



STATE OF UGANDA POPULATION REPORT 2007



“PLANNED URBANIZATION FOR UGANDA’S GROWING POPULATION”

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Theme: "Planned Urbanization for Uganda's Growing Population"



Funded by UNFPA Uganda

THE STATE OF UGANDA POPULATION 2006 - DATA SHEET FOR SELECTED INDICATORS

TRENDS OF SELECTED DEMOGRAPHIC, HEALTH, SOCIAL AND DEVELOPMENT INDICIES

a) Population	1991	1995	2002	2007
Total Population (million)	16.7	19.3	24.4	28.4
Male Population (million)	8.2	9.5	11.8	13.8
Female Population (million)	8.5	9.8	12.4	14.6
Population Growth Rate (%)	2.5	2.5	3.2	3.2
Urban Population (million)	1.7	2.1	3.0	3.7
b) Health Indicators	1991	1995	2001	2006
Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) per 1,000	122	81	88	76
Child Mortality Rate (CMR) per 1,000	203	147	152	137
Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR) per 100,000	527	506	505	435
Total Fertility Rate	7.1	6.9	6.9	6.7
Contraceptive Prevalence Rate (%)	5	15	22.8	23.7
Supervised Deliveries (%)	38	38	38	41
Full Immunization (%)	31	47	38	46
Unmet Need (%)	54	29	35	41
Stunted Children (%)	38	38	39	32
HIV Prevalence Rate (%)	30	15	6.1	6.4
c) Social Indicators	1991	2000	2004	2006
Literacy Rate (%)	54	65	70	69
Households with access to safe water (%)	44	54	61	68
Households with access to sanitation (%)	43	41	43	-
Households with access to Toilet facilities (%)	71.4	83	84	86
e) Economic Indicators	1991	2002	2004	2006
Economic Performance (US \$ billions)	-	6.2	6.8	-
Population below Poverty line (under US\$ 1) (%)	56	35	38	31
Unemployment Rate - national (%)	-	3.2	3.5	3.5
Unemployment Rate - urban (%)	-	12	-	10
Government Expenditure to Education as % of GDP	1.5	-	5.2	-
Government Expenditure to Health as % of GDP	2.1	2.1	2.2	-
d) Human Development Indicators	2000	2002	2004	2006
Human Development Index	0.507	0.449	0.488	-
Human Poverty Index (%)	36	36	36	-
Adult Literacy Rate	63	69	-	69
Life Expectancy (years)	-	50.4	-	-
Stunted Children (%)	39	-	39	38
e) Gender Empowerment	2000	2002	2004	2006
Gender related Development Index	0.417	0.502	0.549	-
Seats in parliament held by women (%)	19	-	24	31.5
Women in Government at ministerial level (%)	-	-	-	19.4
Ratio of estimated female to male earned income	-	0.66	0.70	-
Female Adult Literacy Rate (%)	-	59.2	59.2	-
Female Economic Activity Rate (%)	-	79.3	79.1	-
f) Population by Major Type of illness	2000	2002	2004	2006
Malaria/Fever	-	58.5	47.6	49.6
Acute Respiratory Infection	-	13.2	19.8	14.1
Diarrhoea	-	4.1	10.0	9.4
Injury -	1.0	5.2	6.8	-
Skin Infection	-	2.9	5.7	3.2
*Others	-	20.3	11.7	16.9

