other	All
None	2.4	4.3	3.5	2.6	2.9	6.0	3.8
Home/self medication	10.0	12.7	9.2	9.2	5.2	11.7	10.6
Traditional healer	.4	.8	1.9	.6	1.1	2.1	1.1
Gov't health facility	32.1	38.9	37.5	45.3	53.7	32.2	33.0
Private healthy facility	31.5	26.8	25.6	24.6	22.1	24.9	28.6
Religious/mission facility	2.4	3.6	3.0	7.0	2.8	3.1	2.7
Pharmacy/Drugshop	18.8	11.0	16.7	7.9	7.9	18.0	17.8
Community healthy workers	.5	.3	.5			.3	.4
NGO healthy facility	.9	1.2	1.7	2.3	4.2	.8	1.0
Other	1.0	.4	.5	.3		1.0	.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

4.5 Quality of Government Health Services

The indicator of quality of services by the sector is expressed as the proportion of surveyed population expressing satisfaction with the health services. Respondents were asked whether they were satisfied with the health services they were offered. About 86 percent of the respondents were satisfied with the services. The survey further assessed people's rating of the quality of services provided by the community health facilities. The issues examined included overall quality of services, responsiveness of staff, availability of drugs and cleanliness of the facility. Figure 4.4 below illustrates people's rating of the various aspects ranging from good to poor as well as those who had no opinion.

Figure 4.4: Percentage Distribution of Households by Level of Satisfaction with Health Services



Drug shortage in government health facilities still a problem.

A third of the households (33%) rated overall quality of services as good. Only 18 percent of the households rated availability of drugs as good although the majority felt it was poor (42%). Cleanliness had the best rating – 59 percent of the households rated cleanliness as good. About a third of the households rated responsiveness of staff as good. There is still a lot to be done by the sector to improve on the availability of drugs and health workers' relationships with clients. Despite the low rating of the quality of the services, a large percentage of households were satisfied with most services including drugs. Further investigations are needed to establish people's perception of quality of services.

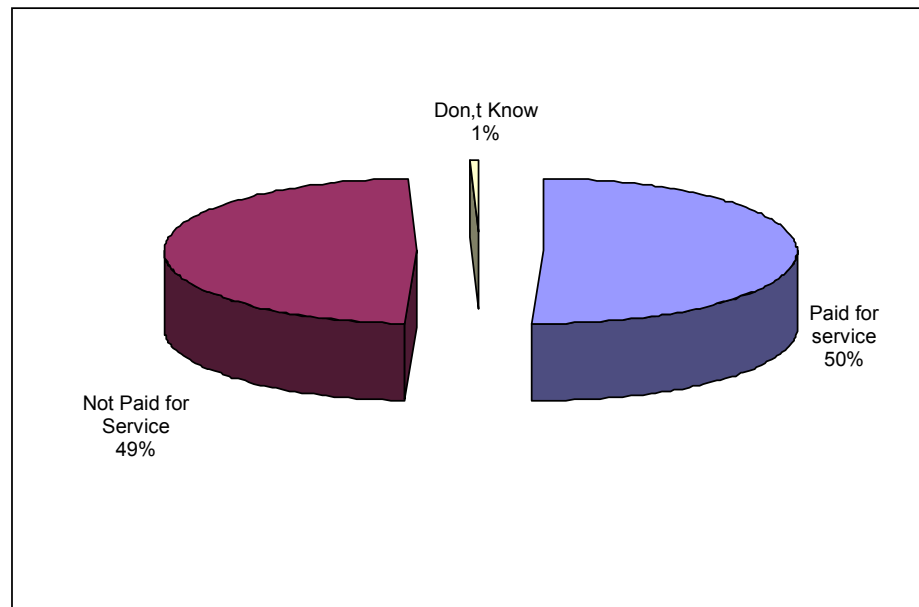
4.5.1 Payment for Services

50 % of the patients paid for the services in government health units

Respondents who obtained health services from Government health facilities were asked whether they made any payment. Overall, about 50 percent of the patients paid for the services as illustrated in Figure 4.5 below. Comparing with the second national integrity survey, the frequency of payment for the services has gone up. It was estimated to be 40 percent during the integrity survey. Frequency of payment varied with the type of health service sought as presented in Table

4.9b. Antenatal care had the largest percentage of women (35%) from whom payment was demanded. It was also reported in the 2000 NSDS report that 47 percent of all women who did not deliver from hospital/clinic cited high cost as the reason for not accessing health facility services. The findings from the two surveys of high cost of birth-related services may be one of the major reasons contributing to limited access to the services. The Ministry needs to investigate this further to establish the causes for demanding for payment from expectant mothers by the staff.

Figure 4.5: Percentage Distribution of Patients by Payment for Services



30% of patients
were demanded
to pay

Majority of patients (68.4) paid official fees, however, payment was demanded from 30 percent which was a relatively high percentage given the fact that cost sharing was abolished and services should be accessed freely. Very few gave a token of thanks (1.6%). The Integrity survey estimated a relatively lower percentage of the population that were asked to pay unofficial charges (18%).

Table 4.9b: Percentage Distribution of Patients by Condition of Payment and Type of Service

Type of health Service	Condition of payment			Total
	Official requirement	Token of thanks	Demanded	
Consultation	70.8	1.6	27.7	100.0
Drugs	68.5	0.7	30.8	100.0
Immunization	72.3	2.4	25.3	100.0
Ante-natal	61.6	3.6	34.8	100.0
Delivery	62.8	9.7	27.5	100.0
Laboratory	72.7	1.1	26.1	100.0
X-ray	67.1	1.1	31.9	100.0
Surgery	71.5	5.2	23.3	100.0
Total	68.4	1.6	30.0	100.0

Patients were willing to pay for surgery, laboratory and delivery services

Patients were further asked whether they were willing pay for the services. Overall, only 34 percent of the patients were willing to pay. Willingness to pay varied with the type of service and patients were most unwilling to pay for immunization services and quite willing to pay for surgery, laboratory and delivery, 41, 41 and 40 percent respectively. The results are not surprising since immunization services have always been free.

Respondents were further asked whether they would have paid in the year 2000 and 47 percent reported that they would have paid. This implies that payment for services has been going on for sometime as illustrated in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Percentage Distribution of Patients by Willingness to Pay by Type of Health Service

Health Service	Always willing to pay for service		Total
	Yes	No	
Consultation	34.0	66.0	100.0
Drugs	37.9	62.1	100.0
Immunization	16.9	83.1	100.0
Ante-natal	29.0	71.0	100.0
Delivery	40.0	60.0	100.0
Laboratory	40.6	59.4	100.0
X-ray	36.9	63.1	100.0
Surgery	40.7	59.3	100.0
Total	33.7	66.3	100.0

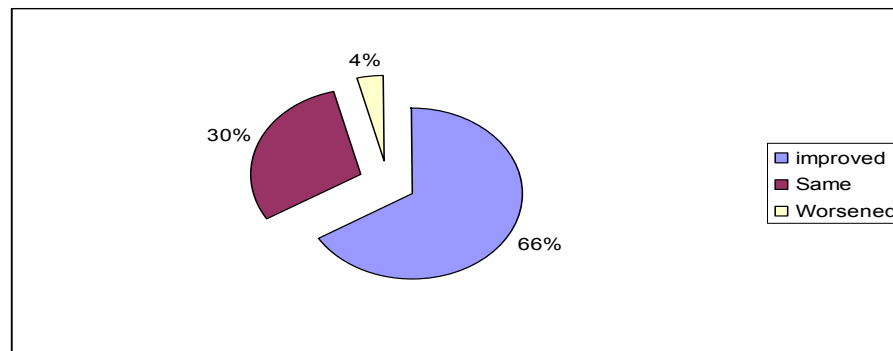
These findings raise concern about the effective implementation of the free access to services policy by the sector and also the extent to which demand for payment limits access mainly of the poor.

Majority reported services as generally improved compared to the year 2000

4.5.2 Service Improvement

Majority of respondents (66%) reported that generally all services had improved compared to what the situation was in the year 2000 except a larger percent indicated that X-ray services had remained the same (45%) as compared to 44 percent who indicated that x-ray services had improved. Greatest improvement was reported on immunization whereby 63 percent reported that the services had improved.

Figure 4.6: Percentage Distribution of Patients by Perception of Rate of Service Quality Improvement



4.6 Conclusion

Despite the free health services provided by government, access to the government health facilities is still limited. The reasons for limited access are both systemic and structural. People do not utilize government health services because of lack of drugs, demand for payment and the long distances to the facilities. Private health facilities and self-medication provide the alternatives to the inadequate government services. This calls for enhancement of government-private partnership for better health services delivery.

Malaria remains a major cause of sickness in both the urban and rural communities. There is need to intensify preventive approaches and cost-effective interventions for treatment of malaria.

The PEAP target of 60 percent DPT3 immunization has not been realized based on the cards seen. Best practices in providing immunization services should be documented and utilized in improving these services and other areas where gaps still exist like birth-related services. Further investigations should be carried out to establish peoples' perceptions of health services, factors affecting child immunization and reproductive health indicators.

WATER AND SANITATION

5.1 Introduction

The Water and Sanitation Sector performance Report of the year 2004 showed that in the financial year 2003/4, Ug. Shs. 34 billion was spent on rural water and sanitation development. Water, sanitation and hygiene are vital components of sustainable development and the alleviation of poverty. Government came up with service delivery standards and performance indicators to monitor and evaluate the performance of the sector. The Survey included questions on water and sanitation to provide for periodic monitoring of the performance of the sector.

The Survey collected information on main source of water for the households, payments incurred to access water, water collection, storage and constraints faced in accessing safe water. In order to understand sanitary conditions of households, information was collected on the type of dwelling units, kitchen, and garbage disposal, condition of bathroom and toilets, and factors limiting access to good sanitation. This chapter presents the findings of the Survey in two parts; water and sanitation independently.

5.2 Water

5.2.1 Distribution of Households by Type of Water Source

The Survey included questions to solicit information on access to water during the dry and wet season by looking at the type of source.

5.2.1.1 Dry Season

The majority of
were obtaining
drinking water from
safe sources
during the dry
season

The results revealed that the main sources of water for drinking and other uses during the dry season were borehole, protected well, and gravity flow (Table 5.1). Over 40 percent of the households were accessing water for drinking from boreholes, protected wells, and gravity flow schemes. It should be noted that the majority of the households (70%) were obtaining drinking water from safe sources during the dry season.

The safe water sources considered included piped water; borehole, protected source, and gravity flow schemes. The distribution by residence showed that 60 percent of the rural and 88 percent of the urban households were obtaining drinking water from safe sources.

The findings were above the water and sanitation sector performance measurement target for the financial year 2003/4. The set target for access to clean water for the financial year 2003/4 was 55 percent for the rural areas and 65 percent for the urban areas. The results were in line with the

findings of the 2002/3 UNHS which revealed 57, 84, and 68 percent for the rural, urban and overall respectively had access to safe water sources.

Table 5.1: Percentage Distribution of Households by Type of Water Source and Use during the Dry Season

Water Source	Drinking			Other Uses		
	Rural	Urban	National	Rural	Urban	National
Piped Water in Dwelling	1.1	9.0	3.7	0.9	8.9	3.6
Piped Water in Compound	0.7	12.5	4.6	0.7	13.1	4.8
Piped Water Outside Compound	4.4	27.3	12.0	3.9	26.8	11.5
Borehole/Protected/ Gravity Flow Scheme	54.1	39.2	49.2	44.3	33.4	40.7
Unprotected Source	22.4	8.0	17.7	25.9	10.5	20.8
Rain Water	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.2	0.5
Lake/River/Stream/Pond/Dam	16.7	3.0	12.2	23.3	6.4	17.7
Other	0.1	0.7	0.3	0.1	0.6	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

There were no marked differences in the use of water by source. Borehole, protected source, and gravity flow scheme were the main source of water even for other uses. Few households (less than one percent) reported rain water as a source of water for drinking and other uses, signifying lack of capacity on part of the households to harvest rainwater and store it for a long time.

5.2.1.2 Wet Season

The percentage distribution of households by type of water source and use during the wet season is shown in Table 5.2. The main source of water for the majority of the households during the wet season was borehole, protected source, and gravity flow scheme. The findings revealed that access to safe water was the same for dry as well as for wet season. During the wet season less households (52 percent for rural and 78 percent for urban) were accessing water from safe sources than during the dry season. This is attributed to many households using rain water which is abundant during the rainy season.

A sharp increase in the percentage of households reporting rainwater as the main source during the wet season was noted. Although rainwater was considered unsafe, more households in the rural and urban areas used it during the wet season. The benefits accruing to rainwater harvesting are limited by lack of and non-affordability for water storage facilities.

Use of rain water
common in the wet
season

Table 5.2: Percentage Distribution of Households by Type of Water Source and Use During the Wet Season

Water Source	Drinking			Other Uses		
	Rural	Urban	National	Rural	Urban	National
Piped Water in Dwelling	1.0	8.9	3.6	0.8	8.5	3.4
Piped Water in Compound	0.7	11.8	4.4	0.7	12.5	4.6
Piped Water Outside Compound	4.0	24.2	10.7	3.6	23.4	10.1
Borehole/Protected/ Gravity Flow	46.0	33.0	41.7	35.7	26.3	32.6
Unprotected Source	16.5	6.2	13.1	20.5	8.2	16.5
Rain Water	18.4	13.2	16.7	18.3	15.6	17.4
Lake/River/Stream/Pond/Dam	13.2	2.1	9.6	20.1	5.0	15.1
Other	0.1	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.5	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

5.2.2 Accessibility of Water Sources

Distance to water sources improved since the year 2000

The findings revealed the average distance to a water source as 1.1 and 0.9 km during the dry and wet season respectively. The 2000 NSDS showed an average distance of 1.5 and 1.2 km during the dry and wet season respectively. The findings suggested that water was more accessible at the time of the Survey than four years ago. The percentage distribution of households by distance to a water source during the wet and dry season is presented in Table 5.3a. The majority of the households were accessing water within a distance of 0.5 km in both seasons.

Table 5.3a: Percentage Distribution of Households by Distance to Water Sources During the Wet and Dry Season

Distance in Km	Wet Season	Dry Season
0.00 to 0.5	65.0	56.5
0.51 to 1.00	18.2	21.9
1.01 to 1.50	11.7	14.9
1.51 to 3.00	11.7	14.9
Above 3.00	5.2	6.7
Total	100.0	100.0

At regional level, the average distance to a water source varied from 0.9 km in the central region to 1.3 km in the northern region (Annex II Table B 2.9).

The district level findings showed that the residents of Kalangala (0.3 km) were covering the shortest distance to a water source, while their counterparts in Sembabule (3.2 km) were covering the longest distance. Results of Kalangala were not surprising given that the district is constituted by 84 islands. The findings suggested that many households access water from the lake.

Households were spending more time to access water during the dry season than during the wet season (Table 5.3b). No major variations were noted between the amounts of water used during the dry or wet season.

Table 5.3b: Average Distance and Time to Drinking Water Source and Amount of Water Used Per Day

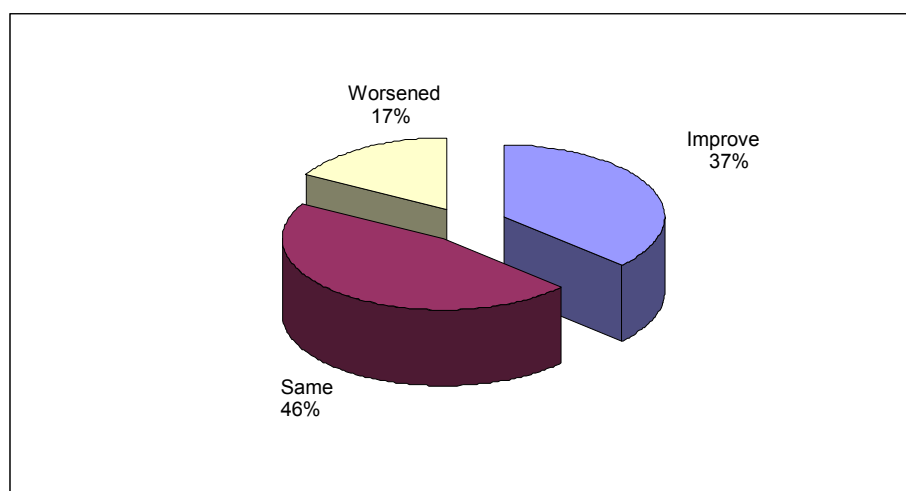
Description	Dry Season		Wet Season	
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
Average Waiting Time at Water Source (Minutes)	50	38	32	25
Average Time Taken to and from Water Source (Minutes)	43	22	31	17
Average Amount of Water Used Per Day (litres) per Household	16	14	14	12
Water Collection Time (Minutes)	93	60	63	42

50 minutes of waiting reported on the average during the dry season by rural households

The water and sanitation sector performance measurement target for water collection time in rural areas is 27 minutes, while for the urban areas it is 7 minutes. Drinking water collection time was considered as the waiting time at the source, and the time to and from water source. For the rural areas, the Survey revealed 93 minutes during the dry season, and 63 minutes during the wet season.

However, for the urban areas, the waiting time was 60 minutes during the dry season and 42 minutes during the wet season as shown in Table 5.3b. The reasons for the long water collection time were unreliable water sources, long distances and long queues at water points. Furthermore, the 2000 NSDS revealed that households were on average spending 43 and 31 minutes at a water source during the dry and wet season respectively, in the rural area.

The respondents were required to state how the availability of safe water for household consumption had changed in the community over the 2 years that preceded the survey. The situation had not changed to a bigger proportion of the households (Figure 5.1). The findings by spatial distribution presented in Annex II Table B 2.10 shows that 64 percent of the households in Kayunga District reported an improvement in the availability of safe water over the past 2 years. The least improvement was noted in Pader District (3%).

Figure 5.1: Percentage Distribution of Households by Change in the Availability of Safe Water

The households that did not report accessing safe water sources were asked to state the main reason. Out of the total surveyed households about 31 and 40 percent [Appendix Tables A1] were not accessing safe water during dry and wet season respectively. The major reason for not accessing safe water reported by 54 percent of the households was non-availability of safe water sources (see Table 5.4). Other important reasons were; long distance, unreliable water source and long queues.

Differences were noted when the responses were analysed by residence with more rural respondents than their urban counterparts reporting non-availability of safe water sources. However, more urban residents reported long queues and unreliable water sources than their rural counterparts.

Table 5.4: Percentage Distribution of Households by Main Reason for Not Using Safe Water Sources and Residence

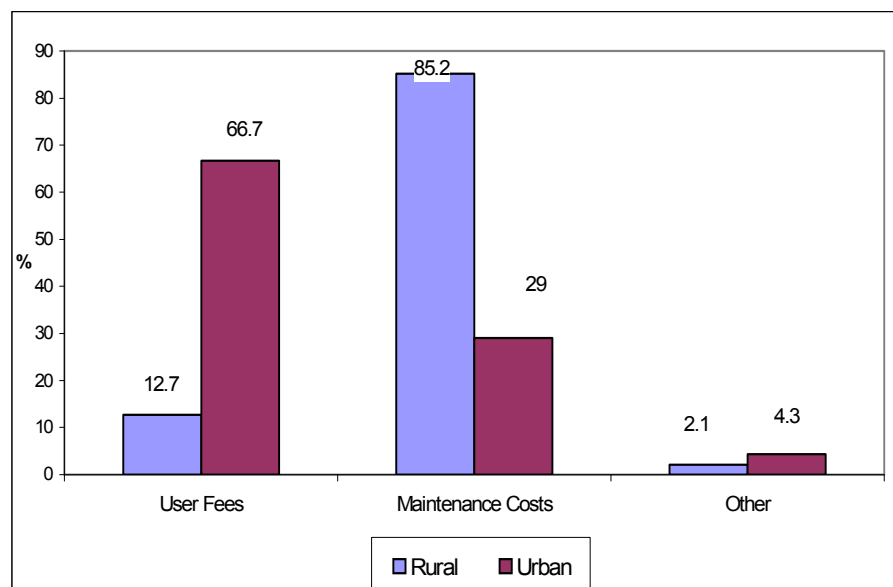
Main Reason	Rural	Urban	National
Not Available	56.9	41.3	54.1
Long Distance	19.8	15.9	19.1
Unreliable	7.7	9.9	8.1
Water Does not Taste Good	1.7	3.0	2.0
Require Contribution	2.2	7.8	3.2
Long Queues	4.8	9.7	5.7
Open Source is Okay	3.2	6.0	3.7
Other	3.6	6.5	4.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

5.2.3 Payments for Water

About 39 percent of the households in both rural and urban areas indicated paying for the water they use. More urban households (69%) than their rural counterparts (30%) reported paying for water [Appendix A4]. Figure 5.2 presents the percentage distribution of households reporting paying for water by purpose of payment. Most of the rural households paid for maintenance of the water points (85%), while the majority of the urban households (67%) were paying user fees.

About 39% of the Households were paying for water

Figure 5.2: Percentage Distribution of Households Reporting Paying for Water by Purpose of Payment



The percentage of households indicating paying for water varied from 21 percent in western region to 80 percent in Kampala (Table 5.5). Further analysis revealed that in Kampala region, the majority of households (86%) were paying for user fees, while in the other regions the common purpose was maintenance.

Table 5.5: Regional Distribution of Households by Payment for Water (%)

Description	Central*	Kampala	Eastern	Northern	Western	National
Payment for Water						
Yes	35.0	80.2	49.4	59.7	20.7	43.1
No	65.0	19.8	50.6	40.3	79.3	56.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Purpose of payment						
User Fees/ Tariffs	54.0	85.9	34.5	21.9	49.0	42.3
Maintenance Costs	38.6	8.8	63.8	77.1	46.5	54.4
Other	7.4	5.2	1.7	0.9	4.4	3.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

*Note: Central excludes Kampala District

Table 5.6 presents the average monthly household payments for water by residence and region. Urban dwellers were paying more than four times higher than their rural counterparts. At regional level, the average monthly payments for water ranged from Ug. Shs 2,020 in northern region to Ug. Shs 8,580 in Kampala. Overall, households were willing to pay less for water than what they were actually paying, with exception of the northern region where residents were willing to pay Ug.shs.630 more for water.

Table 5.6: Regional Average Household Monthly Payments for Water by Residence

Description	Household Monthly Expenditure on Water (Ug. Shs)	Amount Household is Willing to Pay (Ug. Shs)	Difference Between Actual and Willing to Pay (Ug. Shs)
Residence			
Rural	1,680	730	950
Urban	6,820	3,400	3,420
Region			
Central	6,090	3,020	3,070
Kampala	8,580	4,240	4,340
Eastern	3,330	1,620	1,710
Northern	2,020	2,650	-630
Western	7,170	2,220	4,950
National	4,520	2,220	2,300

5.2.4 Collection, Preparation and Storage of Water

The findings show that women were responsible for collection of water in about a third of the total households as illustrated in Table 5.7. The findings also revealed that water vending was more common in the urban areas (11%) than in the rural areas.

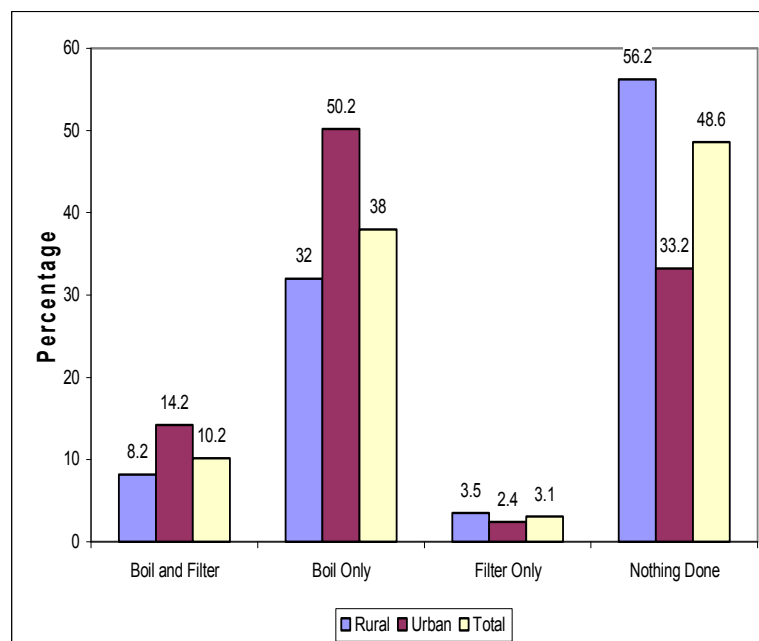
Table 5.7: Percentage Distribution of Households by Household Member who Normally Collect Water by Residence

Collection of Water	Rural	Urban	National
Boys	4.9	5.3	5.0
Girls	4.0	6.0	4.6
Both Boys and Girls	20.1	19.1	19.8
Women	32.4	31.0	32.0
Both Girls and Women	18.8	13.4	17.1
Men	7.7	8.5	8.0
Both Men and Women	9.4	5.8	8.3
Vendors	2.7	10.8	5.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Figure 5.3 presents the percentage distribution of households by method of preparing drinking water. Most of the households in the rural areas (56%) were not preparing water before drinking, while the majority of the urban households (50%) boiled water for drinking. The findings at regional and district level are presented in Annex II Table B 2.11. The boiling and filtering of water

for drinking was more practiced in the western region (15%), and least in the northern region (2%). At the district level, the percentage of households that boiled and filtered water ranged from less than one percent in Moyo to 36 percent in Mbarara.

Figure 5.3: Percentage Distribution of Households by Method of Preparing Drinking Water by Residence



The most common way of storing drinking water was using a pot (Table 5.8). The pot as a storage facility for drinking water was common in both rural and urban areas. Most of the pots used in storing drinking water were covered. The other important storage facility for drinking water was a jerrycan for one in every three households in the rural area and slightly over 40 percent in the urban.

Table 5.8: Percentage Distribution of Households by Drinking Water Storage Facility and Residence

Storage Facility	Rural			Urban		
	Covered	Uncovered	Total	Covered	Uncovered	Total
Pot	66.3	27.1	61.7	51.9	20.9	50.2
Jerrycan	29.6	65.3	33.8	41.6	67.7	43.0
Saucepan	0.4	2.2	0.6	0.7	4.4	0.9
Drums	0.1	1.3	0.3	0.1	1.3	0.1
Jug/Kettle	2.7	2.6	2.7	3.1	3.7	3.1
Other	0.8	1.6	0.9	2.7	2.1	2.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

5.2.5 Constraints Limiting Access to Safe Water

The Survey revealed inadequate safe water sources as a major constraint that limited access to safe water (Table 5.9). Over 50 percent of the households reported inadequate safe water sources as the major limiting factor. The other important constraints in order of their magnitude were; long distance and high cost of safe water. Overall, no marked variations were noted in the constraints reported by residences and regions.

Table 5.9: Percentage Distribution of Households by Residence and Constraints Faced in Accessing Safe Water

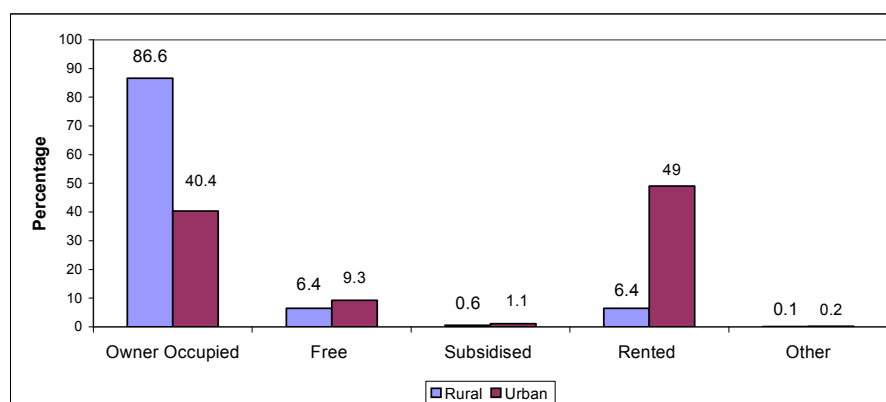
Residence	Long Distance	Inadequate Sources	High Cost	Other	Total
Rural	31.0	54.5	4.7	9.8	100.0
Urban	17.6	41.9	33.0	7.5	100.0
Region					
Central	28.7	46.3	13.0	12.0	100.0
Kampala	13.4	25.5	54.7	6.4	100.0
Eastern	28.7	53.3	11.8	6.2	100.0
Northern	17.2	62.6	9.4	10.9	100.0
Western	36.6	45.2	9.7	8.5	100.0
National	27.0	50.7	13.1	9.1	100.0

5.3 Housing and Sanitation

This section covers housing and sanitation of households. Housing condition is of significant importance in the understanding of the sanitation condition of the households. Poor housing conditions are associated with pests and diseases that are a menace to the health of the household members. Inadequate sanitation and hygiene arising out of poor housing and sanitary facilities is a major cause of poor health and poverty.

5.3.1 Housing Occupancy Tenure

Figure 5.4 presents the percentage distribution of households by occupancy tenure and residence. Owner occupied was the most common form of housing occupancy tenure in the rural area (87%), while rented was common in the urban area (49%). Housing occupancy tenure of subsidized nature was scarce in both rural and urban areas.

Figure 5.4: Percentage Distribution of Households by Occupancy Tenure and Residence

5.3.2 Housing by Type of Materials

The Survey elicited information on the type of materials used in the construction of the dwelling structure. Table 5.10 presents the percentage distribution of households by type of materials for the dwelling structure. Over 60 percent of the dwelling structures were roofed with iron sheets. The 2002/3 UNHS showed that 63 percent of the households were living in houses roofed with iron sheets. The percentage of households reporting their dwelling structures roofed with iron sheets varied from 51 percent in the rural area to 79 percent in the urban area.

Table 5.10: Percentage Distribution of Households by Type of Materials for the Dwelling Structure and Residence

Housing Characteristics	Rural	Urban	Total
Material of Roof			
Thatched	47.7	18.1	37.8
Iron Sheets	51.2	79.0	60.4
Other	1.1	2.9	1.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Material of Wall			
Thatched	2.5	0.7	1.9
Mud and Poles	55.0	19.4	43.2
Unburnt Bricks	17.1	13.5	15.9
Burnt Bricks with Mud	8.3	8.7	8.5
Burnt Bricks with Cement	15.1	52.0	27.4
Other	2.0	5.7	3.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Material of Floor			
Earth	41.3	16.6	33.1
Earth and Cow dung	44.0	16.9	34.9
Cement Screed	12.4	55.3	26.7
Other	2.3	11.2	5.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Overall, mud and poles was the most common type of wall for the dwelling structures. The percentage of households reporting mud and poles houses varied from 19 percent in the urban areas to 51 percent in the rural area. The 2002/3 UNHS revealed a percentage of 17 and 52 for the urban and rural respectively. Variations were noted on the type of material used for the wall for the dwelling units with 55 percent of the rural households reporting mud and poles, while 52 percent of the urban households reported burnt bricks with cement.

Further examination of the housing material types by type of floor revealed earth and cow dung as the most common type of floor (35%), followed by earth (33%) and cement screed (27%). The type of materials for the floor varied by residence with rural households (44%) reporting earth and cow dung, while most urban households (55%) reported cement screed.

5.3.3 Sanitation Facilities

Information was sought from the households on the household sanitary facilities, concentrating on kitchen, garbage disposal, bathroom, toilet and hand washing facilities after toilet use. Table 5.11 presents the percentage distribution of households by type of sanitary facility and residence. Slightly over a quarter of the households (26%) lacked kitchens. Where kitchens existed in the majority of the cases (62%) [Appendix A5], they (kitchens) were located outside the dwelling place. More kitchens were located outside the dwelling unit in rural than in urban areas. Pits and gardens were the most common methods for garbage disposal in both rural and urban areas. Over 43 percent of rural households were disposing garbage in gardens, while 38 percent of the urban residents were disposing in pits. The findings are in line with the results of the 2002/3 UNHS which showed 56 percent of the rural and 32 percent of the urban residents using garden and heaps respectively as a method of solid waste disposal. Other important methods of garbage disposal were bush and skips.

Further analysis of the sanitary facilities by type of bathrooms and toilets for the households showed variations by residence. In the rural areas, makeshift bathrooms were common (37%), while in the urban areas, outside built bathrooms were common (52%). In addition, most of the urban dwellers (45%) were using shared covered pit latrines. Most of the toilets in the rural areas (39%) were private covered pit latrines. Overall, nearly one in every three toilet facilities had hand washing facilities. Close to 75 percent of rural and 60 percent of urban households lacked hand washing facilities after toilet use.

Table 5.11: Percentage Distribution of Households by Type of Sanitary Facility and Residence

Characteristics	Rural	Urban	Total
Type of Kitchen			
Inside	9.2	16.3	11.5
Outside (Built)	56.5	30.7	47.9
Makeshift	15.0	13.5	14.5
None	19.3	39.5	26.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Garbage Disposal			
Pit	31.2	38.1	33.5
Skip	3.9	32.8	13.5
Bush	20.5	9.9	17.0
Garden	43.1	16.0	34.0
Other	1.4	3.3	2.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Type of Bathroom			
Inside	2.8	14.1	6.6
Outside Built	28.2	52.4	36.3
Makeshift	37.4	21.7	32.2
None	31.5	11.8	24.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Type of Toilet			
Covered pit latrine (private)	39.1	25.8	34.6
Covered pit latrine (shared)	22.8	45.3	30.3
Uncovered pit latrine	19.7	11.6	17.0
Other	3.2	13.6	6.7
No Toilet	15.2	3.7	11.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Provision of Hand Washing Facility After Toilet Use			
Yes	25.6	41.4	31.0
No	74.4	58.6	69.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

The water and sanitation sector performance measurement targets for the 2003/4 financial year on access to latrine use were 91 and 95 percent for the rural and small towns respectively. Therefore the Survey findings were below the targets for the period.

The respondents were asked to state the major factors that limit construction of toilet facilities. The findings revealed that ignorance and high cost were the major factors limiting toilet facility construction (Table 5.12). It should be noted that, 25 percent of the households lacked information on the factors limiting community members from constructing toilet facilities. The rural dwellers were more likely to be limited by ignorance than their urban counterparts.

Table 5.12: Percentage Distribution of Households by Factors Limiting Construction of Toilet Facilities

Residence/ Location	None	Ignorance	High Cost	Soil Type / Terrain	Culture	Don't Know	Other	Total
Rural	12.1	27.0	20.8	9.6	1.3	21.3	7.9	100.0
Urban	16.7	14.7	23.0	5.4	0.6	32.3	7.3	100.0
Region								
Central	14.1	21.8	20.3	6.2	1.3	28.9	7.4	100.0
Kampala	12.4	5.3	15.4	4.9	0.2	52.2	9.6	100.0
Eastern	12.3	21.6	23.5	14.6	1.3	19.5	7.4	100.0
Northern	11.9	19.8	31.1	9.2	1.2	16.6	10.1	100.0
Western	16.5	32.6	13.9	3.5	0.8	26.9	5.8	100.0
Total	13.7	22.9	21.5	8.2	1.1	24.9	8.8	100.0

A question was included in the household questionnaire to assess the awareness to the community members on the factors limiting use of toilet facilities. Table 5.13 shows that the majority of the respondents (29%) cited ignorance as limiting community members from using the toilet facilities. Over one-quarter of the households (28%) did not know any factor limiting use of toilet facilities. One in every five households cited no factors limiting community members from using toilet facilities.

Table 5.13: Percentage Distribution of Households by Residence and Factors Limiting Use of Toilet Facilities in the Community

Region/Residence	None	Ignorance	Culture	Non Availability	Don't know	Other	Total
Rural	17.2	32.9	2.7	17.0	25.2	5.1	100.0
Urban	22.6	21.6	2.1	13.5	34.6	5.6	100.0
Region							
Central	20.6	26.7	3.2	10.6	33.1	5.8	100.0
Kampala	14.3	9.5	2.5	11.5	58.0	4.1	100.0
Eastern	19.1	28.8	2.9	21.6	23.0	4.6	100.0
Northern	19.6	23.2	2.5	29.2	20.9	4.7	100.0
Western	18.0	41.9	1.3	4.9	27.8	6.1	100.0
Total	19.0	29.1	2.5	15.8	28.3	5.3	100.0

5.4 Conclusion

Access to safe water, improved sanitation facilities and practices lead to improved health. Water and sanitation have a direct and immediate bearing on the quality of life, contributing to long term socio-economic development and consequently to poverty alleviation. The findings have revealed improvements in the households' access to safe water and sanitation. This is a sign of success, since Government has invested a lot in the sector to improve the management and delivery of water and sanitation services. The improvement in the delivery of service in the water sector is noted from the field responses and also when the findings are compared with other sources of information, like the 2002/3 UNHS.

Variations were noted in the improvements at regional level with the north still lagging behind when compared with other regions. Water and sanitation being vital components of sustainable development and alleviation of poverty, strategies should be put in place to ensure better access to safe water in the northern region.

In addition, appropriate strategies should be put in place for improved access to sanitary facilities, especially latrines, which the results revealed were below the target for the financial year 2002/2003.

AGRICULTURE

6.1 Introduction

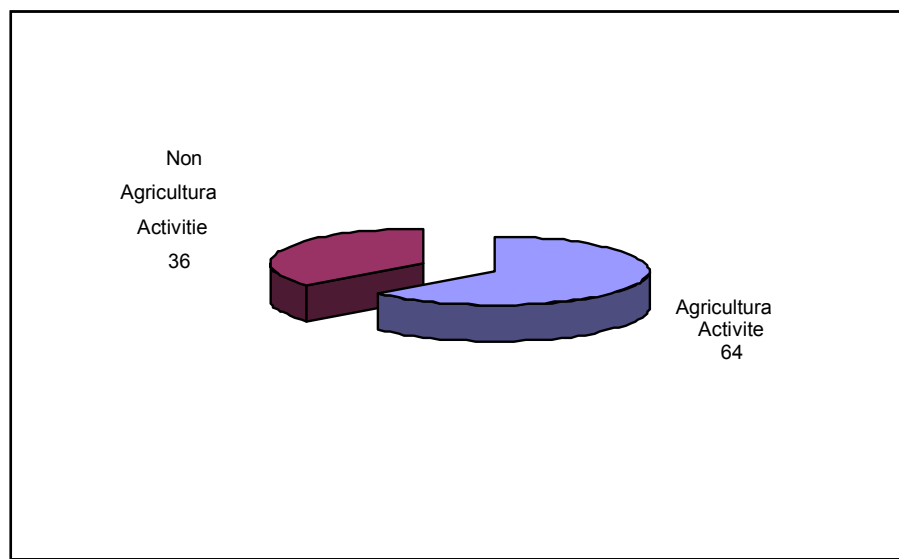
Agriculture has continued to dominate the Ugandan Economy with most of the households deriving their livelihood from it. According to the Background to the Budget (2004/2005), however, this sector has a number of structural weaknesses that limit it from being vibrant. Intervention in form of agricultural extension services would, among other factors, go a long way in reducing some of these structural bottlenecks in the sector. This Survey aimed at assessing the extent to which agricultural extension services had benefited the people in terms of availability, access and utilization. In addition households were asked about the quality of services and how it had changed overtime. This Chapter therefore discusses these issues from both the point of view of service providers and users.

6.2 Household Involvement in Agricultural Activities

About 2/3
Households were
involved in an
agricultural activity

Households were asked the activities in which they were engaged at the time of the survey. According to the findings, about two in every three households were involved in agricultural activities as shown in Figure 6.1 below.

Figure 6.1: Percentage Distribution of Household Involvement in Agricultural Activities

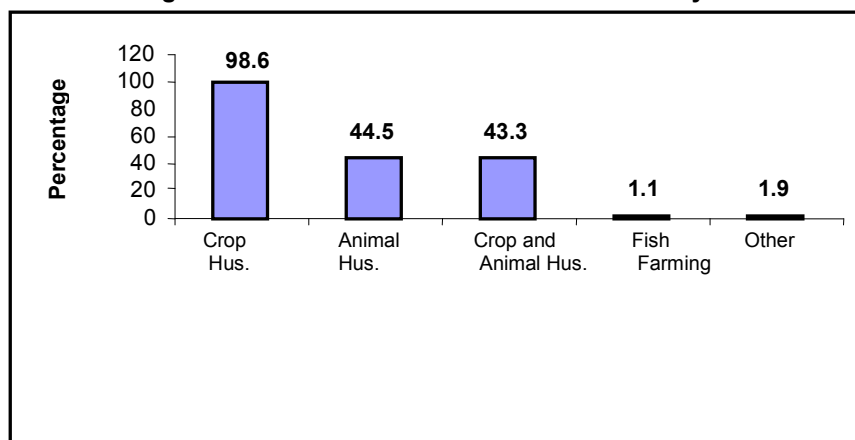


Less than 2% of the
Households were
involved in Fish
Farming

Households involved in agricultural activities were asked to specify which agricultural activities they were involved in. It should be noted that a number of households were involved in more than one agricultural activity. Of the three agricultural activities, Crop Husbandry dominated the rest with almost all households involved in it. Fish Farming on the other hand was the agricultural

activity least engaged in with only about one percent of the households as shown in Figure 6.2 below. The findings further showed that mixed farming (crop and animal) was a common phenomenon observed in about 43 percent of the households.