TRACKING PROGRESS OF PEAP TARGETS AGAINST THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

MDG	Indicators	PROGRESS			PEAP Target	MDG Target
		2001 2001	2004 2004	2006 2006	2015 PEAP	2015 MDG
1.	Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger					
	Population in Poverty (%)	35	38	31	17	28
	Under weight children under 5 years (%)	22.8	-	20.1	-	13
2.	Achieve universal primary education					
	Net Enrolment ratio in Primary Education (%)	84	86	90	100	100
	Literacy rate (%)	65	70	69	85	68
3.	Promote gender equality and empower women					
	Seats in parliament held by women (%)	19	25	33	50	50
	Women in Government at ministerial level (%)	-	-	19.4	-	-
	Women in wage employment in non agricultural sector (%)	-	39	-	50	50
	Ratio of boys to girls in primary education	0.88	0.99	1.01	1.0	1.0
	Ratio of boys to girls in secondary education	0.79	0.82	0.85	1.0	1.0
	Ration of literate women to men	0.84	0.90	0.89	1.0	1.0
	Ratio of estimated female to male earned income	0.67	0.70	-	-	-
4.	Reduce child mortality					
	Infant Mortality Rate per 1,000 live births	88	-	76	60	31
	Child Mortality Rate per 1,000 live births	152	-	137	-	56
	Children immunized against measles (%)	57	83	87	-	90
	Full Immunization (%)	38	46.2	46.2	80	90
5.	Improve maternal health					
	Maternal Mortality Ratio per 100,000 live births	505	-	435	300	131
	Supervised Deliveries (%)	38	-	38.0	50	85
6.	Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases					
	HIV Prevalence Rate (%)	6.1	6.1	6.4	-	-
	Contraceptive Prevalence Rate (%)	22.8	-	23.7	-	-
	Condom use rate among 15-24 year olds (high-risk group) (%)	49.8	53.1	60.9	-	-
	Pop. 15-24 years with comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS (%)	28	-	32.4	-	-
7.	Ensure environmental sustainability					
	Proportion of land area covered by forest (%)	21.3	20.1	-	-	-
	Population with access to improved safe water source - Urban (%)	87	93	95	100	80
	Population with access to improved safe water source - Rural (%)	44	56	54	90	80
	Population with access to improved sanitation (%)	41	43	58	-	-

Source: 1. Human Development Report 2005, 2006
2. Poverty Eradication Action Plan 2004/05 – 2007/8.
3. 4. Statistical Abstract, 2006.
5. Uganda National Household Survey 2005/2006 Main Report.
7. Uganda National and Housing Census 2002, Main Report.

Contents

The State of Uganda Population 2006 - Data Sheet for Selected Indicators	ii
Foreword	viii
Acknowledgements	ix
List of Abbreviations	X
CHAPTER 1	1
OVERVIEW OF URBANIZATION IN UGANDA	1
1.0 Introduction	1
1.1 Evolution of Urban Centres and Government Policy	1
1.2 Trends and Patterns of Urbanization in Uganda	2
1.3 Factors Affecting Urbanization	4
1.4 Social Demographic Characteristics of the Urban Population	5
1.5 Challenges of Urbanization	7
1.6 Policy Recommendations	8
1.7 Conclusion	8
CHAPTER 2	11
POPULATION GROWTH AND INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT	11
2.0 Introduction	11
2.1 The Status of Housing Conditions	11
2.2 Housing Needs	12
2.3 Implications of High Population Growth on Human Conditions	12
2.3.1 Land Requirements	13
2.3.2 Building Materials Requirements	14
2.3.3 More Financial Resources Required	15
2.3.4 Labour and Skills Requirements	15
2.4 Access to Infrastructure and Services	15
2.4.1 Access to Safe Water	15
2.4.2 Sanitation	16
2.4.3 Access to Sources of Energy	17
2.4.4 Roads	17
2.4.5 Traffic	17
2.5 Policy Framework	18
2.6 Gaps, Weaknesses and Challenges	18
2.7 Policy Recommendations	19
2.8 Conclusion	20
CHAPTER 3	21
URBANIZATION AND ENVIRONMENTAL HEALTH IN UGANDA	21
3.0 Introduction	21
3.1 Background	21
3.2 Sanitation in Urban Poverty Enclaves in Uganda	22
3.3 Water Supply	23

3.4	Excreta Disposal	25
3.5	Refuse Disposal	26
3.6	Drainage in Urban Centres	28
3.7	Aesthetics and Housing	29
3.8	Policy and Legal Instruments	29
3.9	Environmental Health Impacts	30
3.10	Recommendations	30