Figure 6.2: Percentage Distribution of Households by Involvement in Agricultural Activities at the Time of the Survey



Information analysed by district and presented in Annex II Table B 2.12 indicated that about 98 percent of households in Pallisa District were engaged in an agricultural activity. Kampala which is urban had about 4 percent of the households involved in an agricultural activity. In Pader District, the majority of the households reside in IDP camps due to insecurity hence involvement in agriculture activities was reported for about 3 percent of the households. Almost all the households that indicated involvement in any agricultural activity were involved in crop husbandry. Fish farming was not a common agricultural activity in all the districts of Uganda. Moyo District had the highest percentage (11.6%).

6.3 Demand for Agricultural Extension Services

The respondents of the households that were involved in any agricultural activity were asked to state how often they required extension services. Overall close to one half of all the households indicated that they did not require extension services. The sector that least required extension services was Fish Farming where slightly more than 80 percent of the households involved in the activity indicated that they did not require the services.

The results further indicated that either the households did not require the services or if they did, they required them more frequently as shown in Table 6.1 below. Most households that required extension services indicated that they needed them at least once a month particularly for Animal Husbandry (37%) and Crop Husbandry (35%).

Table 6.1: Percentage Household Demand for Agricultural Extension Services

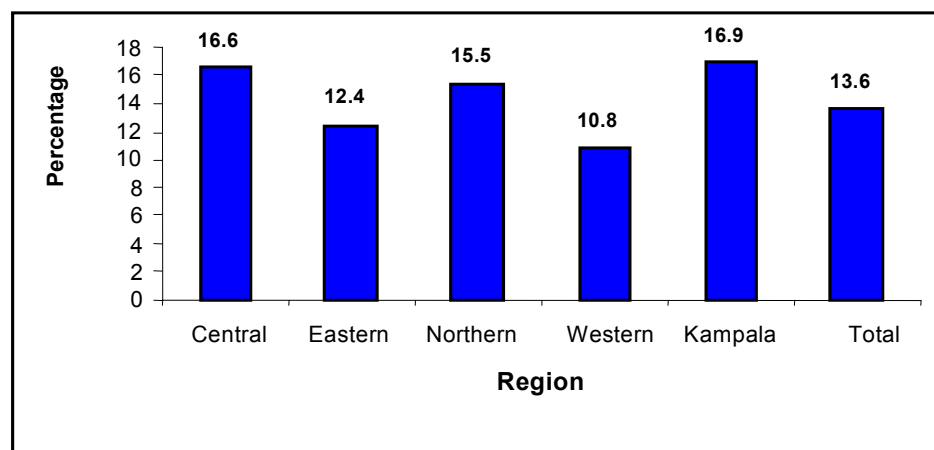
Activity	Never	At least Once in a Month	Once in 3 Months	Once in 6 Months	Other	Total
Crop Husbandry	41.5	34.6	10.6	6.2	7.1	100.0
Animal Husbandry	43.6	37.2	8.4	4.6	6.2	100.0
Fish Farming	84.2	10.8	2.1	0.7	2.2	100.0
Other	76.4	15.1	4.4	0.6	3.5	100.0
Total	48.3	32.0	8.7	4.9	6.1	100.0

6.4 Utilization of Agricultural Extension Services

About 14% of the Households had been visited by an extension worker

Respondents were asked whether they had ever been visited by an agricultural extension worker in the 12 months that preceded the survey. This was irrespective of whether they were involved in the relevant activity or not.¹

The findings indicated that only about 14 percent of the households had been visited by an extension worker within 12 months before the survey compared to about 29 percent reported in the 2000 National Service Delivery Survey. Visits by extension workers therefore halved between 2000 and 2004 according to the two surveys. The situation differed across regions as shown in Figure 6.3 below. Visits by extension workers were relatively lower for western and eastern regions compared to the northern and central regions.

Figure 6.3: Percentage Distribution of Households Visited by Agricultural Extension Worker by Region

Kampala indicated the highest percentage of households visited by extension workers but it should be noted that the area had relatively few households (Annex II Table B 2.12 Annex II) involved in agricultural activities. These findings imply that across the country, slightly less than nine in every ten households were never visited by an agricultural extension worker in the reference period. At district level, over 70 percent of the households in most districts had not been visited by an extension worker. The districts that had a high percentage of households visited by

¹ It should be noted that a household can develop interest in an agricultural activity after the visit by the extension worker even though it was not involved in the activity before.

extension workers included Kitgum (40.3%), Kalangala (36.4%) and Rakai (35.7%) as indicated in Annex II Table B 2.13.

Households that indicated having been visited by an extension worker were asked how often they were visited. Table 6.2 below shows the frequency of visits by the agricultural extension workers.

Table 6.2: Households Visited by Agricultural Extension Workers by Activity (%)

Activity	At least Once in 1 Month	Once in 3 Months	Once in 6 Months	Other	Total
Crop Husbandry	37.8	18.6	17.2	26.4	100.0
Animal Husbandry	41.5	16.4	16.2	25.9	100.0
Fish Farming	49.2	11.9	5.9	33.0	100.0
Other	45.4	1.5	16.8	36.3	100.0

Almost 1/2 of the Households involved in fish farming were visited at least once in a month

More than 50 percent of the households were visited by agricultural extension workers at least once in every 3 months. It was even higher for Fish Farming where more than 50 percent of the households were visited by extension workers at least once in one month. However, for all types of activities, there was more than 25 percent of the households that received extension services only once in a year or in an adhoc manner (represented by 'other').

6.5 Access to Agricultural Extension Services

Availability of extension services does not necessarily translate into access. This section addresses dimensions of access to agricultural extension services including the source and distance to the service, the most common compared to preferred methods of delivery, the willingness to pay and payment for the services. In addition to availability, these factors determine the access households have to agricultural extension services.

6.5.1 Source of Extension Services

Households that indicated having been visited by an extension worker in the 12 months that preceded the survey were asked which agricultural extension services they received and their source. The findings indicated that most of the extension services were provided by government constituting more than 60 percent for each of the types of activities as shown in Table 6.3 below.

Table 6.3: Percentage Distribution of Households by Activity and Source of Extension Service

Activity	Government Official	Private	NGO/CBO	Other	Total
Crop Husbandry	73.1	10.4	15.7	0.8	100.0
Animal Husbandry	62.0	29.9	7.6	0.5	100.0
Fish Farming	75.6	0.0	12.1	12.3	100.0
Other	68.1	3.2	10.9	17.8	100.0

Most Households engaged in Fish Farming and Crop Husbandry received extension services from mainly government which accounted for more than 70 percent. This finding provides evidence concerning government efforts to take extension services closer to the people by locating them in every sub county.

However, NGOs/CBOs are also making a reasonable contribution to service delivery particularly in Crop Husbandry and Fish Farming. PMA recognizes the role of civil societies in the delivery of extension services. According to the PMA/Civil Society Partnership principles developed by the PMA Steering committee, CSOs are good channels through which government services can be delivered.

6.5.2 Distance to Extension Services

Households that received extension services were asked the distance they covered to reach the source of the extension service. For most of the extension services, about one half of the households indicated that they were within 5 km of reach while about 20 percent were in more than 10 km as shown in Table 6.4 below. However, close to 40 percent of the households engaged in Fish Farming were beyond 10 km from their service providers.

Table 6.4: Percentage Distribution of Households by Distance to the Source of Extension Service

Extension Service	<= 1 km	>1km< 5km	5km < 10 km	>10km	Total
Crop Husbandry	13.0	41.3	20.3	25.4	100.0
Animal Husbandry	10.7	45.9	24.2	19.2	100.0
Fish Farming	9.0	36.4	15.8	38.8	100.0
Other	16.9	24.8	35.0	23.3	100.0

Information was also collected from the extension workers regarding the means of transport they frequently used to deliver their services. Most extension workers indicated using an official motorcycle (63%) but this differed across regions with 76 percent for the western region and only 41 percent in Kampala as shown in Table 6.5. The findings revealed that less than 10 per cent of the extension workers who did not have means of transport to deliver services and hence they were walking.

Table 6.5: Percentage Distribution of Agricultural Extension Workers by Region and Frequently used Means of Transport

About 1/2 of the HHs accessed extension services within 5 km

Region	Official Vehicle	Official Motorcycle	Own Motorcycle	Public Transport	Walking	Other	Total
Central	1.8	62.8	11.5	9.4	4.8	9.7	100.0
Eastern	0.0	54.0	6.7	11.2	9.3	18.8	100.0
Northern	0.8	61.4	0.8	4.7	9.7	22.6	100.0
Western	1.2	76.0	5.3	6.2	7.2	4.1	100.0
Kampala	2.3	40.9	0.0	47.7	9.1	0.0	100.0
National	1.0	63.0	6.3	9.5	7.6	12.6	100.0

6.5.3 Forms of Accessing Extension Services

Households were asked about the most common and the preferred methods through which they received services from agricultural extension workers. Slightly more than one half of the households reported meetings with the extension worker (individual or joint) as the most common method used to access extension services compared to 80 percent that preferred the method as shown in Table 6.6 below. The situation was similar for different types of agricultural activities in which the households were involved. However, preference for joint meetings with extension workers was higher than that for individual meetings.

Table 6.6: Percentage Distribution of Households by the Most Common and the Preferred Forms of Accessing Extension Services

Form of Access	Mass Media	Joint Meeting with Extension Worker	Individual Meeting with Extension Worker	Other	Total
Most Common					
Crop Husbandry	35.9	33.5	18.9	11.7	100.00
Animal Husbandry	35.1	33.0	21.9	10.0	100.0
Fish Farming	43.0	27.1	17.3	12.6	100.0
Other	34.9	29.5	20.8	14.8	100.0
All Activities	36.2	32.8	19.8	11.2	100.0
Preferred					
Crop Husbandry	18.4	49.1	28.3	4.2	100.0
Animal Husbandry	17.2	49.0	30.0	3.8	100.0
Fish Farming	23.6	46.3	24.7	5.4	100.0
Other	23.0	46.3	23.4	7.3	100.0
All Activities	18.5	48.8	28.4	4.3	100.0

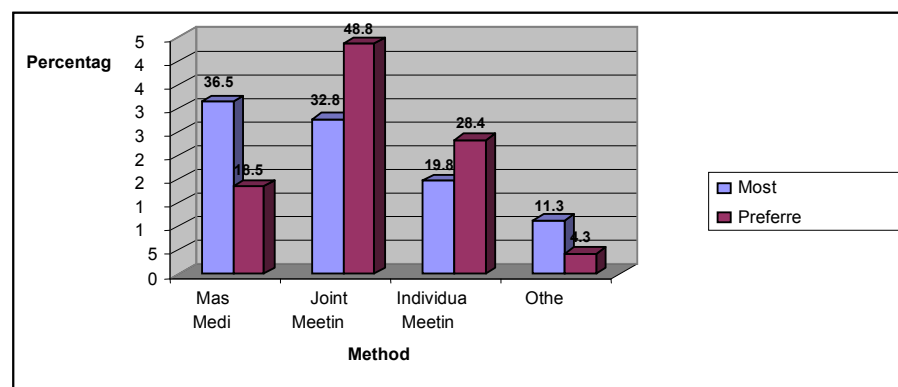
The survey also indicated that the media was playing a significant role in agricultural extension service delivery. More than one in every three households reported the most common method of accessing agricultural extension services as the mass media although only about one in every five households preferred the method. The results further indicated that whereas two in every five households engaged in Fish Farming accessed extension services through the mass media, only one in every five households actually preferred the method.

In general, most households reported preference for meetings with the extension workers (49%) compared to the mass media (18%) as shown in Figure 6.4. Comparing the most common and preferred methods of accessing extension services, the role of the mass media significantly reduced by one half from about 36 percent to nearly 18 percent.

The preference for joint meetings was higher with about 50 percent of households for each of the activities preferring the method. The probable explanation for this could be that in joint meetings, households easily learn from one another through sharing experiences. Joint and individual meetings with the extension worker combined constituted close to 80 percent of the household preferences. The preferred methods of accessing extension services therefore did not necessarily coincide with the most common methods used and this has implications on access to the services.

The most common method was mass media while the majority of HHs preferred joint meetings with the extension workers

Figure 6.4: Percentage Distribution of Households by Most Common and Preferred Forms of Accessing Agricultural Extension Services



6.5.4 Willingness to Pay for Extension Services

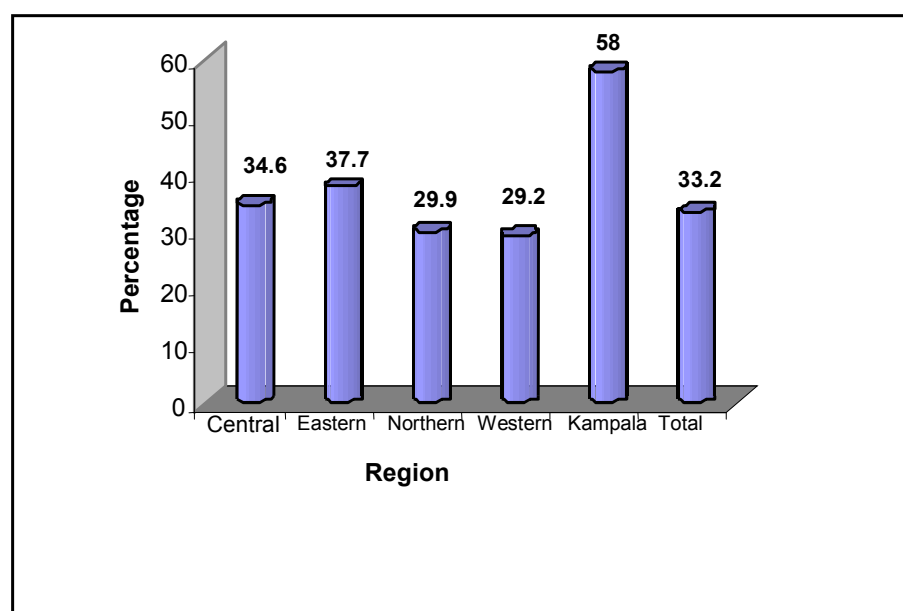
39% of the Households involved in Animal Husbandry were willing to pay for extension services

Generally less than 35 percent of the households indicated that they were willing to pay for the different extension services as shown in Table 6.7 below. Households involved in Animal Husbandry were the most willing (39%) while those engaged in Fish Farming were the least willing (19%).

Table 6.7: Percentage Distribution of Households' Willingness to Pay for Agricultural Extension Services

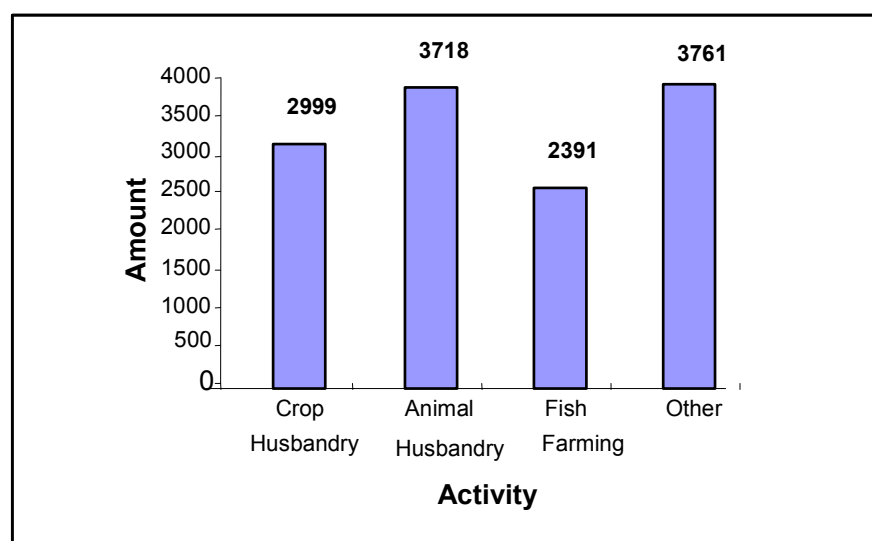
Activity	Willing to pay	Not Willing to pay	Total
Crop Husbandry	33.0	67.0	100.0
Animal Husbandry	38.6	61.4	100.0
Fish Farming	19.3	80.7	100.0
Other	23.8	76.2	100.0
All Activities	33.2	66.8	100.0

A breakdown by region indicates that households in Kampala were most willing to pay. Whereas 53 percent of households indicated their willingness to pay in Kampala, only about 30 percent of households in the northern and western regions were willing to pay as shown in Figure 6.5 below.

Figure 6.5: Percentage Households Willing to Pay for Extension Services by Region

Households that were willing to pay were asked how much money they were willing to pay per visit. The findings indicated that on average households involved in Animal Husbandry were willing to pay up to about Ug. Shs 3,700 per visit while their counterparts in Fish Farming were willing to pay an average of about Ug. Shs 2,400 per visit as shown in Figure 6.6 below.

Figure 6.6: Average Amount Households were Willing to Pay Per Visit by Type of Activity (Ug. Shs)



6.5.5 Payment for Extension Services

Households that received agricultural extension services were asked whether they paid for them and if so how often. Nearly 57 percent of the households that received extension services never paid for them while 30 percent always paid as shown in Table 6.8 below. Whereas more than 75 percent of the households involved in Crop Husbandry and Fish Farming never paid for extension services, only about 29 percent of those engaged in Animal Husbandry never paid. Unlike other activities, the majority of households engaged in Animal Husbandry (71%) paid for their extension services.

Table 6.8: Percentage Distribution of Households by Payment for Extension Service

Activity	Never Paid	Sometimes Paid	Always Paid	Total
Crop Husbandry	75.9	10.7	13.4	100.0
Animal Husbandry	29.1	14.9	56.0	100.0
Fish Farming	83.6	5.6	10.8	100.0
Other	88.2	3.5	8.3	100.0
All Activities	57.3	12.2	30.5	100.0

Households that paid for extension services were asked the purpose of payment. The findings indicated that most households engaged in Fish Farming reported having paid an official fee (82%) as shown in Table 6.9 below. Payment of official fee was least pronounced in Crop Husbandry (44%) but the same activity registered the highest percentage of households that paid a token of appreciation (46%) compared to other activities.

Table 6.9: Percentage Distribution of Households by Payment for Extension Service by Purpose of Payment

Extension Service	Official Fee	Token of Appreciation	Bribe	Other	Total
Crop Husbandry	43.6	46.2	4.9	5.3	100.0
Animal Husbandry	64.0	22.9	7.2	5.9	100.0
Fish Farming	81.8	0.0	18.2	0.0	100.0
Other	35.7	29.4	0.0	34.9	100.0

Payment for services in form of bribes was negligible except for the households involved in Fish Farming where close to 20 percent paid a bribe to receive the service. Although the percentage that paid bribes is low, it still contradicts the policy of the Inspector General of Government's Office where the standard is 'zero tolerance for corruption'. The small percentages therefore are important signals for government action.

6.6 Quality of Extension Services

Quality of extension services is important because it determines the satisfaction households derive from their use. This section discusses the satisfaction households had with agricultural extension services from all sources, the quality of government extension services and how these have changed over time.

6.6.1 Satisfaction with Services

Most households from all regions were satisfied with the services they received from all sources as shown in Table 6.10 below. Nine in every ten households were satisfied with the extension services received except for Kampala where only about two in every three households were satisfied. In addition most households from all the districts were satisfied with the extension services as shown in Annex II Table B 2.13.

Table 6.10: Percentage Distribution of Households by Satisfaction with Extension Services by Source and Region

Activity	Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Total
Source			
Government Official	90.8	9.2	100.0
Private	89.6	10.4	100.0
NGO/CBO	90.8	9.2	100.0
Other	48.4	51.6	100.0
Region			
Central	90.6	9.4	100.0
Eastern	91.0	9.0	100.0
Northern	89.8	10.2	100.0
Western	90.1	9.9	100.0
Kampala	67.6	32.4	100.0
National	90.3	9.7	100.0

9/10 Households were satisfied with the extension services

It is worth noting that households were slightly more satisfied with extension services from government than they were with services from other sources. Further analysis indicated that none of the households in Kampala received extension services from government. Therefore the lowest percentage of households in Kampala that were satisfied with extension services, are those that received services from other sources.

6.6.2 Quality of Government Extension Services

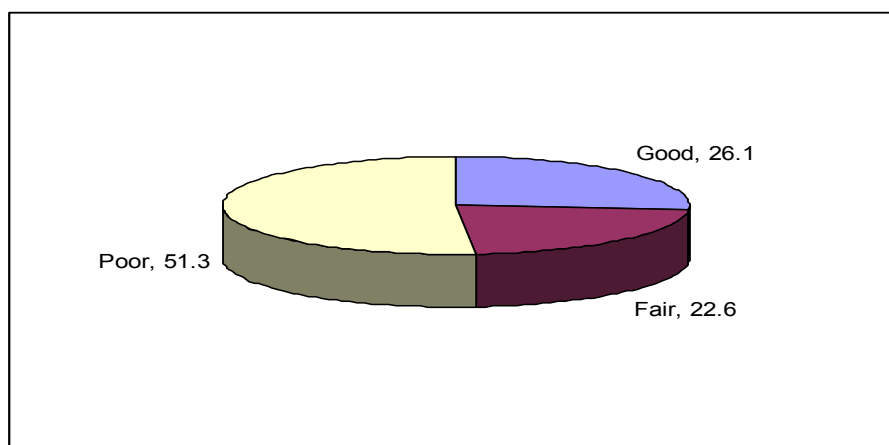
Households were asked to rate the quality of agricultural extension services provided by government officials. Whereas 64 percent of the households involved in Crop Husbandry rated government services as “good”, only about 12 percent rated them as “poor”. The same trend was observed for households involved in Animal Husbandry where about 56 percent indicated that government services were “good” while only about 13 percent rated them as poor as shown in Table 6.11 below.

Table 6.11: Percentage Distribution of Households Rating for the Quality of Government Extension Services

Extension Service	Good	Fair	Poor	Total
Crop Husbandry	64.0	24.3	11.7	100.0
Animal Husbandry	55.6	31.1	13.3	100.0
Fish Farming	26.1	22.6	51.3	100.0
Other	42.7	34.7	22.6	100.0

However, the trend was different for Fish Farming where one in every two households rated government services as “poor” as shown in Figure 6.7 below. Efforts must be made to improve government extension services for fish farming.

Figure 6.7: Percentage Distribution of Households Rating for the Quality of Government Extension Services for Fish Farming



6.6.3 Change in the Quality of Services

Most of the households involved in Crop and Animal Husbandry reported that the services had improved in the two years that preceded the survey as shown in Table 6.12. Whereas about 64 percent of the households involved in Crop Husbandry indicated that the quality of services had improved, only about 6 percent indicated that they had worsened.

In addition, only about 26 percent of the households involved in Fish Farming indicated that there was improvement in the quality of extension services provided by government. Most households involved fish farming indicated that the quality of services had remained the same.

Table 6.12: Percentage Distribution of Households by Change in the Quality of Government Extension Services

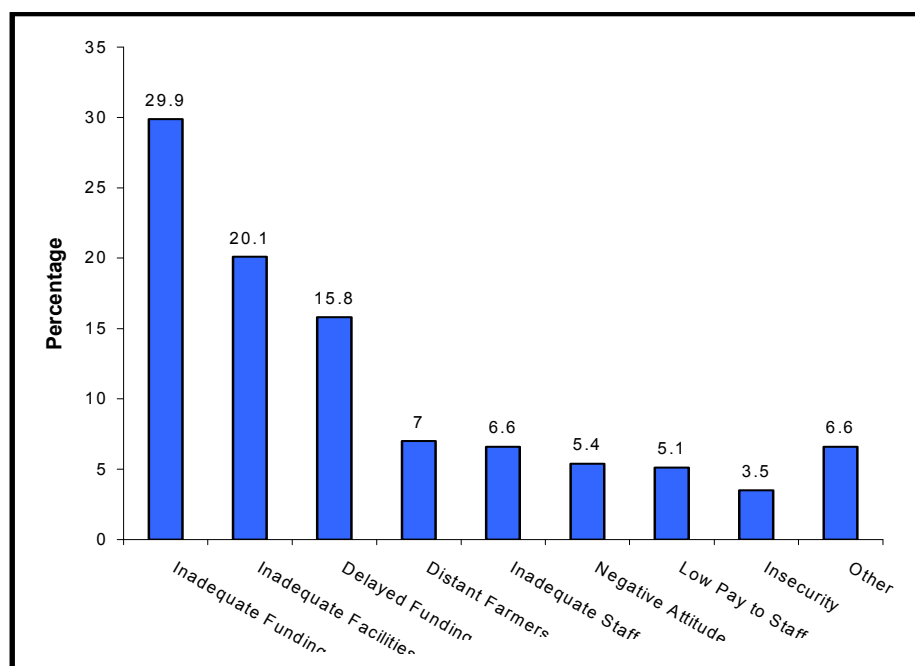
Activity	Improved	Same	Worsened	Total
Crop Husbandry	64.4	29.9	5.7	100.0
Animal Husbandry	54.2	35.7	10.1	100.0
Fish Farming	26.1	57.5	16.4	100.0
Other	55.1	34.8	10.1	100.0

6.6.4 Constraints Faced by Agricultural Extension Workers

Inadequate funding ranked the most serious constraint limiting provision of extension services

Agricultural Extension workers face a number of constraints that hinder them from effectively delivering their services. In the survey, they were asked to rank the constraints they faced in delivery of their services. Only the constraint given as most serious by each of the extension workers was considered. Inadequate funding (30%) and inadequate facilities (20%) were reported by the highest number of extension workers as the most serious constraints affecting their service delivery as shown in Figure 6.8 below.

Other serious constraints included delayed funds, long distances to farmers and inadequate staff. The constraints however varied by district. Annex II Table B 2.15 shows that the districts reporting high percentages for inadequate funding included Kanungu (96.2), Sembabule (70.0%) and Bushenyi (57.9%). Insecurity was a major concern for the service providers in Northern Uganda districts.

Figure 6.8: Percentage Distribution of Extension Workers by the most serious Constraint Faced

There is therefore need for government to increase the funding for agricultural extension to make the extension workers more efficient. Increasing their facilities would also have a positive effect on agricultural extension service delivery.

6.7 Use of Agricultural Inputs

Households that indicated having used at least one input in the 12 months that preceded the survey were asked for the source of the input. From the findings, the highest percentage of households (66%) got agricultural inputs from shops and local vendors apart from artificial insemination inputs which were mostly obtained from Veterinary Officers (58%) as shown in Table 6.13 below.

Markets, Shops & Local vendors were the main input source to the majority 66% of the HHs

Table 6.13: Percentage Distribution of Households by Type of Inputs and Main Source

Input	Agricultural Officers	Agricultural Research Centers	Veterinary Officers	Markets, Shops and Local vendors	Other	Total
Improved Seeds	19.5	6.0	0.4	56.1	18.0	100.0
Hybrid Seeds	17.5	5.5	0.6	65.1	11.3	100.0
Herbicides	9.2	2.8	1.4	82.0	4.6	100.0
Fungicides	8.3	3.0	2.2	82.6	3.9	100.0
Pesticides	7.7	2.7	2.7	79.7	7.2	100.0
Animal Feeds	3.4	1.6	7.7	80.4	6.9	100.0
Veterinary Drugs	5.5	1.0	33.2	57.1	3.2	100.0
Art. Insemination	11.0	3.6	57.8	20.1	7.5	100.0
Other	7.8	1.3	2.2	45.8	42.9	100.0
All Inputs	11.6	3.5	9.7	65.8	9.4	100.0

6.7.1 Quality of Inputs Used

The households that rated the quality of inputs as good were above 70 percent for all the inputs used as shown in Table 6.14 below. The table further shows that the households that rated the quality of inputs as poor were all below five percent.

Table 6.14: Percentage Distribution of Households' Rating for the Quality of Inputs

Input	Good	Fair	Poor	Total
Improved Seeds	73.5	22.3	4.2	100.0
Hybrid Seeds	74.5	22.6	2.9	100.0
Herbicides	76.7	19.3	4.0	100.0
Fungicides	76.1	19.1	4.8	100.0
Pesticides	76.9	19.5	3.6	100.0
Animal Feeds	81.6	17.5	0.9	100.0
Veterinary Drugs	78.6	19.9	1.5	100.0
Artificial Insemination	73.4	20.3	6.3	100.0
Other	85.2	10.6	4.2	100.0
All Inputs	76.3	20.5	3.2	100.0

6.7.2 Change in Access to Inputs

Most households indicated that access to inputs had not changed between 2000 and 2004. More than three in every five households indicated that the access to modern input had remained the same as illustrated in Table 6.15. However, one in every ten households indicated that the quality of inputs had worsened irrespective of the type of input.

Table 6.15: Percentage Distribution of Households Rating for Change in Access to Inputs

Input	Improved	Same	Worsened	Total
Improved Seeds	8.2	78.0	13.8	100.0
Hybrid Seeds	8.2	78.2	13.6	100.0
Herbicides	7.7	78.4	13.9	100.0
Fungicides	7.7	78.1	14.2	100.0
Pesticides	8.3	77.3	14.4	100.0
Animal Feeds	8.2	79.0	12.8	100.0
Veterinary Drugs	7.1	79.2	13.7	100.0
Artificial Insemination	7.2	79.5	13.3	100.0
Other	7.1	78.4	14.5	100.0
All Inputs	7.8	78.5	13.7	100.0

6.7.3 Source of Market Information for Inputs

Within the framework of PMA, it is envisaged that the process of modernizing agriculture will among other ways be achieved through access to information on inputs. Table 6.16 shows the source of market information for each of the inputs. More than four in every five households received market information for inputs either through Radios or other farmers. The LC System

however also played some role with more than one in every ten households getting market information from the LC officials.

Table 6.16: Percentage Distribution of Households by Type of Inputs by Source of Market Information

Input	Radio	LC Officials	Other Farmers	Other	Total
Improved Seeds	38.9	12.4	43.8	4.9	100.0
Hybrid Seeds	39.9	12.0	42.6	5.5	100.0
Herbicides	40.8	11.6	41.6	6.0	100.0
Fungicides	40.1	11.3	42.9	5.7	100.0
Pesticides	38.8	11.4	44.6	5.2	100.0
Animal Feeds	41.0	11.6	41.6	5.8	100.0
Veterinary Drugs	37.2	13.1	43.9	5.8	100.0
Artificial Insemination	41.5	12.3	39.5	6.7	100.0
Other	30.8	10.6	51.5	7.1	100.0

6.8 Plan for Modernization of Agriculture

The government has focused on improving the production, competitiveness and incomes in the country through the Plan for Modernization of Agriculture (PMA). This plan extends beyond agriculture to other sectors. The government has identified more strategic approaches to enhance the provision of public goods for agricultural production.

About 60% of the HHs involved in agriculture had never heard about PMA

This is specifically in the areas of agricultural extension, research and technology development, marketing and preservation of the natural resource base. During the survey, households were asked whether they had ever heard about PMA. Findings indicated that about 60 percent had never heard about PMA and the differences across regions were insignificant as shown in Table 6.17 below. The situation was however different across districts. The findings show that of the households that were involved in any agricultural activity less than 50 percent had heard about PMA as indicated in Annex II Table B 2.14. The high percentage for Pader District is however attributed to the small number of households involved in agricultural activities.

Table 6.17: Percentage Distribution of Households' Knowledge about PMA by Region

Region	Yes	No	Total
Central	37.8	62.2	100.0
Eastern	41.6	58.4	100.0
Northern	41.4	58.6	100.0
Western	40.0	60.0	100.0
Kampala	40.3	59.7	100.0
Uganda	40.2	59.8	100.0

The households that had heard about PMA, were asked whether they had heard about training, advocacy or marketing as major components of the programme. Most households indicated having heard about at least one of the activities as shown in Table 6.18 below.

Table 6.18: Percentage Distribution of Households that Had Heard about PMA Activities by Region

Region	All Activities	At least two Activities	At least One Activity	None of the Three Activities	Total
Central	0.7	13.1	72.9	13.3	100.0
Eastern	3.9	11.2	74.6	10.2	100.0
Northern	6.8	19.3	69.2	4.7	100.0
Western	3.6	16.0	73.1	7.3	100.0
Kampala	13.8	0.0	86.2	0.0	100.0
National	3.6	14.4	72.9	9.1	100.0

The PMA activities listed above complement one another. Apart from Kampala with about 14 percent, the rest of the regions had a very small percentage of households that had heard about PMA through all the activities. It is also worth noting that despite the central region being nearest Kampala, it had the least percentage of households that had heard about PMA through all the activities (0.7%). However, at national level, only a small percentage of households had not heard about all the activities (9%).

6.9 Conclusion

Most households were involved in agricultural activities yet there was limited demand for agricultural extension services. This therefore calls for intensified sensitization about the availability and importance of utilizing these services.

Whereas government made efforts to deploy an extension worker in every sub county to offer free extension services, they were rarely seen by the households. It should be noted that households tend to remember use of extension workers when they actually see them. The more they visit their respective communities to advise them, the more the households will be attracted to use their services. Efforts should therefore be made to encourage extension workers to visit their farmers more regularly.

Government extension services are supposed to be free. However, due to limited facilitation, most extension workers find it difficult to reach everybody in their area of operation. Households are therefore tempted to facilitate them in order to receive the services. A number of households indicated that they were satisfied with the quality of extension services they received and were also willing to pay for them.

Agricultural Extension services are critical in increasing productivity in the agricultural sector. Efforts must be put in place to increase the facilitation of the extension workers to overcome the

constraints that they face in service delivery. More market information about the use of improved inputs should also be extended to the households to increase agricultural productivity. This will go a long way in overcoming some of the structural weaknesses that exist in the agricultural sector.

TRANSPORT SERVICES

7.1 Introduction

Road infrastructure is important for the easy movement of people and commodities. Good road network that is well maintained is an important prerequisite to socio-economic development of a country. The Government of Uganda attaches great importance to the development of road infrastructure. The Government therefore put in place a 10-year Road Sector Development Programme (RSDP) for sustainable development and maintenance of the country's national road network. The programme includes the development of district, urban and community Access roads.

In the era of decentralization Government has endeavoured to allocate resources from the Poverty Action Fund (PAF) to districts for the development and maintenance of feeder roads. Feeder roads also get substantial allocation from projects like the Local Government Development Programme (LGDP). Furthermore Government has endeavoured to establish regional basic road construction units where machinery can be accessed by the various districts and eventually by the lower local governments.

The Survey included questions about road infrastructure and water transport services. On road infrastructure questions were asked about access, state, repairs and maintenance of roads.

Roads were graded into four categories: trunk road tarmac, trunk road murram, feeder road and community road. Trunk roads are main roads maintained by the central government and normally connect one district to others. Feeder roads are major roads joining trunk roads and are usually maintained by district authorities. Community roads are roads connecting villages and are normally maintained by the communities themselves.

In regard to water transport, the survey sought information on frequency of water transport use by a household member and the provider of the water transport and types of water transport payments.

7.2 Access to Road Infrastructure

This section is about the nearest access road to a household, usability of roads, road maintenance and constraints. It also investigates the construction of new road infrastructure and the constraints experienced.

7.2.1 Nearest Road to Household

Respondents were asked to name the nearest road to their households. Table 7.1a shows the percentage distribution of households by type of nearest road and residence. Overall, about 46 percent of the households reported community road as the nearest while only 10 percent of the households reported trunk tarmac road as the nearest.

Over 1/2 of the Households in the rural areas reported community roads as nearest

In the rural area about 55 percent of the households reported a community road as the nearest while one in every three households reported feeder road as the nearest. In the urban area, the biggest percentage (32.3%) of the households reported feeder road as the nearest. Twice as many households in rural areas reported community roads as nearest road compared to urban areas.

Table 7.1a: Percentage Distribution of Households by Type of the Nearest Road by Residence

Type of road	Rural	Urban	National
Trunk tarmac	3.8	23.0	10.2
Trunk murram	12.6	16.1	13.8
Feeder road	29.1	32.3	30.2
Community road	54.5	28.6	45.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 7.1b shows the percentage distribution of households by nearest road by region. The table shows that still the majority of the respondents indicated community road as the nearest, followed by feeder road. The differentials were found between northern and other regions where about twice the households reported trunk murram road as the nearest by the former. The number of respondents who reported community road as the nearest were still fewer in the north compared to other regions. Of those who reported trunk tarmac road as the nearest, northern and western regions had fewer percentages.

Table 7.1b: Percentage Distribution of Households by Type of the Nearest Road by Region

Region	Trunk road (tarmac)	Trunk road (murram)	Feeder road	Community road	Total
Central	12.9	10.7	30.7	45.8	100.0
Eastern	10.1	10.7	28.8	50.4	100.0
Nothern	7.8	23.2	29.0	39.9	100.0
Western	7.3	12.1	31.7	49.0	100.0
Kampala	18.6	14.2	32.0	35.2	100.0
Uganda	10.2	13.8	30.2	45.9	100.0

7.2.2 Distance to Nearest Road

The majority of the Households were less than 1km from the nearest road

Information was also sought about the average distance to the nearest road. The survey findings revealed that the majority of the households (84.6%) were less than 1 km away from the nearest road for all types of roads (Table 7.2).

Table 7.2: Percentage Distribution of Households by Average Distance (Km) from Households to the Nearest Road by Type of Road

Type of Road	Distance in Km				Total
	Less than 1km	1-<5km	5-<10km	10km and above	
Trunk road tarmac	92.7	6.8	00.0	0.5	100
Trunk road murram	81.2	16.5	1.5	0.8	100
Feeder road	83.2	14.9	1.2	0.7	100
Community Road	84.7	13.6	1.0	0.7	100
Total	84.6	13.7	1.0	0.7	100

Table 7.3 shows the mean distance to the nearest road. The overall mean distance to nearest road was about 1km. The rural urban distribution was 1.13 and 0.5 km, respectively. Note that the mean distance to a community road was 1 km while the mean distance to a feeder road was less than a km. This implies probably that there is a good network of feeder roads in the country.

Table 7.3: Mean Distance (Km) to the Nearest Road by type of Road by Residence

Type of Road	Rural	Urban	National
Trunk road Tarmac	2.50	0.45	0.96
Trunk road murram	1.04	0.51	0.83
Feeder road	0.81	0.71	0.78
Community Road	1.22	0.35	1.04
Total	1.13	0.51	0.92

7.2.3 Households reporting Usability of Nearest Road all Year Round

Over 3/4 of the Households indicated usability of the nearest road all year round

Table 7.4 below shows the percentage distribution of households according to all year-round usability of the nearest road. More than three quarters of the households indicated usability of the nearest road all year round. Trunk tarmac roads were reported to be useable all year round as reported by 96 percent of the households. However all year-round usability of community roads was reported by only 67 percent of the households.

Table 7.4: Percentage Distribution of Households Reporting All Year-Round Usability of the Nearest Road

Type of Road	All Year Usability of Road		Total
	Yes	No	
Trunk road Tarmac	96.2	3.8	100
Trunk road murrum	86.7	13.3	100
Feeder road	80.5	19.5	100
Community Road	66.8	33.2	100
Total	76.7	23.3	100

7.3 State of Roads

The survey solicited information from household heads on the general state of roads in their areas. This information was backed by information from sub-county authorities (mainly sub-county chiefs) as service providers and supervisors of implementation of government programmes in the sub-counties.

7.3.1 Constraints Experienced when Using Roads

Household heads were asked to mention the major constraint found when using the roads in their areas. The survey findings revealed that the major constraint experienced while using the roads was poor maintenance (38.7%) followed by bad weather (24.0%) as shown in Table 7.5 below. The above factors were more pronounced on community roads where the percentages were about 45 and 35 respectively. Insecurity was reported by only 6 percent of the households. Slightly more than a quarter (26.7%) of the respondents however, reported *no constraint*

District differentials were found when considering feeder roads only (see Annex Table B 2.16). The biggest percentage of households reporting poor road maintenance was in Kiboga District where about 86 percent of the households reported this constraint. The lowest percentage was in Pader District (4.6%). However the most important constraint reported in Pader District was insecurity as reported by about 88 percent of the households.