CHAPTER 4 **35**

HIV/AIDS IN URBAN CENTERS OF UGANDA: THE CHALLENGES **35**

4.0	Introduction	35
4.1	Situation in Urban Centers	36
4.2	Challenges and Impact of HIV and AIDS	36
4.2.1	Orphans and Vulnerable Children	37
4.2.2	Health Systems	38
4.2.3	Poverty	39
4.2.4	Housing conditions	40
4.3	Policy Interventions	41
4.3.1	Role of Local Governments	41
4.3.2	Civil Society Organizations	42
4.4	Strategies to Address HIV/ AIDS in Urban Centres	44
4.4.1	Enhanced advocacy	44
4.4.2	Capacity Building	44
4.5	Way Forward	45
4.6	Recommendations	45
4.7	Conclusion	45

CHAPTER 5 **47**

URBAN AGRICULTURE FOR SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS IN UGANDA **47**

5.0	Introduction	47
5.1	Sustainable Livelihoods	48
5.2	The State of Urban Agriculture in Uganda	48
5.3	Policy Framework for Urban Agriculture in Uganda	49
5.4	Description of Urban Agriculture in Kampala	53
5.5	Urban Agriculture and Sustainable Livelihoods in Kampala	54
5.5.1	Urban agriculture, food security and nutrition	55
5.5.2	Urban Agriculture and Sustainable Resource Management	55
5.5.3	Urban agriculture and household incomes	56
5.6	Risks and Constraints of Urban Agricultural Practices in Uganda	56
5.7	Recommendations	58
5.8	Conclusion	59

CHAPTER 6 **61**

UPSCALING HOUSEHOLD INCOMES AND INVESTMENT IN URBAN UGANDA: CHALLENGES AND PROSPECTS **61**

6.0	Introduction	61
6.1	Background	61

6.2	Income Generation at Urban Household Level	62
6.3	Primary Factors	63
6.4	Direct Sources	64
6.5	Household Characteristics	65
6.6	Household Income Expenditure and Savings	65
6.7	Household Investments	66
6.8	Challenges and Prospects for Upscaling Household incomes and Investments	67
6.9	Roles of Various Players in Up-scaling Household Incomes	68
6.9.1	Household Heads	68
6.9.2	Private Sector	68
6.9.3	Civil Society Organizations	68
6.9.4	Urban Local Government	69
6.9.5	Development Partners	69
6.10	Policy Recommendations	69
6.11	Conclusion	70
CHAPTER 7		73
STREET CHILDREN: IMPLICATION FOR DEVELOPMENT		73
7.0	Introduction	73
7.1	Situation analysis	73
7.1.0	Street Children by Tribe/Region	73
7.1.1	Street Children by Sex	74
7.2	Causes of Street Children	74
7.3.	Development and Street Children.	75
7.3.1	Health	75
7.3.2.	Education.	75
7.3.3.	Employment.	76
7.3.4.	Political Forces	76
7.3.5	Tourism	76
7. 4.	Instruments and Commitments About Street Children.	76
7.4.1	International Instruments	76
7.4.2	National Instruments	77
7.5.	Government and Community Initiatives	77
7.5.1	Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs)	77
7.5.2	Individuals	77
7.5.3	Government	78
7.6.	Conclusion	78
7.7.	Recommendations	78
Profile of Authors of The State Of Uganda Population Report 2007		80

List of Tables

Trends of Selected Demographic, Health, Social and Development Indicies	li
Tracking Progress of Peap Targets against the Millennum Development Goals	lii
Trends of Selected Demographic, Health, Social and Development Indicies	li
Tracking Progress of PEAP Targets against the Millennum Development Goals	lii
Table 1.1 Trends in Urban Population in Uganda, 1980 – 2002	3
Table 3.1: Urban Access to Safe Water Supply	23
Table 3.2: Current Status of Household Water Supply in Kampala	24
Table 3.3: The Gap Regarding Water Supply in Kampala	24
Table: 3.4: Sanitation Quality Gap for Refuse Disposal for Selected Households in Uganda: A Case of Kampala Central Division	26
Table 3.5: Methods of Solid Waste Disposal among the Urban Population	27
Table 3.6: The Gap between the Expected Standards of Refuse Disposal and the Reality	28
Table 3.7: Sanitation Quality Gap for Drainage for Selected Households in Kampala	28
Table 3.8: Possible Environment Impacts Associated with Urbanization	30
Table 4.1: Poverty and inequality by spatial subgroup, 1992 to 2003	40
Table 5.2 Actors and Major Projects in Urban Agriculture in Uganda	52
Table 5.3 Farming category by income group	54
Table 5.4 Types of urban farmers in Kampala City	54
Table 5.5: The Major Constraints by Percentage Faced by Urban Farmers	57
Table 5.6 Size of Land Used for Urban Agriculture in Selected Municipalities in	57
Table 6.1: Median Monthly Nominal Wages for Employees ('000)	65
Table 6.2: Percentage of Household Expenditure by Item Groups	66
Table 6.3: Percentage of Households Owning Selected Assets, 2002	66
Table 7.1 Street Children by Sex	74