Table 7.5: Percentage Distribution of Households by Major Constraints Met when Using Roads

Type of Road	Major Constraints					Total
	None	Bad Weather	Poor road maintenance	Insecurity	Other	
Trunk road tarmac	57.1	3.9	22.3	7.0	9.8	100.0
Trunk road murrum	28.6	20.7	38.7	7.7	4.3	100.0
Feeder road	18.4	29.0	43.8	5.9	2.9	100.0
Community road	13.3	35.1	44.6	5.2	1.7	100.0
All Roads	26.7	24.0	38.7	6.3	4.2	100.0

Information from households was backed by information from service providers who were sub-county authorities (Table 7.6)

50% of the sub-county authorities said roads and bridges were in a usable state

Half of the sub-county authorities reported the roads to be in a usable state, about one fifth said they were in a good state and over one quarter (28%) in a poor state. Feeder roads were better than community roads. More than fifty percent of the respondents said that bridges and culvert crossings were in a usable state. Community roads were most poorly maintained as reported by, more than a half (51.0%) of the respondents.

Table 7.6: Percentage Distribution of Respondents by State of Road/Bridge/Culvert Crossings and Type

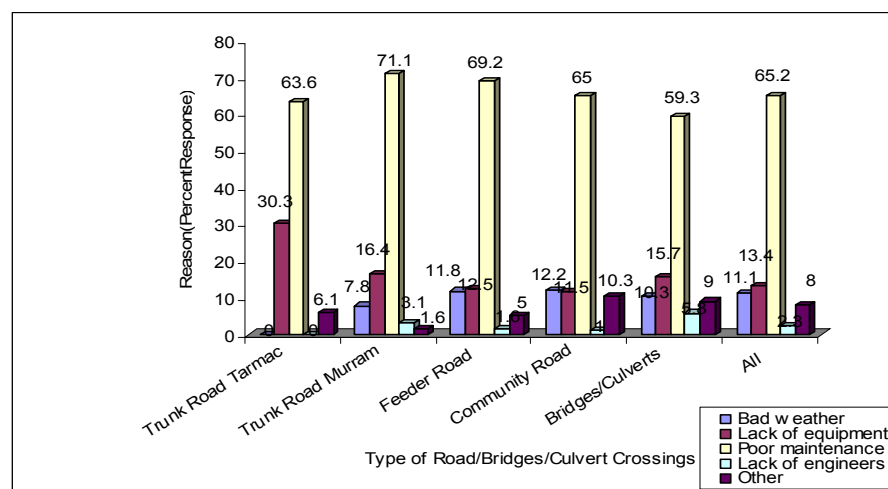
Type of road/bridge/culvert	Current Status			Total
	Good	Usable	Poor	
Trunk road tarmac	71.4	22.3	6.3	100.0
Trunk road murram	29.6	56.0	14.4	100.0
Feeder roads	16.6	59.9	23.5	100.0
Community roads	3.2	45.8	51.0	100.0
Bridges/culvert crossings	21.8	51.1	27.1	100.0
Total	22.0	50.0	28.0	100.0

7.3.2 Reason for Poor State of Roads

Poor road maintenance was the most important reason for the poor state of roads

Sub-county authorities (service providers) were in support of the findings from household respondents (Figure 7.1). Poor maintenance (65.2%) was the most important reason given for the poor state of roads followed by lack of equipment and then bad weather. It is important to note that in most districts, maintenance of feeder roads is done by tendering which is under the jurisdiction of the District Tender Board and the supervision is done by the District Engineer.

Figure 7.1: Main Reason for Poor State of Roads

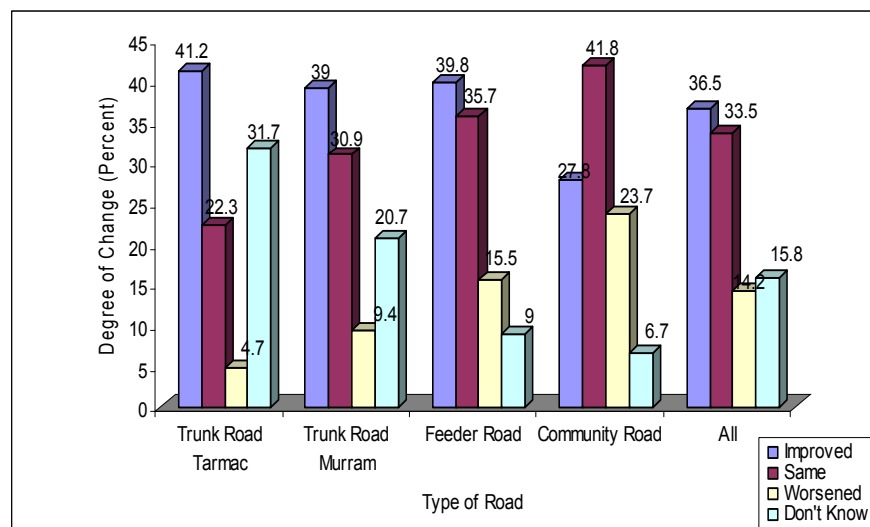


7.3.3 Change in Maintenance of Roads in the Last 2 Years

Household heads were also asked to give an impression about the change in maintenance of roads in their communities, during the two years preceding the survey. Apart from community roads where the situation had remained the same (41.8%), overall road maintenance had improved over the last 2 years (36.5%) as shown in Figure 7.2 below. More than one fifth of the respondents reported that maintenance of community roads had worsened (23.7%).

Road maintenance improved in the 2 years preceding the survey but community roads remained the same or worsened in some areas

Figure 7.2: Change in Road Maintenance in the Two Years Preceding the Survey



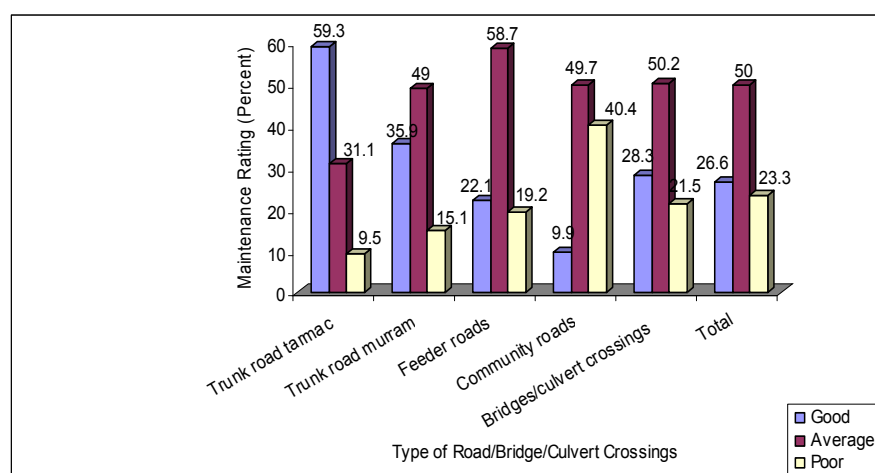
7.3.4 Quality of Construction, Maintenance and Repair of Roads, Bridges and Culvert Crossings

The quality of construction and maintenance of road infrastructure influences the state of roads. Ministry of Works, Housing and Communication is responsible for trunk roads, districts are usually responsible for feeder roads while sub-counties are usually responsible for community roads. Sub-counties are also partly responsible for feeder roads. The local communities should be responsible for community roads. Most of the work is done under the tendering system

1/2 of the Sub-county authorities said the quality of road maintenance was average

Questions on quality of maintenance were also asked. Survey findings showed that a half of the respondents said quality of maintenance was average while about one quarter said good and poor equally (Figure 7.4). Forty percent of the respondents however reported that community roads were poorly maintained.

Figure 7.3: Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Quality of Maintenance and Type of Road/Bridge/Culvert Crossings



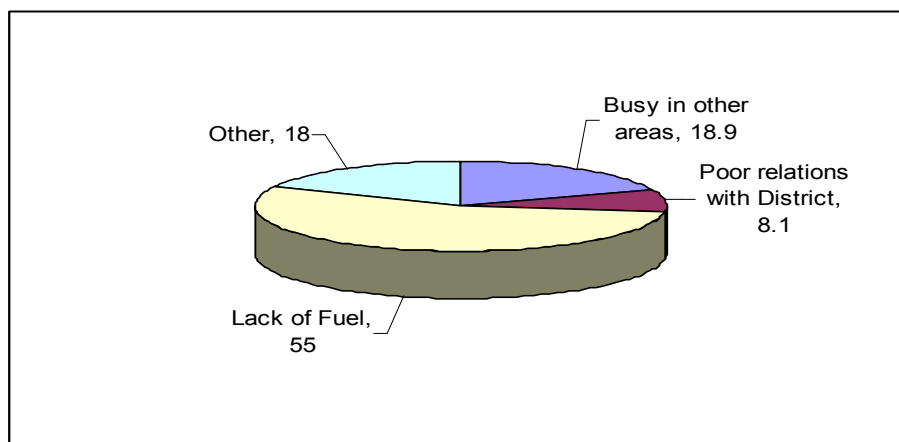
7.3.5 Possession of Minimum Road Equipment

3/4 of the Sub-counties reported lack of fuel and limited access to the equipment

Sub-county authorities were asked whether their districts had the minimum road equipment (grader, wheel loader and tipper). Survey findings revealed that about three quarters of the districts had the minimum road maintenance equipment and about 70 percent of the sub-counties had access to this road equipment. Of those sub-counties which could not access the equipment, more than a half (55%) indicated lack of fuel as the major reason (Figure 7.3). Other reasons given included the machinery being busy in other areas (18.9%) poor relations with the district (8.1%) and other reasons (18%).

While several districts were reported to be having the minimum road equipment, all the respondents (100%) in the districts of Kalangala, Mayuge, Pader, Yumbe and Kamwenge said that their districts did not have the minimum road equipment (Table B 2.18 Annex II). Regarding reasons for sub-counties not accessing the road equipment, all respondents (100%) in the districts of Kiboga, Moroto, Moyo, Kabale, Masindi, Ntungamo, Rukungiri and Kanungu said that the biggest problem was lack of fuel (Annex II Table B 2.19).

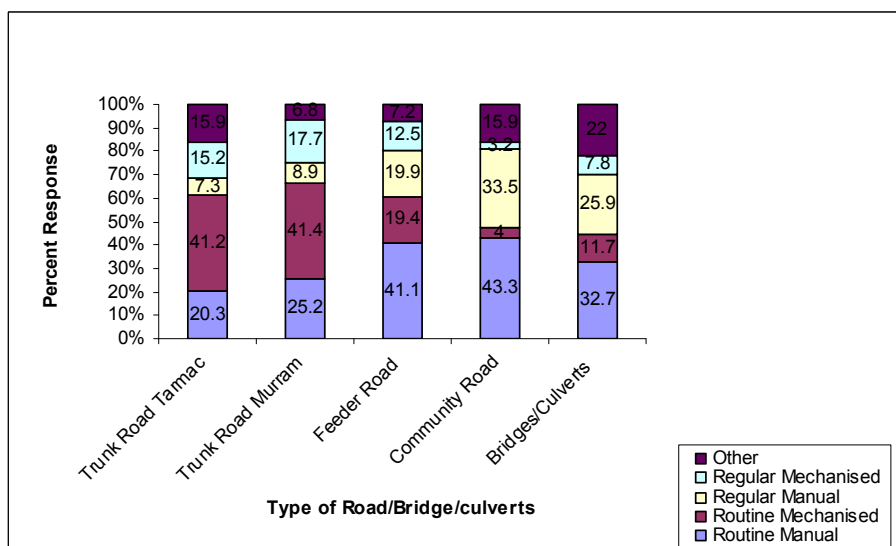
Figure 7.4: Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Reason why Sub-County could not Access Road Equipment from District



7.3.6 Frequency of Repairs

Frequency of repairing roads was considered under the four conventional methods of road repair. These were: routine manual, routine mechanized, regular manual and regular mechanized (Figure 7.5). Routine manual and routine mechanised were the most important modes of road maintenance. Routine mechanized was important only for trunk roads while regular manual was important for feeder roads, community roads and bridges and culvert crossings.

Figure 7.5: Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Frequency of Repair by Type of Road and Bridge/Culvert Crossing



7.3.7 Constraints Faced in Maintenance and Repair of Roads

Inadequate funding
the most serious
constraint faced in
maintenance and
repair of roads.

The survey investigated constraints that had hindered maintenance and repair of roads. These included delayed remittance of funds, inadequate facilities, wide road network, lack of people's interest, inadequate funding, low pay to staff and insecurity. The constraints were ranked as most serious, serious and least serious (Table 7.7). Considering the most serious constraint, inadequate funding was reported as the major constraint (49%) followed by inadequate facilities (27%). Low pay to staff was not seen as a serious constraint, as it was reported by only less than one percent of the respondents.

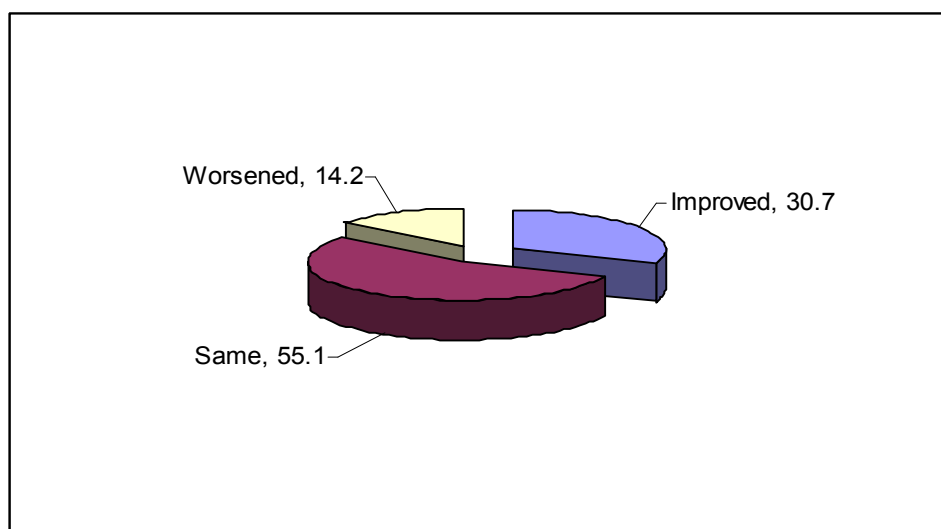
District differentials were found regarding inadequate funding (Annex Table B 2.17). All the sub-county authorities in Kanungu District reported this constraint while it was reported by none in Lira District. However, about 64 percent of the sub-county authorities in Lira District reported delayed remittance of funds (a similar constraint) as the most serious.

Table 7.7: Percentage Distribution of Constraints to Maintenance and Repair of Roads by Degree Seriousness

Constraints	Order of ranking		
	Most serious	Serious	Least serious
Delayed remittance of funds	17.1	15.4	15.3
Inadequate facilities	16.6	31.7	26.6
Inadequate staff	2.2	7.4	12.6
Wide road network	3.4	10.0	12.0
Lack of people's interest	4.8	8.6	8.0
Inadequate funding	48.9	19.5	11.8
Low pay to staff	.5	1.7	4.0
Insecurity	3.2	2.1	3.0
Other	3.2	3.6	6.7
Group Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Survey findings indicated that most constraints faced have remained the same as illustrated in Figure 7.6 below. The results showed that more than a half of the respondents said that there had been no change in the constraints during the 2 years preceding the survey while only 14 percent said the situation had worsened.

Figure 7.6: Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Change in Constraints Faced in Maintenance Repair of Roads in the 2 Years Previous to the Survey



7.4 Construction of New Road Infrastructure

No new road had been constructed in most Sub-counties during the 2 years previous to the survey

When the sub-county authorities were asked whether any road had been constructed in their area during the two years preceding the survey, nearly 61 percent indicated no road or bridge had been constructed (Table 7.8).

Regarding feeder and community roads, more than a half of the respondents indicated that no new road construction had taken place for either type of road. More than 80 percent indicated no trunk road had been constructed.

Table 7.8: Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Construction of New Road by Type of Road, Bridge/Culvert Crossings

Type of Road/Bridge/Culvert Crossing	Construction of Road/Bridge/Culvert Crossing		Total
	Yes	No	
Trunk Tarmac	10.9	89.1	100
Trunk murrum	15.6	84.4	100
Feeder road	38.0	62.0	100
Community road	49.1	50.9	100
Bridges/Culvert Crossings	60.3	39.7	100
Total	39.3	60.7	100

Table 7.9 shows the percentage distribution of respondents that reported road construction by length of road and type constructed in the two years proceeding to the Survey. For all types of road, one half of the respondents indicated that less than 10km of new roads had been constructed in the last two years. Only one quarter of the respondents indicated that for all types

of road, 10 to 20 km of new roads had been constructed in the sub-counties. The results therefore show little road construction work during the 2 years preceding the survey.

Table 7.9: Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Length of Road Constructed by Type of Road

Type of Road	Length of Road constructed					Total
	Less than 10km	10 to 20km	20 to 30km	30 to 50km	50km and more	
Trunk road tarmac	67.9	28.3	3.8	0.0	0.0	100.0
Trunk road murram	59.7	25.6	10.1	3.1	1.6	100.0
Feeder roads	54.2	21.3	12.6	7.0	4.9	100.0
Community roads	53.8	24.0	7.4	7.8	6.9	100.0
Total	55.2	23.4	9.5	6.6	5.3	100.0

Lack of funds was the most important factor for not constructing new roads

Lack of funds, reported by 68 percent of the respondents, was the single most important reason for not constructing new roads, bridges and culvert crossings (Table 7.10). However, about one fifth of the respondents (19.8%) said there was no need for constructing new road infrastructure.

Table 7.10: Reason for not Constructing a New Road/Bridge by Type of Road /Bridge/ Culvert (Percent)

Type of Road/bridge/culvert	Reason					Total
	No need	Lack of funds	Lack of equipment	Insecurity	Other	
Trunk road tarmac	46.3	43.7	2.3	0.0	7.7	100.0
Trunk road murram	24.1	64.1	4.0	2.0	5.7	100.0
Feeder roads	11.8	75.9	6.5	1.9	3.9	100.0
Community roads	12.1	74.1	5.8	3.7	4.3	100.0
Bridges/culvert crossings	12.9	76.6	4.7	2.5	3.3	100.0
Total	19.8	68.3	4.9	2.1	4.9	100.0

7.5 Water Transport

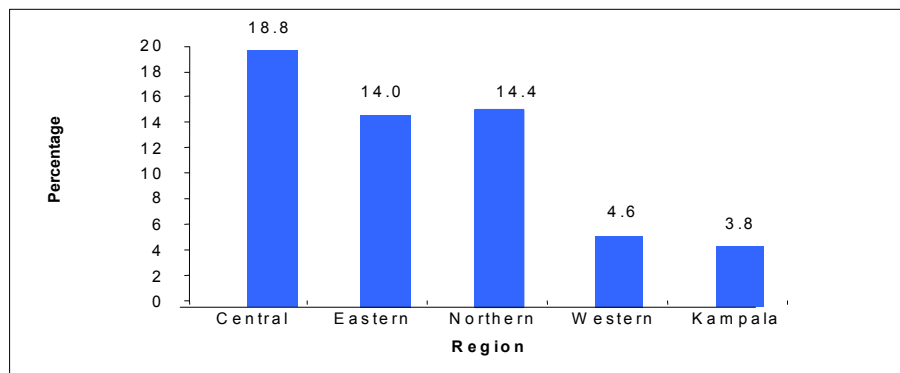
Water transport is an important means of transport in Uganda since the country has many water bodies. In the survey, household heads were asked how often a member of the household had used water transport during the last two years preceding to the survey.

7.5.1 Households Using Water Transport

Only 12% of the HHs used water transport.

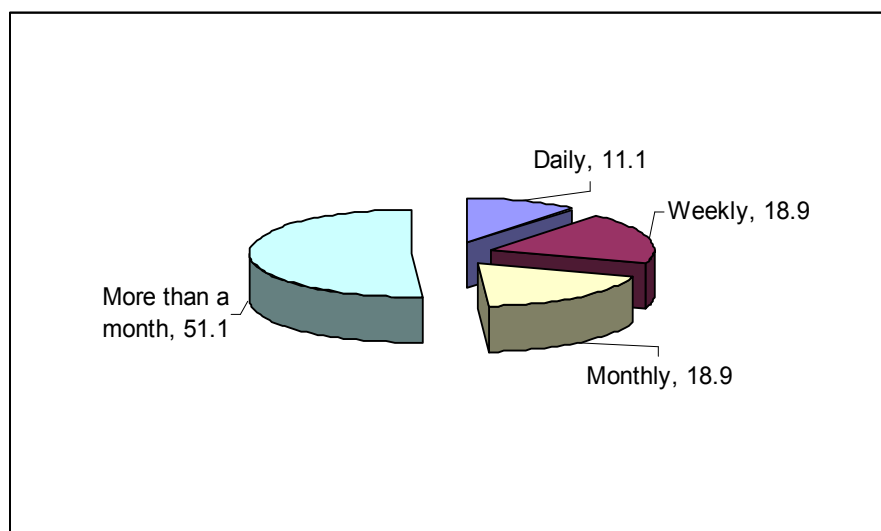
Only 10 percent of the households reported using water transport during the two years preceding the survey. Figure 7.7 below shows the percentage distribution of households who had used water transport by region. The findings showed that of those who reported having used water transport, the majority were from Central Region (18.8%). The second biggest percentage (14.4%) came from Northern while the least came from Kampala District (3.8%).

Figure 7.7: Percentage Distribution of Households that had used Water Transport During two Years Preceding the Survey by Region



Use of water transport was not so frequent. Only 11 percent of the households reported daily use. One half of the households used water transport less frequently, once in more than a month (Figure 7.8).

Figure 7.8: Percentage Distribution of Households by Frequency of Using Water Transport



Most of the households said that water transport was intra-district (41%) and inter-district (43%). Outside district water transport was reported by only 15 percent of the respondents (see Table 7.11 below).

Table 7.11 Percentage Distribution of Households by Location of Water Transport

Location	Percent (%)
Within District	41.4
Between District and Neighbouring District	43.4
Outside District	15.2
Total	100.0

7.5.2 Major Provider of Water Transport

The private sector was the major provider of water transport

Respondents were asked to indicate the major providers of boat and ferry transport. The findings showed that private people provided mostly boat transport (91.8%) while government was the major provider of ferry transport (85.8%) as shown in Table 7.12 below. Overall, private providers (76.4%) were more dominant than government (23.6%) in providing water transport.

Table 7.12: Type of Water Transport by Major Provider

Type of Water Transport	Major Provider		Total
	Government	Private	
Boats	8.2	91.8	100.0
Ferry	85.8	14.2	100.0
Other	13.5	86.5	100.0
Total	23.6	76.4	100.0

7.5.3 Payment for Water Transport Provided by the Government

Most people did not pay for ferry transport

Ferry transport of which government was the major provider, was mainly not paid for as reported by 82 percent of the households, while boat transport was paid for (83.3%). Government policy states that ferry transport is not to be paid for. Other types of transport were paid for by 58 percent of the households. Overall, 66 percent of the households did not pay for water transport services. (see Table 7.13 below).

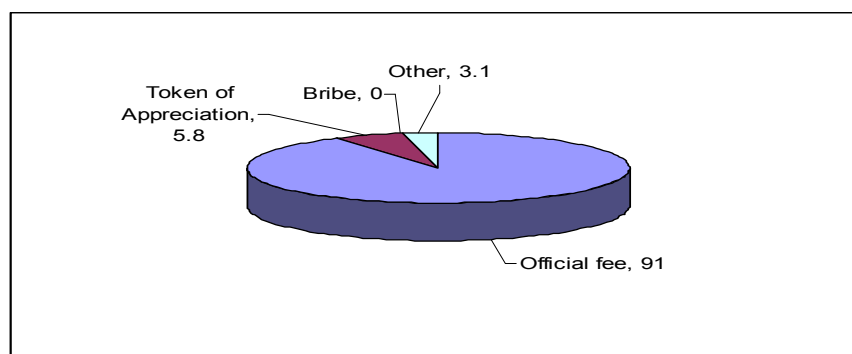
Table 7.13: Type of Water Transport by Payment for the Water Transport Service

Type of Water Transport	Payment for the Water Transport Service		Total
	Yes	No	
Boats	83.3	16.7	100.0
Ferry	18.2	81.8	100.0
Other	58.4	41.6	100.0
Total	34.5	65.5	100.0

Respondents who made payment for water transport were asked to indicate purpose of payment. Payments were classified as official fees, token of appreciation, bribe and *other*. Figure 7.9 illustrates the type of payment made while using government water transport (ferry). The majority

of the respondents (91.0%) said that the payments made were largely official. Bribery was non-existent and only 6 percent of the households had paid a 'token of appreciation'.

Figure 7.9: Percentage Distribution of Households by Purpose of Payment for Ferry Transport



7.5.4 Satisfaction with Water Transport Provided by Government

Over 3/4 of the HHs were satisfied with public water transport

Respondents were asked to indicate whether they were satisfied with water transport services provided by government. Overall more than three quarters (77%) of the households were satisfied with water transport, while about one quarter (24%) was not (see Table 7.14). Regarding types of water transport, 79 percent of the households were satisfied with ferry which was the major public water transport, while about 69 percent were satisfied with boat transport.

Table 7.14: Percentage Distribution of Households Satisfied By Type of Water Transport Provided by Government

Type of Water Transport	Percentage of Households Satisfied		Total
	Yes	No	
Boats	68.7	31.3	100.0
Ferry	79.1	20.9	100.0
Other	100.0	0.0	100.0
Total	76.8	32.2	100.0

7.5.5 Constraints Faced in Using Water Transport

Unreliability and bad weather were the major constraints to using water transport

Table 7.15 shows the constraints found in using water transport. The major constraints faced while using public water transport were unreliability (43.6%) and bad weather (33.4%). The constraint of bad weather could be associated with poor water transport infrastructures like poor state of transport vessels, lack of navigation facilities and poor landing sites. The other minor constraints mentioned were high costs (5.8%) and insecurity (5.1 %).

Table 7.15: Percentage Distribution of Households by Type of Water Transport and Constraints Faced

Type of Water Transport	Constraints Faced					Total
	Bad Weather	Unreliable	High Costs	Insecurity	Other	
Boats	46.1	26.9	17.1	3.8	6.2	100.0
Ferry	28.4	49.7	1.9	5.6	14.4	100.0
Other	84.3	15.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Total	33.4	43.6	5.8	5.1	12.2	100.0

7.5.6 Change in Provision of Water Transport

About 61 percent of the households said that there had been improvement in provision of ferry transport (government being major provider), during the two years preceding the survey, as shown in Table 7.16 below. More than one third (35%) of the households reported no change with this type of transport. Regarding boat transport, about 60 percent of the households indicated no change, only 32 percent mentioned improvement. Overall, slightly more than a half of the households (54%) said there had been improvement in the two years, preceding the survey and only about 5 percent said the situation had worsened.

Table 7.16: Change in Provision of Water Transport by Government

Type of Water Transport	Change in the Last 2 Years			Total
	Improved	Same	Worsened	
Boats	32.3	59.8	7.8	100.0
Ferry	60.7	35.4	3.9	100.0
Other	15.7	84.3	0.0	100.0
Total	53.8	41.4	4.8	100.0

7.7 Conclusion and Policy Recommendations

This chapter has dealt with road infrastructure and water transport. Survey findings indicated that generally the road infrastructure in the country was fairly good and generally usable all the year round. While most of the households were less than 1 km from the nearest road, maintenance of the road infrastructure was poor. The major constraints included poor maintenance and bad weather. The poor maintenance was possibly due to delayed remittance of funds, inadequate funding and lack of equipment as reported by sub-county authorities. It could also be due to poor methods of work which include the tender system. As a result the quality of road maintenance was reported to be average. Also, lack of funds was given as a major constraint to the construction of new roads and bridges.

Regarding change in constraints in maintenance and repair of roads during the two years previous to the survey, the majority of the respondents indicated that the situation had remained the same.

About one tenth of the households in the country were using water transport. The water transport was mainly intra- and inter-district. The ferry was the most important means of government water transport while boats mainly belonged to private people. Its services were however unreliable. Bad weather was also mentioned as a constraint in the use of water transport. Bribery in water transport was almost non-existent. It was found out that ferry transport had improved while boat transport had remained the same

The above findings therefore indicate that while the road network in the country is fairly good, maintenance leaves a lot to be desired. More funds are needed for timely maintenance and repair of roads. Methods of work in road maintenance may need to be revised. In particular, the tender system could be responsible for the reported alarming poor maintenance of roads. As regards water transport, government should invest more funds in ferry services to make them more reliable. Also, safety measures to mitigate the hazards of bad weather should be instituted. These could include provision of navigation facilities and instituting strict standards to make the water transport vessels *seaworthy*. More funds should be allocated to the responsible authorities to be able to improve on ferry transport and water transport infrastructure like landing sites. Water transport improvement programmes should be planned in a way that will help improve the conditions of private providers of water transport.

OTHER SERVICE DELIVERY ISSUES

8.1 Introduction

Local governments get funds under various programmes to implement projects. The Survey included questions seeking to get impressions of household heads regarding project implementation in their areas. Firstly impressions on the nine projects considered most important were sought. The respondents were also asked to name projects that had been implemented in their area during the two years that preceded the survey. Furthermore the respondents were to indicate how much any household member had benefited from such projects. Finally they were to name the implementer of the projects in their community. Sub-county authorities were also required to give their views on project implementation in their sub-counties.

8.2 Projects Considered Most Important

Agriculture-related projects ranked lowest in importance

Table 8.1 below shows a list of the nine projects considered most important by respondents, according to survey findings. Provision of water was considered most important by 46 percent of the households followed by construction of health units (11.4%). These were followed by new school construction, road infrastructure rehabilitation and electrification. It is important to note that agriculture-related projects ranked least in importance. Analysis at district level shows that water and sanitation projects were ranked highest in most districts (Annex II Table B 2.20). The highest percentage (81.3%) was reported in Kotido District. Generally the northern region considered water and sanitation projects as most important.

Table 8.1: Percentage Distribution of Households by the Nine Projects Considered Most Important

	Project	Percent
1	Water provision	46.3
2	Health Unit Construction	11.4
3	New school construction	6.4
4	Road or bridge rehabilitation	6.0
5	Electrification	4.5
6	Livestock improvement/restocking/breeding	3.7
7	New roads	3.2
8	Introduction of new crops or improved varieties	2.7
9	Introduction of improved agric techniques	2.6
	<i>Others</i>	13.2
Total		100.0

8.3 Projects Implemented

Most Households indicated no projects implementation in last three

Table 8.2 shows the percentage distribution of respondents by whether a project was implemented in the area or not, during the three years previous to the survey. Findings revealed that, overall, about 67 percent of the households indicated no project implemented while only one quarter (25.6%) indicated a project was implemented. Apart from water provision (51.2%), classroom construction (53.1%) and road/bridge rehabilitation (45.4%), the majority of the households indicated that other projects had not been implemented in their areas. It must be emphasized that the central and local governments featured badly in agriculture-related projects, like demonstration gardens, poultry and fish farming.

There were district differentials regarding projects implemented (Annex II Table B 2.21). The following districts had the highest percentages of households reporting projects implemented: Yumbe for water (38.2%), Sembabule for schools (49.8%), Soroti for Health units (17.4%) and Mbarara for roads (26.7%). On the other hand the following districts had the lowest percentages for the respective projects: Mubende for water (12.6%), Pader for schools (12.9%), Kyenjojo for Health units (5.3%) and Yumbe for roads (7.1%).

Table 8.2 Percentage Distribution of Households by Projects Implemented

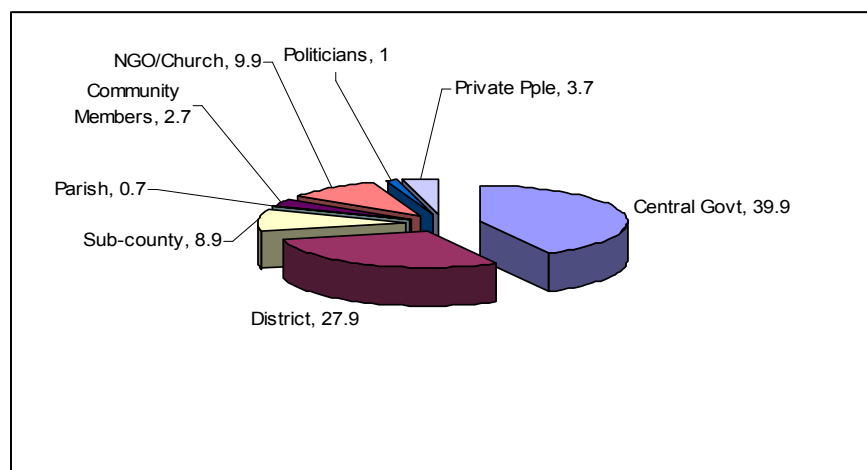
Sr No.	Project	Project implemented			Total
		Yes	No	Don't Know	
1	Water provision	51.2	42.5	6.3	100.0
2	Electrification	19.3	74.5	6.2	100.0
3	New roads	21.3	72.3	6.4	100.0
4	Road or bridge rehabilitation	45.4	47.7	6.9	100.0
5	New markets	8.6	84.5	6.9	100.0
6	Market rehabilitation	13.2	79.5	7.2	100.0
7	Toilet/latrine construction	26.8	66.1	7.1	100.0
8	New school construction	39.2	54.0	6.9	100.0
9	Classroom construction	53.1	41.6	5.3	100.0
10	Other school construction	33.7	57.6	8.8	100.0
11	Health Unit Construction	34.5	58.8	6.7	100.0
12	Sensitisation/extension service /information provision	23.4	67.3	9.4	100.0
13	Demonstration garden	8.2	83.3	8.5	100.0
14	Introduction of new crop or improved varieties	20.0	71.7	8.3	100.0
15	Introduction of improved agric technique	13.1	77.4	9.4	100.0
16	Livestock improvement	20.0	71.1	9.0	100.0
17	Poultry/birds related	9.1	82.0	9.0	100.0
18	Forestry related	7.5	83.9	8.6	100.0
19	Conservation	6.0	84.3	9.7	100.0
20	Fish related	6.3	85.4	8.3	100.0
21	Other	10.62	82.8	6.6	100.0
	Total	25.6	66.9	7.6	100.0

8.4 Major Implementer of Projects

Central Government was the major implementer of projects

Figure 8.1 shows the percentage distribution of respondents that reported implementers of projects in their communities. Central government was the major implementer (39.9%) followed by district (27.9%), NGOs/Church (9.9%) and sub-county (8.9%), in that order. Parish councils contributed least as reported by only 0.7 percent of the households.

Figure 8.1: Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Major Project Implementers in the Community



8.5 Level of Benefits Accruing from Projects

38% of the Households reported having benefited from the implemented projects

About 38 percent of the households indicated having benefited much from the implemented projects (Table 8.3). Less than a quarter (22.8%) benefited a little and about one fifth (20.9%), said they had benefited averagely. People had benefited most from new school and classroom construction and least from livestock improvement projects.

Table 8.3: Percentage Distribution of Households by Level of benefits accruing from implemented Projects by Project type

Sr No.	Project	Not at all	A little	Average	Much	No benefits yet	Total
1	Water provision	10.6	24.4	17.5	42.9	4.6	100.0
2	Electrification	20.8	21.6	13.5	28.0	16.1	100.0
3	New roads	4.8	28.6	24.6	37.4	4.5	100.0
4	Road or bridge rehabilitation	3.4	25.3	28.3	40.5	2.5	100.0
5	New school construction	6.9	16.8	21.3	48.0	6.9	100.0
6	Classroom construction	6.3	17.0	23.4	48.0	5.4	100.0
7	New markets	7.9	29.5	21.6	32.6	8.5	100.0
8	Market rehabilitation	6.2	32.6	27.6	27.4	6.1	100.0
9	Toilet/latrine construction	11.1	23.1	22.2	38.7	5.0	100.0
10	Other school construction	6.6	19.1	25.5	43.9	4.9	100.0
11	Health Unit Construction	5.7	20.6	19.9	44.5	9.3	100.0
12	Sensitisation/extension service /information provision	11.2	29.8	22.3	25.9	10.8	100.0
13	Demonstration garden	15.5	31.5	17.7	19.2	16.1	100.0
14	Introduction of new crop or improved varieties	21.4	26.3	14.7	21.2	16.4	100.0
15	Introduction of improved agric techniques	16.5	29.9	20.4	18.4	14.8	100.0
16	Poultry/birds related	23.8	27.1	14.4	14.6	20.1	100.0
17	Livestock improvement	36.6	20.4	10.2	13.0	19.8	100.0
18	Forestry related	18.7	29.3	15.9	17.7	18.4	100.0
19	Conservation	11.8	26.0	24.6	22.2	15.4	100.0
20	Fish related	19.3	21.8	16.3	19.3	23.3	100.0
21	Other	20.0	12.3	16.6	36.6	14.5	100.0
	Total	10.4	22.8	20.9	37.7	8.1	100.0

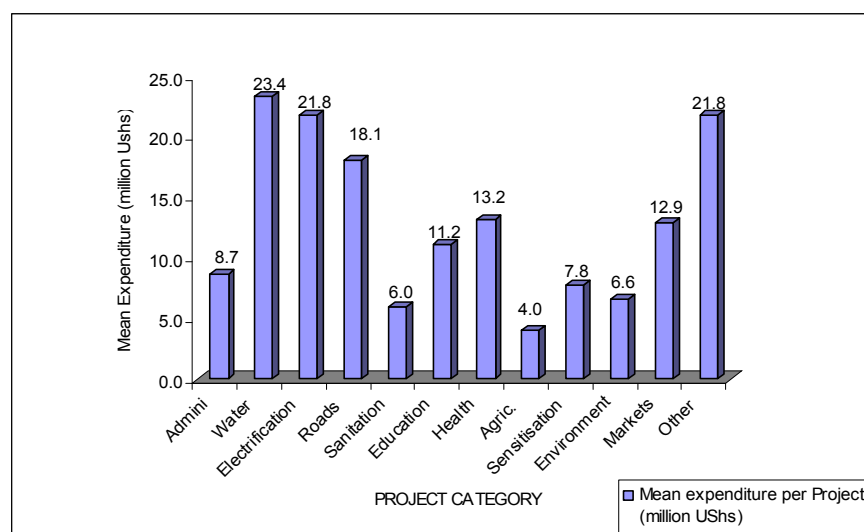
8.6 Project Implementation at Sub-county Level in 2002/2003

Agriculture-related projects had the least expenditure

This section is about projects implemented in the sub-county during financial year 2002/2003. Questions on this section were answered by the sub-county officials (as service providers). Twelve types of projects were considered. These were: Administration-related, Water provision, Electrification, Road Infrastructure, Sanitation-related, Education-related, Health-related, Agriculture-related, Sensitisation, Environmental /Conservation and Market-related.

The biggest expenditure was on: water, electrification, roads, health then education, in that order. Agriculture-related projects had the least expenditure (see Figure 8.2 below).

Figure 8.2: Average Amount spent per Project Category in F/Y 2002/3



8.6.1 Satisfaction with Project Implementation at Sub-county Level

Most of the sub-county authorities expressed satisfaction with the public projects implemented in their Sub-counties

The survey sought information from sub-county authorities on how satisfied they were with project implementation in their sub-counties. The findings are illustrated in Table 8.4 below.

The findings showed that more than three quarters (76.1%) of the Sub-county authorities were satisfied with project implementation while about 17 percent said they were very satisfied. The proportion dissatisfied was very small (7.3%).

Table 8.4: Satisfaction with project implementation at Sub-county level

Type of Project	Level of Satisfaction			Total
	Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very satisfied	
Administration related	6.8	79.5	13.6	100.0
Water provision	8.1	72.5	19.4	100.0
Electrification	10.1	79.2	10.7	100.0
Road Infrastructure	9.4	74.5	16.1	100.0
Sanitation related	5.8	79.9	14.2	100.0
Education related	5.4	75.0	19.6	100.0
Health related	6.3	74.0	19.7	100.0
Agriculture related	8.4	78.5	13.1	100.0
Sensitisation	18.8	65.3	15.8	100.0
Environmental / Conservation	8.5	81.6	9.9	100.0
Market related	4.3	86.0	9.8	100.0
Other	3.4	75.2	21.4	100.0
Total	7.3	76.1	16.6	100.0

8.7 Conclusion and Policy Implications

Projects considered most important included water provision, health unit construction, school construction, road rehabilitation and electrification. Agriculture-related projects were among those ranked as less important. Project implementation at community level was minimal as the majority of the respondents indicated no project was implemented in the two years preceding the survey. The only projects where one half of the households reported implementation were water provision, classroom construction, roads and bridge rehabilitation. However for the projects that had been implemented, the people said they had benefited much from these projects especially those related to school construction, water, health facilities and roads. They had benefited little from agriculture and livestock-related projects.

The central government was the major implementer of projects followed by district local governments, sub-county local governments and then NGOs. However, the central and local governments featured weakly in agricultural and livestock modernization projects.