List of Figure

Figure 1.1 Urban Growth Corridor in Uganda	4
Figure 1.2 Percent Distribution of Urban Population by Age	5
Figure 4.1: Urban – Rural HIV Prevalence	36
Figure 5.1 Actors in Urban Agriculture in Uganda	51
Figure 6.1: Percentage Distribution of Urban Households by Income class	62
Figure 6.2: Conceptual Framework for Generating Household Income and Investment	63
Figure 7.1: Reasons cited by Street Children for leaving Home	75

FOREWORD

Government of Uganda has remained committed to improving the quality of life of her population through various efforts to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the objectives of the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP). The multi-sectoral approach remains the most preferred mechanism to raise commitment across society. Considering the recent decline in infant mortality from 83 per 1,000 live births in 2001 to 76 per 1,000 live births in 2006. This maternal mortality from 505 per 100,000 live births in 2001 to 435 per 100,000 live births in 2006, the achievement has come about as a result of involvement and participation of leaders at all levels.

The State of Uganda Population Report 2007, therefore, is a significant document and presents an opportunity to all policy makers and development planners to pay attention to issues that require serious national response as well as planning based on empirical evidence in relation to population needs. The report, over time, has aimed at increasing the understanding of the inter-linkages between population growth and development in broader terms by highlighting various needs of the population at different levels including national, local government and household levels. Given the fact that Uganda's population will continue to grow, there remains much work to be done collectively in order to plan for it and achieve our development goals.

The Poverty Eradication Action Plan, which is under implementation, provides an essential roadmap for the nation as it gives a harmonized and multi-sectoral response to poverty reduction by increasing the incomes of the poor and ensuring macro economic stability. This requires consistent commitment by all multilateral and bilateral partners, civil society organizations as well as households and the numerous community-based organizations. Each has a valuable contribution to make towards the national response to the question of the available resources to meet the demands for provision of quality services to the people like health infrastructure, housing and sanitation, nutrition, food security and employment opportunities.

I wish to acknowledge the strong leadership Population Secretariat has displayed as the highest coordinating body for population-related activities in the country including the production of this report. Over time, the Population Secretariat has done a commendable job of bringing population issues and priorities into one consolidated national document through a participatory and consultative process. I therefore urge all those involved in national responses to sustain their effort and plan for the population of Uganda. All interventions should bring about desired change in as far as the quality of life of the people is concerned.

Collectively, we can make a significant impact in providing quality services and improving the quality of life of the population.



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The State of Uganda Population Report development process is a result of many multi-sectoral consultative meetings under the leadership of Population Secretariat. We therefore recognize the fundamental input of all stakeholders who participated in the production of this report. This year's report focuses on urbanization in Uganda and shows the current population trends and dynamics as well as the need to continue planning based on reliable population data to provide quality services for the population at various levels. Seven priority areas have been identified in this report, namely: overview of urbanization in Uganda, population growth and infrastructure development, urbanization and environmental health, the challenges of HIV/AIDS in urban settings, urban agriculture for sustainable livelihoods in Uganda, up-scaling household incomes and investment in urban Uganda: challenges and prospects and street children: implications for development.

It is not possible to mention every one but we are particularly grateful to the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) for their continued support and complementary role to the Country Population Programme. The UNFPA has remained a key development partner in an effort to improve the quality of life of the population. Population Secretariat further wishes to recognize and appreciate the role of the authors of the chapters of this report and urge all stakeholders to commit themselves to using this report as a planning guide for programming for the population. Special thanks go to Ms. Sylvia Nabanoba for providing editorial guidance to the report.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS	-	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AMREF	-	African Medical Research Foundation
ANC	-	Ante Natal Care
APR	-	Annual Programme Review
ARH	-	Adolescent Reproductive Health
ASRH	-	Adolescent Sexual Reproductive Health
BCC	-	Behaviour Change Communication
CCA	-	Common Country Assessment
CP	-	Country Programme
CPAP	-	Country Programme Action Plan
CSOs	-	Civil Society Organizations
CSTs	-	Community Support Teams
DFID	-	Department for International Development
DTPC	-	District Technical Planning Committee
DPU	-	District Planning Unit
EmOC	-	Emergency Obstetric Care
FGC	-	Female Genital Cutting
FP	-	Family Planning
FPAU	-	Family Planning Association of Uganda
GBV	-	Gender-Based Violence
GoU	-	Government of Uganda
HIV	-	Human Immuno-deficiency Virus
HSSP	-	Health Sector Strategic Plan
ICPD	-	International Conference on Population and Development
IEC	-	Information, Education and Communication
IPs	-	Implementing Partners
KAP	-	Knowledge, Attitude and Practice
MDGs	-	Millennium Development Goals
M&E	-	Monitoring and Evaluation
M&EF	-	Monitoring and Evaluation Framework
METC	-	Monitoring and Evaluation Technical Committee
MIS	-	Management Information System
MoES	-	Ministry of Education and Sports
MoFPED	-	Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development
MoGLSD	-	Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development
MoH	-	Ministry of Health
MoJCA	-	Ministry of Justice and Constitutional Affairs
MoLG	-	Ministry of Local Government
MOV	-	Means of Verification
MP	-	Member of Parliament
MTR	-	Mid-Term Review
N/A	-	Not Available
NAS	-	National AIDS Strategy
NEPAD	-	New Partnership for African Development
NGO	-	Non Governmental Organization

NHS	-	National Household Survey
NPP	-	National Population Policy
NSD	-	National Service Delivery
NWSC	-	National Water and Sewerage Corporation
OVC	-	Orphan and other Vulnerable Children
OVI	-	Objectively Verifiable Indicators
PAC	-	Post Antenatal Care
PCM	-	Project Component Managers
PEAP	-	Poverty Eradication Action Plan
PLWA	-	People Living with HIV/AIDS
PME	-	Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation
POA	-	Programme of Action
POPSEC	-	Population Secretariat
PROMEP	-	Programme for Monitoring and Evaluation Plan
PRSP	-	Poverty Reduction Strategic Plan
RBM	-	Result Based Management
REACH	-	Reproductive Educative and Community Health
RRF	-	Results and Resources Framework
RH	-	Reproductive Health
RH&R	-	Reproductive Health and Rights
ROM	-	Result-Oriented Management
SD	-	Service Delivery
SDPs	-	Service Delivery Points
SGBV	-	Sexually-Gender Based Violence
SRH	-	Sexual and Reproductive Health
STDs	-	Sexually Transmitted Diseases
STI	-	Sexually Transmitted Infections
TOR	-	Terms of Reference
UAC	-	Uganda AIDS Commission
UBOS	-	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UDHS	-	Uganda Demographic and Health Survey
UNDAF	-	United Nations Development Assistance Framework
UNDP	-	United Nations Development Fund
UNFPA	-	United Nations Population Fund
UNHS	-	Uganda National Household Survey
UMI	-	Uganda Management Institute
URSB	-	Uganda Registration Services Bureau

CHAPTER 1



OVERVIEW OF URBANIZATION IN UGANDA

1.0 Introduction

Urbanization is the process through which the proportion of a country's population that lives in urban areas increases (World Resources, 1996-97). Urban centers include cities, municipalities and town councils. A town, on the other hand, is a community of people ranging from a few hundred to several thousands, although it may be applied loosely even to huge metropolitan areas. A municipality is an administrative entity composed of a clearly defined territory and its population and commonly referring to a city, town, village, or a small grouping of them. A city, on the other hand, is more than just large numbers of people living in close proximity to one another; it is a complex political, economic, and social entity (World Resources, 1996-97).