The survey findings show that while there is a Plan for Modernisation of Agriculture (PMA), there is little being done in agricultural projects. Government should intensify activities in this area, since implementation of PMA has a major input into the implementation of the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP).

GOVERNANCE

9.0 Introduction

According to the Uganda Poverty Status Report of 2003 good governance has been defined as the efficient, effective and accountable exercise of political, administrative and management authority to achieve society's objectives, including the welfare of the whole population, sustainable development and personal freedom. Implied in the definition is the fact that good governance is a process of decision making and implementation. Government is particularly committed to governance issues which are critical in a decentralized framework. Good governance is central to the attainment of all PEAP targets because it forms the context in which policies and programmes are implemented. The survey investigated the status of service delivery by various institutions, accessibility and utilization of the services by households and people's perception of the quality of the services.

9.1 Availability of Administrative and Legal Services

80% of the Households are located more than 10 km from High Court

The respondents were asked to state the distance from the households to the nearest institution/court. Overall, the findings indicated that people were not living far from the institutions. Table 9.1 shows that the high court was the furthest institution from the households. This was reported by about 80 percent of the respondents as being more than 10 kilometers away. Other institutions located far from the households included the District Land Tribunal (66.0%), the magistrate court (48.8%) and the prisons (47.0%). The Local Councils are within reach of the households as most are located at a distance not exceeding 5 kilometers. The 2000 NSDS also reported easy access to courts whereby majority of the households lived within 5 kilometers of any type of formal court.

Table 9.1: Percentage Distribution of Households by Distance to Nearest Institution/Court

Institution	less than 1km	1 - 5km	>than 5 - 10km	more than 10km	Total
Customary courts	62.2	28.6	3.6	5.6	100.0
LCI	67.0	32.2	.4	.4	100.0
LCII	28.6	62.4	7.0	2.0	100.0
LCIII	12.4	51.7	22.4	13.5	100.0
Local administration police	10.5	50.0	22.6	16.8	100.0
Central police	8.2	37.4	20.6	33.7	100.0
Prisons	3.9	28.1	21.0	47.0	100.0
Magistrates court	4.3	28.6	18.3	48.8	100.0
District Land Tribunal	3.0	18.9	12.2	66.0	100.0
High court	1.3	12.4	6.3	79.9	100.0

9.2 Access and Use of Administrative and Legal Services

About 11% of the Households had an issue or case which required LC I intervention in the two years preceding the survey

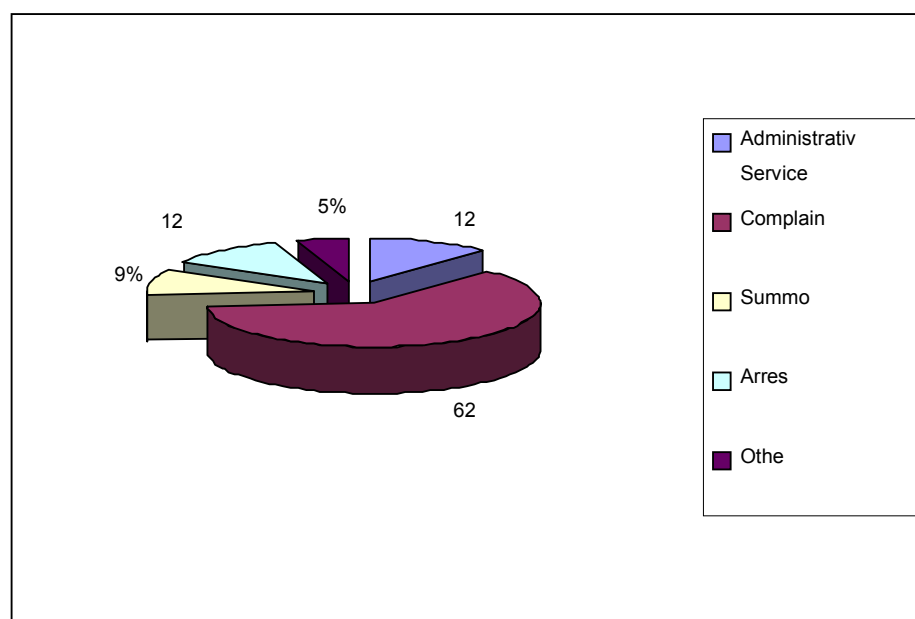
Increasing access to institutions was taken to be a sign of confidence in the administrative system. The survey investigated the extent to which households used the different institutions. Respondents were asked whether they had any issue/case that required institution or court intervention and whether they actually used the institution/court in the two years preceding the survey. Table 9.2 shows that only few households had an issue or case which required institution/court intervention in the reference period. The 2000 NSDS had similar results in that LC1s were the most used institution. Apart from LC I whose services were required by 11 per cent of the households, the rest of the institutions services were not generally required. For example about 4 per cent of the households required Central Police Services and only about one percent required services of the magistrate's court.

Table 9.2: Percentage Distribution of Households which had an Issue/Case that required Institutions/courts intervention in the last 2 years

Institution	% issue requiring Institution or Court	% not requiring
Customary courts	3.3	96.7
LCI	11.2	88.8
LCII	1.5	98.5
LCIII	1.6	98.4
Local administration police	2.1	97.9
Central police	3.9	96.1
Prisons	.7	99.3
Magistrates court	1.3	98.7
District Land Tribunal	.4	99.6
High court	.3	99.7
Other	2.8	97.2

The households that reported having an issue/case requiring institution or court intervention were asked to state the nature of the last issue/case. The nature of the issue/case were categorized as administrative service, complaint, summon, arrest or any other. The survey revealed that majority of the households contacted the various institutions/ courts to resolve complaints. Overall 62 per cent of the cases presented to the institutions were complaints.

Figure 9.1: Distribution of Households by Nature of the Last Issue/Case handled by the Institution/Court



The majority of the households who required LC I intervention used the services

The survey further established the actual utilization of the institution/court. Results of the survey show that majority of the households that required the services actually used the institutions as Table 9.3 shows. It would be important to find out in a future survey the reasons why about 14 percent of the households that had an issue / case requiring institution or court intervention never used the institution/court.

Table 9.3: Percentage Distribution of Households who Accessed the Services by Institution/Court

Institution	% used institution	% not used institution
Customary courts	90.1	9.9
LCI	85.3	14.7
LCII	79.6	20.4
LCIII	83.3	16.7
Local administration police	87.8	12.2
Central police	89.1	10.9
Prisons	86.0	14.0
Magistrates court	91.9	8.1
District Land Tribunal	83.2	16.8
High court	92.5	7.5
All Institutions	86.5	13.5

9.3 Quality of and Satisfaction with Administrative and Legal Services

A key indicator for efficiency and effectiveness of a justice system is how many cases result in successful convictions/resolutions on merit in a reasonable judgment (MFPED, 2003). This is a qualitative indicator that was not investigated in the survey; however, inquiry was made about the time it took to resolve the issue/ case as a proxy for effectiveness. Overall, 66 percent of the cases took less than one month however, with significant variations depending on the institution contacted.

The District Land Tribunal, the high court and the magistrate's court were reported to have taken long to resolve cases. For all cases presented to the District Land Tribunal 73 percent had taken more than six months; 46 percent of cases for the Magistrates court and 59 percent of cases for the high court had taken more than six months to be resolved. There is need to note that there were pending cases. The Land tribunal had nearly 53 percent of the cases pending while the customary courts had the lowest percentage of pending cases (4.6%).

Table 9.4: Percentage Distribution of Households by the Time it Took to Resolve the Issue/Case by Institution

Institution	less than one month	1 to 6 months	7 to 12 months	More than 12 months	Case pending
Customary courts	77.6	11.9	2.5	3.4	4.6
LCI	74.5	12.5	.9	1.9	10.2
LCII	65.6	20.0	1.6	2.3	10.4
LCIII	58.5	22.7	3.0	4.3	11.5
Local administration police	65.0	19.1	2.5	3.4	10.0
Central police	61.1	13.6	2.9	3.5	18.9
Prisons	37.7	35.9	7.0	8.7	10.7
Magistrates court	28.1	26.0	7.6	14.9	23.4
District Land Tribunal	11.9	15.2	1.2	19.1	52.6
High court	19.4	21.1	13.9	19.7	25.9
Other	73.8			13.6	12.5
Total	65.5	15.5	2.3	4.0	12.7

75% of the Households that used the various institutions were satisfied with the services received

The respondents were asked whether the household or person involved was satisfied with the way the case was handled. Results are presented in Table 9.5 and they show a high level of satisfaction with the services. For all institutions, 75 percent of the households were satisfied with the services. Households were very satisfied with the LC courts and the findings are similar to the 2000 NSDS in which it was reported that the work of LC I and LC courts seemed to be the best appreciated.

Table 9.5: Percentage Distribution of Households Satisfied with Services of Institutions /Courts

Institution	Yes	No	Don't know
Customary courts	82.4	16.8	.8
LCI	77.9	20.6	1.5
LCII	78.0	20.4	1.6
LCIII	75.2	22.0	2.9
Local administration police	68.6	27.4	4.0
Central police	64.7	33.3	2.0
Prisons	66.0	34.0	0
Magistrates court	70.8	19.1	10.1
District Land Tribunal	66.7	24.7	8.6
High court	66.3	24.1	9.7
Other	91.3	8.7	0
All institutions	74.9	22.7	2.4

9.4: Payment for Administrative and Legal Services

61% of the respondents who used Central Police services made payments

There are two dimensions to the issue of payment for services that is affordability/access and corruption. Access to services can be limited especially to the poor if the charges are high and not affordable to the poor. Wrongful demand for money from people is also a concern to government and measures have been instituted to curb corruption. Households were asked whether they made any official or unofficial payments for the services they received and the purpose for which the payments were made. The findings in Table 9.6 indicate that 53 per cent of the respondents who accessed services had to make some payments. The highest percentage of respondents reported making payment to Central Police (61%). The High Court had the least percentage of respondents who indicated payment for the services.

Table 9.6: Percentage Distribution of Households that Made Payment

Institution	Yes	No	Don't know
Customary courts	40.5	59.1	0.4
LCI	53.7	44.8	1.6
LCII	55.4	44.4	0.2
LCIII	51.0	48.0	1.0
Local administration police	59.7	36.9	3.5
Central police	60.9	37.7	1.4
Prisons	45.6	53.3	1.1
Magistrates court	51.8	45.4	2.8
District Land Tribunal	52.3	47.7	0
High court	30.7	59.6	9.7
Other	19.2	80.8	0
Total	53.3	45.1	1.6

Respondents who made payments before the cases were resolved were asked the purpose for which the payments were made. It was established that some respondents made official payments before the cases were resolved which included bail, bond and case fee and others made unofficial payments which included bribes and token of thanks. The households that made payment before their issue/ case was resolved were asked the purpose of payment. Of concern is the payment of unofficial charges which is an impediment to access and utilization of services.

Bribery was highest in the Central Police followed in the Local Administration Police

Table 9.7 below shows that bribery was highest (33.0%) in the central police; 26% in the Local Administration Police; 16% in the High Court and 16% in the Magistrate's Court. Bribery was least common to the Customary Courts where only 2.7% of the households paid a bribe. It was also noted that people did not know the legal charges they had to pay. For instance respondents claimed to pay bonds and bails to institutions which are legally not supposed to administer these payments. The practice of bribery needs to be addressed since it is deterrent to use of services and compromises the country's integrity and hinders development. Awareness training can be organized at community level to disseminate information about administrative charges in addition to other governance issues.

Table 9.7: Percentage Distribution of Households by Purpose of Payment for Administrative and Legal Services

Institution	Bribe	Token of thanks	Bail	Bond	Case fee	Other	
Customary courts	2.7	41.0	.2		52.2	3.9	100.0
LCI	7.3	7.0	1.9		77.2	5.6	100.0
LCII	9.8	3.7			84.2	.2	100.0
LCIII	10.1	5.5	3.5		65.3	9.1	100.0
Local administration police	26.3	8.3	9.6	14.1	29.8	11.9	100.0
Central police	33.0	8.8	10.5	12.3	25.6	9.8	100.0
Prisons	9.4		32.6		21.9	36.1	100.0
Magistrates court	16.2	2.3	24.7	6.0	44.5	6.2	100.0
District Land Tribunal	11.0	15.3	4.5		46.5	22.7	100.0
High court	16.3	19.4	5.3		39.2	4.9	100.0
All institutions	14.2	9.5	5.8	5.3	57.9	7.3	100.0

9.5 Local Council I Administration

Only 29% of the respondents reported LC meetings being held once a month

The Local Government Act requires Local Council I (LCI) executives to hold village meetings monthly. The respondents were asked how often the public (village) meetings took place. Table 9.8 shows that only 29 percent of respondents reported holding meetings once a month. However, one in every three households reported holding meetings in an adhoc manner. A small percentage of respondents (1.4%) reported that meetings are never held at all. The findings presented in Annex II Table B 2.22 show that most of the LC I do not hold monthly meetings as stipulated under the local government act. The limited adherence to the local government act

regulation of holding monthly meetings requires a review in the guidelines to establish the reasons why it is not effectively implemented.

Table 9.8: Frequency of LC I Meetings

Frequency of meetings	Percent
More than once a month	19.4
Once a month	29.0
Once in two months	9.6
More than two months	8.3
Not at all	1.4
As and when required	32.3
Total	100.0

The household respondents were asked to state how often they or a member of the household attended LC I meetings. The findings show that about 36 percent of the households reported regular attendance of these meetings as indicated in Table 9.9. Twelve percent of the households did not attend any of the LC meetings.

Table 9.9: Percentage Distribution of Household Members who were Attending LC I Meetings

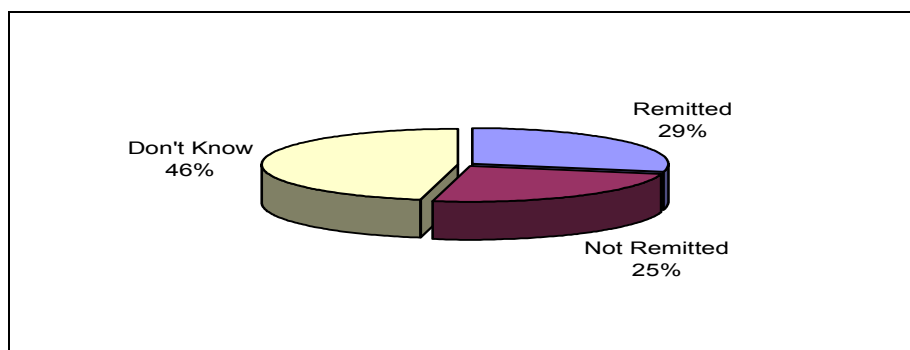
Frequency	Percent
Always	36.4
only important ones	5.7
Only when invited	16.9
Sometimes	28.9
Never	12.0

9.5.1: Remittance of 25% of Local Revenue to the Village

It is a requirement of the Local Government Act that 25% of locally generated revenue is sent back to Local Council I. The majority of the households (46%) did not know whether the 25% in graduated tax for the financial year 2002/03 had been remitted to the village. The findings show that in some villages, the 25% is never remitted. This was reported by a quarter of the households during the survey. Only 29 percent confirmed the remittance of the 25 percent to their villages. Of the households that were aware of the remitted 25% local revenue, 60 percent knew how the money was spent. In almost all the districts less than 50% of the households were aware of the 25% of local revenue being remitted to their villages.

Table B 2.23 Annex II shows that in the districts of Ntungamo (63.7%), Rukungiri (54.2%), Kanungu (52%) and Mpigi (50.2%) reported knowledge about the 25% remittance to their villages.

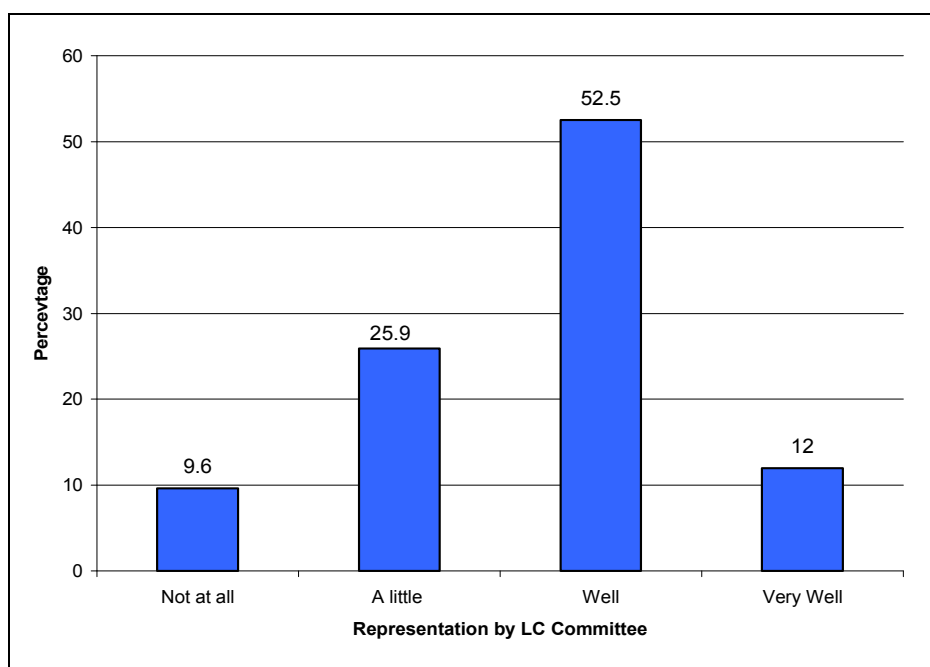
Knowledge of remittance of the 25% tax for the financial year 2002/03 was not common

Figure 9.2: Remittance of the 25% of Local Revenue

9.5.2 Representation by LC Committee

The respondents were asked whether the LC Committee represented their interests. The majority of the households appreciated the work done by the LC Committees. The majority indicated that the LC committee represented their interests very well (12%); well (53%); and those who reported a little were approximately 26 per cent as illustrated in Figure 9.2 below. It should be noted that in all the districts of Uganda the majority of respondents appreciated the work of the LC Committees. Table B 2.24 Annex II shows that over 50% of the respondents reported the LC Committees representing their interests either very well or well.

Over 50% of the Households acknowledged that the LC Committees represented their interests well

Figure 9.3: Percentage Distributions of Respondents by Rating of how well their Interests were Represented by the LC Committee

9.5.3 Experience with Extortion of Money

Very few households knew how to report extortions and embezzlement of money by officials

The respondents were asked whether they knew how to report extortions of money by different officials. The findings show that the majority of the respondents did not know how to report extortions of money as shown in Table 9.10 below.

Table 9.10: Percentage Distribution of Households who know how to Report Extortion

Official	% know how to report	% Do Not know how to report
LCI official	30.8	69.2
LCII official	29.2	70.8
LCIII official	27.9	72.1
Police	25.9	74.1
Health staff	25.5	74.5
Education staff	26.2	73.8
Court	23.4	76.6
Extension agents	24.1	75.9
Other	28.0	72.0
All Officials	26.6	73.4

Reporting of extortions and embezzlement of public funds was still very low. The findings indicated that less than 2 percent of those who knew how to report had ever reported such cases as clearly shown in Table 9.11 below. This implies that a lot of extortions and embezzlement may be going on un noticed. This may adversely affect service delivery in the Programme Priority Areas leading to public dissatisfaction with the government services.

Table 9.11: Distribution of Households who Ever Reported Embezzlement

Official	% Ever Reported	% Never Reported
LCI official	1.9	98.1
LCII official	0.8	99.2
LCIII official	1.0	99.0
Police	1.1	98.9
Health staff	0.7	99.3
Education staff	0.9	99.1
Court	0.7	99.3
Extension agents	0.7	99.3
Other	4.8	95.2
Total	1.0	99.0

The LC system is appreciated by the majority of Households

9.5.4 Local Government Improvement

The respondents were asked to rate the performance of the local government system. The LC I was rated as the best with 61 percent of the respondents rating the performance as good as shown in Table 9.12 below. This could be because most of the interactions are between the LC I and the households since it is within reach of most of them.

Table 9.12: Rating of Performance of the Local Government System

LC Level	Good	Fair	Poor	Don't know
LCI	61.0	26.1	8.1	4.8
LCII	38.7	27.9	6.4	27.1
LCIII	37.9	23.2	8.9	30.0
All LC levels	45.9	25.7	7.8	20.6

The long distance to the LC III level of governance was reported as the major problem encountered by the households in accessing local government services.