In Uganda, the Local Government Act 2002 gazetted certain areas as urban and made Kampala the only city and other urban centers as municipalities or town councils, making a total of 75 urban areas irrespective of the population concentration. All district headquarters are urban areas by law because they are located in town councils and all town councils are urban areas. It is important to note that there are many centers with urban tendencies that are not gazetted.

However, in Uganda the definition of urban areas has been changing over time. The 2002 Census defined urban areas as gazetted cities, municipalities and town councils as per the Local Government Act 2000, while the earlier censuses included ungazetted trading centres with more than 1,000 people as part of the urban population (UBOS 2005).

1.1 Evolution of Urban Centres and Government Policy

The roots of urbanization in Uganda can be traced to the 1890s when the European footprint in the country started to be felt – a period that defined Uganda's spatial and urban development pattern. With the building of

the Kenya - Uganda Railway, economic and administrative centres were established. Nothing much has changed from this pattern after the independence period, except where additional districts have been created.

The railway line accelerated the growth of urban centres such as Tororo, Kasese, and Gulu. Colonial policy also regarded towns as centres of non-African settlement and shaped legislation and administration. Later, the colonial government set up administrative centres in various parts of the country to stabilize most settlements, which laid the foundation for the earlier growth of urban centres (Isolo Mukwaya, 2004).

In the 1960s, Uganda had a deliberate policy on industrialization at regional level with the aim of developing urban areas, creating employment opportunities to absorb the in-migration from rural areas and also empowering them economically. Most of these urban centres developed without proper planning. The legal instrument in place at that time and to-date is the Town and Country Planning Act of 1964, which provided for planning standards for built-up spaces in urban areas and land uses. The Act emphasized the need for development to precede planning in urban areas.

Following the decentralization policy of 1993, the Government also decentralized the planning authorities. This had an impact on planning for the urban lands because landlords could subdivide their land without giving due consideration for urban-based infrastructure and services like water pipelines, power lines, access roads, and underground communication cables. This therefore paved the way for haphazard growth of urban areas, affecting orderly urban development.

Urban development was further affected by the land tenure system reforms, which reduced the powers of Urban Councils to develop urban land. Initially, urban land was entrusted to the Urban Councils, and they had powers to secure land, plan and develop it, but land reform and the enactment of the Land Act, 1998, entrusted the land to the people. Any development on urban land necessitates compensating the bonafide occupants yet urban authorities are financially constrained to provide for urban-based infrastructure and amenities. This has resulted in the growth of squatter settlements and shanty towns.

Uganda has not developed an urbanization policy, although it has a newly created Ministry for Lands, Housing and Urban Development. Originally, the relevant departments, namely: Human Settlement, Services, Financing, Development/Construction and Estates Management were distributed among the following line ministries: Works, Transport and Communication (Housing and Human Settlement), Local Government (Urban Development and Inspectorate) and Lands, Water and Environment (Physical Planning and Approval). The distribution of these core functions and roles for planning, supervision, monitoring and advisory services has affected the institutional framework and rendered it dysfunctional as each operates independent of the other.

1.2 Trends and Patterns of Urbanization in Uganda

Urbanization in Uganda is extremely low compared to its neighbours Kenya and Tanzania, which had 20 percent and 22 percent respectively of their population living in urban areas in 2002. Meanwhile, in the same

year, the population of Uganda was predominantly rural with 88 percent living in rural areas, leaving about 12 percent in the urban areas as illustrated in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1 Trends in Urban Population in Uganda, 1980 - 2002

Census Year	Population (Millions)		Percent of Population in Urban Areas	Urban Growth Rate (%)
	Urban	Total		
1980	0.84	12.6	6.7	-
1991	1.65	16.7	9.9	6.1
2002	3.00	24.2	12.3	5.1

Note: The information for the 1980 and 1991 censuses has been recast to the 2002 definition of urban population, and is therefore different from figures published in earlier reports. Source: The 2002 Population and Housing Census, UBOS

Table 1.1 above shows that the urban population in Uganda has increased rapidly from less than one million persons in 1980 to 3 million in 2002, indicating a more than three-fold increase. During the same period, the share of the population that lived in urban areas increased from 6.7 percent to 12.3 percent. The urban population was characterized by a high growth rate of 5.1 percent between 1991 and 2002. The 2005/06 Uganda National Household Survey also reported an increase in the urban population by 15.4 percent, which further confirms the census finding.