Table 9.13: Major Problem Encountered in using the Services

LC Level	None	long distance	Absence of officers	demand for bribe	poor response by officers	other
LCI	67.7	4.4	7.9	9.1	8.4	2.6
LCII	55.1	16.4	11.3	8.1	6.9	2.2
LCIII	47.6	24.7	7.5	8.2	9.7	2.3
All levels	57.9	14.0	8.8	8.5	8.3	2.4

Over 50% of the Households reported improvement in the service at the 3 LC levels

The services of the local government system had improved over the years. The respondents were asked to rate the quality of services offered by the Laces. Table 9.14 shows that there has been an improvement in the quality of services at the three LC levels. The following table shows that there has been an improvement in the quality of service at the three LC levels.

Table 9.14: Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Perception of Change in the Quality of LC Service in the Last 2 Years

LC Level	Improved	Same	Worsened	Don't know
LCI	58.4	32.1	7.2	2.3
LCII	49.1	41.2	6.2	3.5
LCIII	49.8	36.6	9.3	4.3
All Levels	53.0	36.2	7.5	3.3

9.6 Conclusion

Monitoring of the performance of the Governance Sector needs to be handled a bit differently from the other sectors since it focuses mainly on qualitative issues of service delivery that are better assessed using qualitative methods. The sector standards focus more on the qualitative aspects of service delivery and therefore no specific quantitative targets or standards were available for comparative analysis of the survey data which was largely mainly quantitative. The lack of targets notwithstanding, the survey revealed an improvement in service delivery of the administrative and legal institutions, especially the LC system. Central Police has continued to exhibit the negative practices of bribery, extortions and corruption.

ACCESS TO FORMAL AND INFORMAL CREDIT

10.1 Introduction

The availability and accessibility to credit is a vital component of sustainable economic activity at the household level. This in turn would increase incomes of many households which would have an effect on the households' willingness to pay for the various services. Having realized the importance of credit the number of Micro Finance Institutions has increased in recent years as a way of supplementing on the effort of the banking institutions in providing credit to households and individuals.

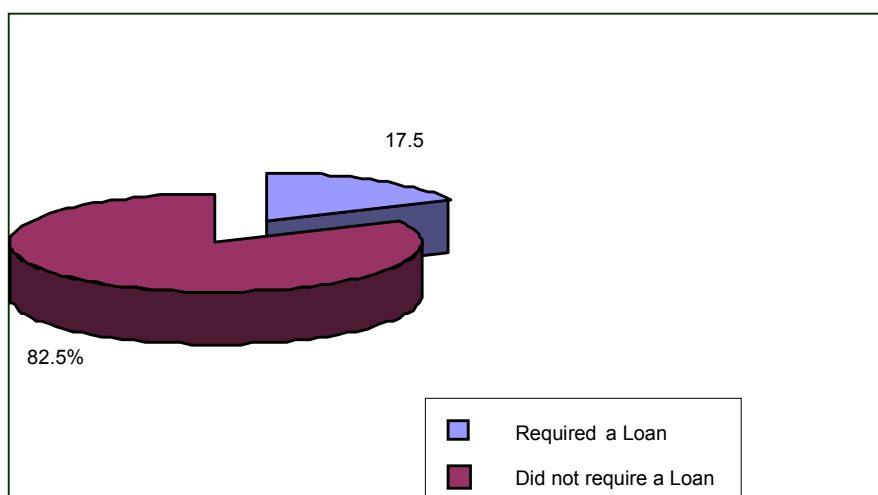
During the Survey information was collected on accessibility to formal and informal credit for all household members aged 18 years and above during the 12 months that preceded the survey. Information collected included purpose and source of loan for those who had applied for a loan during that period. For all those who had not applied for any loan during that period, the reason for not applying was recorded.

10.2 Demand for Loans

The findings show that about 18 percent of the household population aged 18 years and above required a loan or credit during the 12 months that preceded the survey as indicated in Figure 10.1. Out of those who required a loan only 37 percent applied for one meaning the majority failed or did not make any attempt to apply.

About 82% of the people aged 18 years and above did not require a loan or credit

Figure 10.1: Percentage Distribution of Household Population Aged 18 Years and Above by Loan Requirement

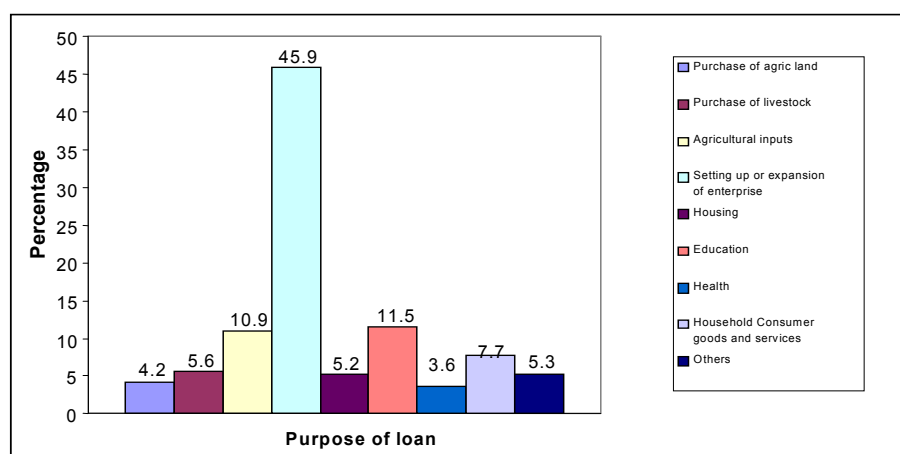


10.3 Purpose and Repayment of Loans

10.3.1 Purpose

The purpose of the loan was investigated for all household members who had applied for a loan during the 12 months that preceded the survey. The various loan purposes are given in Figure 10.2 below and the most common purpose cited by loan applicants was setting up or expansion of an enterprise which constituted about 46 percent. The findings also show that the lowest percentage (4%) was for health purposes.

Figure 10.2: Percentage Distribution of Household Population Aged 18 Years and Above by Purpose of Loan



Main purpose for the loan was setting up or expansion of enterprise

The percentage distribution of household members aged 18 years and above who received a loan by purpose and district is presented in Table B 2.25 of Annex II. Most of the loan applicants in the districts reported setting up or expansion of enterprise as the purpose of the loan except in Sembabule, Kotido, Moyo, Pader, Kabale, Kisoro and Kanungu where other purposes dominated.

10.3.2 Repayment Period

The repayment period of the loan was recorded from each loan applicant and Table 10.1 below shows the percentage distribution of household population aged 18 years and above by purpose of loan and repayment period. The findings show that most of the loans had a repayment period of either three or six months.

Loans with a repayment period of 6 months constituted (31%)

Health had the highest percentage (41%) of loans which had a repayment period of three months whereas purchase of livestock had the highest percentage (5%) of loans which had a repayment period of two years. This shows that households had more access to short-term loans than medium-term and long-term loans. It should be noted that any other loan repayment period that was not three months, six months, twelve months or two years was classified under others. Overall, loans with a repayment period of six months constituted the highest percentage (31%).

Table 10.1: Percentage Distribution of Household Population Aged 18 Years and Above by Purpose of Loan and Repayment Period

Purpose of the loan	Three months	Six months	Twelve months	Two years	Other	Total
Purchase of agric land	35.2	26.3	11.9	4.8	21.8	100.0
Purchase of livestock	25.0	24.9	32.2	5.1	12.8	100.0
Agricultural inputs	20.8	35.3	11.9	2.3	29.7	100.0
Setting up or expansion of enterprise	19.8	37.3	14.8	3.7	24.4	100.0
Housing	17.7	24.9	29.9	3.0	24.6	100.0
Education	15.4	33.5	20.5	2.7	27.8	100.0
Health	40.7	17.8	2.3	3.1	36.0	100.0
Household consumer goods and services	25.2	18.2	9.3	1.9	45.4	100.0
Other	16.4	14.9	23.1	3.8	41.8	100.0
Total	21.2	31.4	16.4	3.4	27.7	100.0

Further examination of the amount of loan by the repayment period was carried out and the findings are presented in Table 10.2 below. The results reveal that most loans (56%) which had a repayment period of three months were less or equal to Ug. Shs. 100,000. The findings also indicate that the majority (79%) of the loan applicants received loans which were below Ug. Shs. 500,000. This means that most of the loan applicants could not access big loans which are some of the key factors for investment.

Table 10.2: Percentage Distribution of Household Population Aged 18 Years and Above by Amount of Loan by Repayment Period

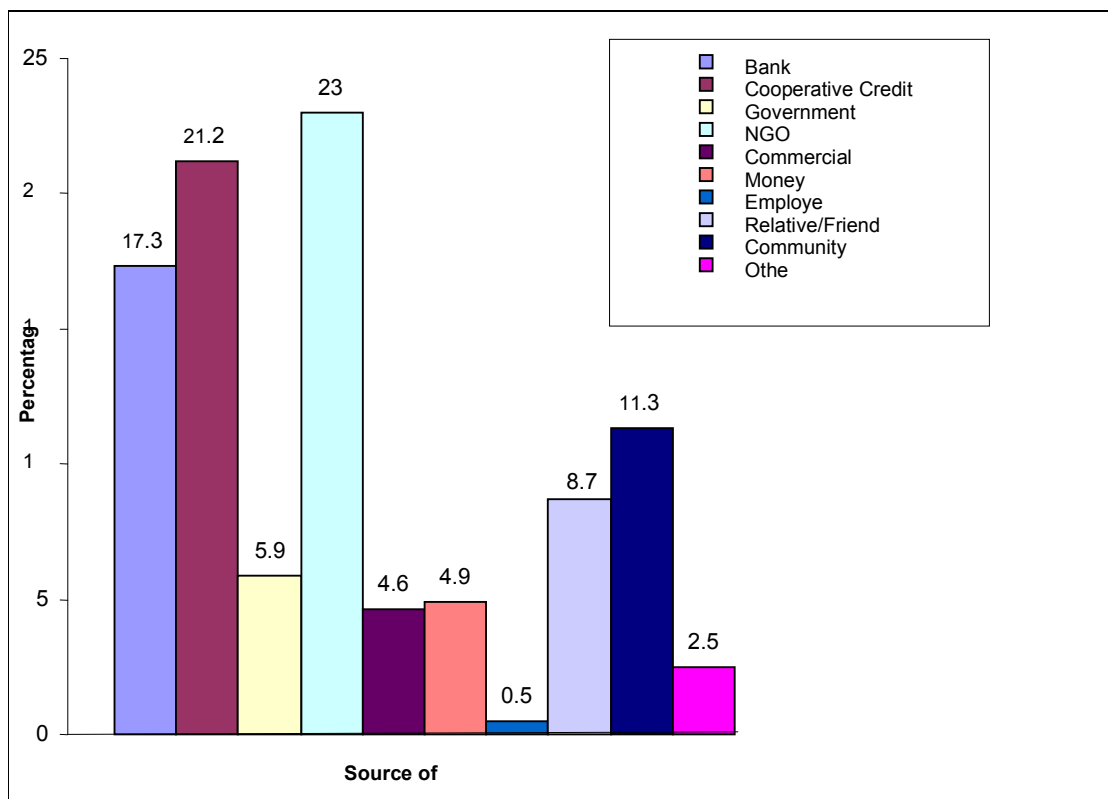
Loan amount	3 months	6 months	12 months	2 years	Other	Total
<= 100,000	55.8	27.3	18.1	45.2	48.2	38.5
100,001 - 250,000	21.4	25.0	8.3	9.4	18.4	19.3
250,001 - 500,000	15.7	29.2	15.8	14.6	18.4	20.7
500,001 - 1,000,000	5.9	14.1	23.6	20.0	10.2	12.9
Above 1,000,000	1.2	4.5	34.3	10.8	4.9	8.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

The percentage distribution of household members aged 18 years and above who received a loan by amount and district is presented in Table B 2.26 of Annex II. The survey findings show that more than a half (50%) of the loan applicants in the districts had received less than Shs. 500,000 except for Kotido, Moroto and Pader where over 70 percent of the loan applicants had received Shs. 500,000 and above.

10.4 Source of the Loan

Information was collected about the source of the loan for each household member who had received a loan during the reference period. The findings presented in Figure 10.3 below show that 23 percent had got their loans from NGOs. The smallest percentage (about 1%) had acquired loans from their employers.

Figure 10.3: Percentage Distribution of Household Population Aged 18 Years And Above by Source of Loan



Further analysis of the source of loans by repayment period was carried out and the findings are presented in Table 10.3 below. The results show that a big percentage (40%) of loans from Banks had a repayment period of six months.

Most of the loans (56%) received from NGOs which were the main source, had a repayment period of either three months or six months implying that most NGOs offer short term loans rather than long term loans. Overall, most sources offered short term loans (51%) with a repayment period of either three months or six months.

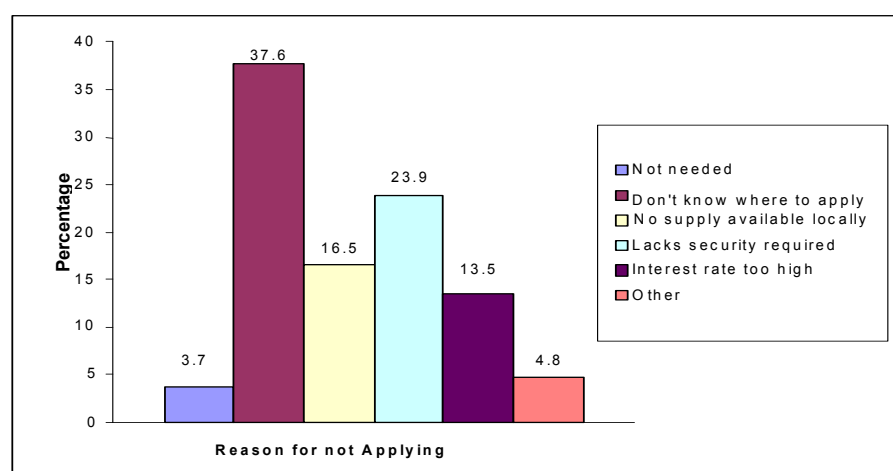
Table 10.3: Percentage Distribution of Household Population Aged 18 Years and Above by Source of the Loan by Period of Payment

Source of loan	Three months	Six months	Twelve months	Two years	Other	Total
Bank	9.9	40.4	31.1	3.3	15.4	100.0
Cooperative credit facility	26.4	31.7	12.8	4.2	24.9	100.0
Government agency	18.6	13.7	40.3	0.0	27.4	100.0
NGO	25.0	31.3	8.5	4.1	31.1	100.0
Commercial firm	8.4	47.3	7.0	8.9	28.3	100.0
Money lender	30.2	12.5	2.6	7.3	47.4	100.0
Employer	39.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	60.8	100.0
Relative/friends	31.0	4.3	9.3	0.0	55.3	100.0
Community funds	26.0	22.8	15.2	1.7	34.3	100.0
Other	0.0	38.9	5.2	5.7	50.2	100.0
Total	21.6	29.0	15.0	3.6	30.8	100.0

The percentage distribution of household members aged 18 years and above who received a loan by source and district is presented in Table B 2.27 of Annex II. The survey findings show that in most of the districts the major sources of the loans were Banks, Cooperative Credit Facilities and NGOs.

10.5 Reasons for Not Applying for a Loan

The findings show that out of the household population aged 18 years and above that required a loan or credit during the 12 months that preceded the survey 62 percent did not apply due to various reasons. The reasons were analyzed and Figure 10.4 shows the various reasons why they did not apply. The results show that the major reason was that the respondents did not know where to apply which loan/credit facilities and lack of collateral security.

Figure 10.4: Percentage Distribution of Household Population Aged 18 Years and Above By Reason for not Applying for a Loan

The percentage distribution of household members aged 18 years and above who required a loan by reason for not applying and district is presented in Table B 2.28 of Annex II. The survey results reveal that in most of the districts the major reasons for not applying for a loan were lack of a collateral security, high interest rates, non-availability of credit facilities in their localities and lack of knowledge where to apply for credit.

10.6 Conclusion

The Government has put in place a number of policies/programmes, for example PEAP and PMA, which advocate for credit facilities for production as well as a way of alleviating poverty. However, there are still many obstacles denying the poor to access credit facilities.

There are many people who would like to access loans and credit facilities for various purposes but lack the knowledge about the available sources. It is therefore necessary to sensitize the population about the available opportunities. Secondly, effort should be made to minimize or completely eliminate where possible the factors that prohibit people from accessing loans/credit notably high interest rates and the demand for a collateral security by the loan providing institutions/agents. The short repayment period offered by the loan providing institutions/agents cannot enable people to undertake investments of a long term nature.

CONCLUSION

The 2004 NSDS has provided valuable information for establishing status of service delivery for the Program Priority Areas (PPAS) of Health, Education, Agriculture, Water and Sanitation, Transport and Governance. The analysis has focused on establishing indicators of availability, access and utilization of the various services in the six sectors and other service delivery issues concerning Project implementation and access to credit facilities. Quality of services, satisfaction of households and changes in the indicators has also been discussed in the report. This chapter presents a summary of major findings, conclusions and a way forward.

The demographic and social characteristics indicators obtained from the 2004 NSDS data compared very closely with the 2002 Population and Housing Census results and this provides evidence of the validity and reliability of the data. The demographic and social household characteristics are important because of their direct bearing on accessibility and utilization of various services by household members. The age, education level, residence and occupation of the household members directly influence accessibility and utilization of services.

Access to primary education services has improved with over 80 percent of the children traveling a distance of less than 3 km. The Net Enrolment Ratio has remained at 86 percent as in the 1999/00 UNHS. The incidence of leaving school still prevails and contributes to wastage in the school system especially in the upper primary. Findings further indicated that schools have a problem of inadequate facilities which may affect quality negatively. The major constraint was inadequacy of teachers' houses which were noted to be available in only 8.3 percent of the schools. The UPE policy has contributed to increasing access/entry, however more needs to be done to improve quality and retention of children in school.

Incidence of ill health was reported in about a quarter of household members and malaria was the major cause of sickness in both urban and rural communities. Private health facilities (28%) were almost as equally important as Government facilities (33%) for providing first source of treatment. The average distance (5.8km) to government health facilities is approaching the PEAP target of 5km. The immunization target is yet to be achieved considering that only 41% of children were reported to be immunized against DPT3 and had their cards seen while the target is 60%. However, immunization services indicators were better than birth related services indicators which are still very poor. There is need to intensify preventive approaches and cost-effective interventions for treatment of malaria and to document the best practices in immunization services that can be replicated in other areas.

Findings revealed improvements in the households' access to safe water and sanitation as compared to the 2002/3 UNHS. Majority (70%) of households were obtaining drinking water from safe sources during the dry season within a distance equal to 0.5 or less kilometers. Variations

were noted in the improvements at regional level with the north still lagging behind when compared with other regions. The results revealed that sanitary services were below the target for the financial year 2002/3. Appropriate strategies should be put in place for improved access to sanitary facilities, especially latrines.

Most households were involved in agricultural activities yet there was limited demand for agricultural extension services and use of agricultural inputs. The PMA is not yet popular, 60 percent of the households had not heard about the plan. Government should intensify activities in this area, particularly on sensitization about the availability and importance of extension services and programs including PMA.

Survey findings indicated that generally the road infrastructure in the country was fairly good and generally usable all the year round. Three in every five households are located less than a km away from at least one type of all-weather roads and that road infrastructure was poorly maintained. The major constraints to road use were bad weather and poor maintenance. About one tenth of the households in the country were using water transport for mainly intra- and inter-district.

Projects considered most important included water provision, health unit construction, school construction, road rehabilitation and electrification. Agriculture-related projects were among those ranked as least important.

An improvement was reported in service delivery of administrative and legal institutions, especially the LC 1 system. The Police was noted for exhibiting negative practices of bribery, extortions and corruption. Access to credit facilities was limited due to lack of knowledge about the available credit services.

In conclusion, service delivery has generally improved though still below the set targets in some sectors. Lack of standards constrained appropriate analysis and establishment of trends in service delivery. Standards, targets and indicators have to be established and agreed upon at the questionnaire design stage so that appropriate questions are included in the survey questionnaires.

As a way forward, further and deeper analysis of the data should be carried out to explain the apparent patterns and differentials highlighted in the report. All sectors need to establish clear and measurable standards and targets for the next round of the survey. Popular and abridged versions of the report shall be produced for dissemination of the results to various stakeholders at the national and lower local government levels. The dissemination should among other objectives, encourage utilization of the results in the sectors' planning processes. Finally, further analysis could be undertaken to establish the accessibility and utilization levels of the different services by the different categories of household members.