Regional variations exist in the distribution of the urban population. The level of urbanization is still very low in most of the regions with the exception of the Central region, which had 25 percent of its population residing in urban areas in 2002. The other three regions had very low levels ranging between 7 percent and 10 percent. The high level of urbanization in the Central region is due to Kampala City being the prime urban area. When Kampala is excluded from the Central region, the level of urbanization of the region falls from 25 percent to 9 percent. The level of urbanization rose substantially in the Northern region (from 5% to 9%) between 1991 and 2002 but declined in the Central and Eastern regions (UBOS 2002).

The percentage of the population in urban areas as enumerated in 2002 showed that 8 districts (Kampala, Luwero, Mukono, Busia, Jinja, Gulu, Kitgum and Nebbi) had urbanization rates above the national level (12.3%) (UBoS, 2002). The 2002 census clearly indicated that Kampala is 100 percent urban with a population of 1.2 million and is the largest urban center, followed by Gulu municipality with a population of only 0.1 million. It is also evident that the major urban areas in Uganda fall within what could be described as the “urban corridor”, and are a reflection of the colonial policy of infrastructure development, especially the construction of the Kenya – Uganda railway as shown in figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1 Urban Growth Corridor in Uganda



1.3 Factors Affecting Urbanization

- Population dynamics manifested in urban population growth and internal migration (especially rural to urban) are by far the most significant causes of urban expansion (Dhendra Kumar, World resource, Shauib Lwasa 2002).
- Persistent rural poverty that causes people to migrate to urban areas with the hope of improving their livelihood partly explains the urban population growth rate for some districts. For example, the decline in the urbanization rate of the Eastern region is partly due to out-migration from these towns to other towns in search for employment.
- Political/civil insecurity is another factor that has led to the increased urbanization rate in the Northern region. Insecurity has displaced a number of people, resulting into a large influx of the population relocating to urban areas for protection. This causal factor explains why Gulu and Lira Municipalities were among the largest urban areas in Uganda in 2002.
- Additional land that was allocated to some urban areas when they were being gazetted into urban areas, especially in the new districts, has led to the high urbanization rate in some of the gazetted urban areas. This is because people move, buy land and build in the urban areas.
- Proximity to Kampala City, due to insufficient accommodation in Kampala- A number of individuals

who work in the city have opted to reside in the neighbouring suburbs and towns in Mukono and Wakiso Districts, thus increasing their urban population.

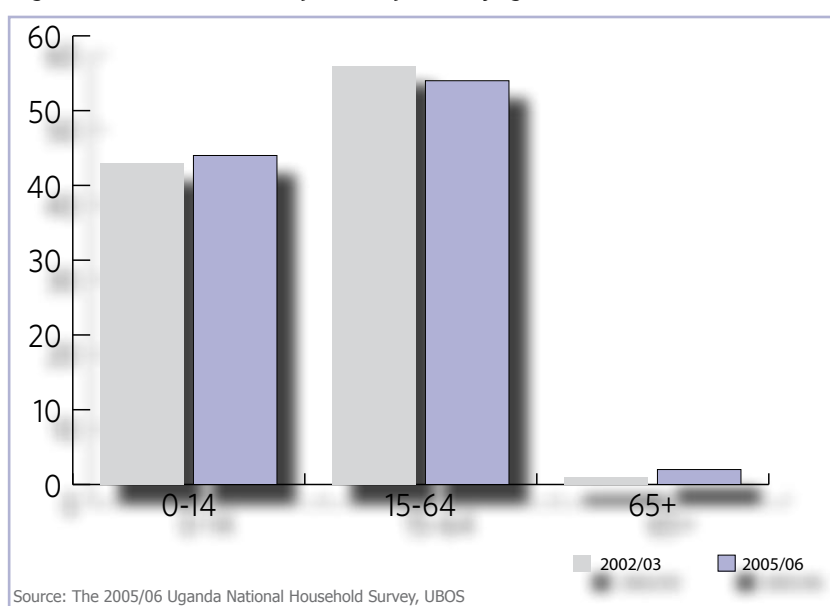
- The remarkable economic growth and political stability over the last decade have led to the expansion of existing urban centers, in particular Kampala, and the growing of hundreds of small trading centres in the countryside, particularly along highways and major road junctions.
- Policies for the economic transformation of Uganda which have been mainly pursued from and around the urban areas for example industrialization, are partly responsible for urban expansion. For instance, Tristar and Mukwano Group of Companies were put up in Kampala and not elsewhere yet they provide employment to many who may not necessarily have high levels of education and can be found in the rural communities.

1.4 Social Demographic Characteristics of the Urban Population

The median age of the urban population is higher (18.3 years) than that of the rural population (14.2 years), implying that the urban population is relatively older than the rural population. This can partly be due to migration of the relatively older rural population to urban centres in search of employment, leaving behind the very young and very old. On the other hand, the proportion of the older persons (65+ years) in rural areas of 4.9 percent was more than two times their urban counterparts of 2.4 percent.

Figure 1.2 shows that more than half of the urban population in Uganda today is a working population (15 to 64 years). There was a slight reduction in the proportion of the working population from 56 percent in 2002 to 54 percent as reported in the UNHS 2005/06. Over the same period, a 1 percent increase in the non-working population (0-14 and 65+ years) was registered, leading to a slight increase in the age dependency ratio from 80 to 85. However, it remained lower than that for the rural areas (UBOS 2006).

Figure 1.2 Percent Distribution of Urban Population by Age



The 2002 census showed that the urban unemployment rate of 5.4 percent was more than two times the rural one of 2.0 percent. The majority of the urban population was employed as service workers (34 percent).

Since the urban population has increased, the number of households and average household size in the urban areas has also increased over the last three surveys of the UNHS (1999/00, 2002/03, and 2005/06). This implies that although some of the people who move to the urban areas make their own households, some live with others, hence the increase in household size.

On the contrary, housing indicators in Uganda are generally better for the urban areas compared to the rural. For instance, the percentage of overcrowded dwellings (i.e. with more than 2 persons per room) is lower in the urban (49%) compared to the rural (56%) (UBoS 2006).

About one in three urban households is headed by a female. The proportion of female-headed households was higher in urban areas (28 percent) than in rural areas (22 percent) as of the 2002 census. The UNHS 2005/6 revealed that female-headed households at national level have reduced from 36 percent to 29 percent since 2002.

It is believed that urbanization has a bearing on the level of educational attainment. The UNHS 2005/06 shows that the proportion of people without any formal education was higher in the rural areas (23%) compared to the urban areas (9%). Similarly, a higher proportion of urban residents (10%) are more likely to complete post-secondary education than their rural counterparts. Kampala stands out with the highest proportion of people who had completed post-secondary education (12%). Generally, literacy rates are higher in the urban areas compared to rural areas.

The proportion of the urban population who report illness increased from 28% to 33% (2002 to 2006). However the rate was lower for the rural population. More urban dwellers use clinics and hospitals than health centres probably because these facilities are more available in the urban areas than in the rural areas. This gives an indication of the health status and health seeking behavior of the urban population.

Urbanization is associated with high consumption expenditure as revealed by household survey findings where consumption expenditure per household is reported to be more than double that of the rural households. Choice and patterns of expenditure also differ for urban dwellers. They spend more on rent, fuel and energy, transport and communication, and education compared to their rural counterparts.

Poverty levels in the urban areas have remained the same over the two survey years at 14% (2002 and 2006), with a slight increase in the absolute number of the poor from 0.5 million to 0.6 million. Similarly, the poverty gap which relates to the cost of reducing urban poverty using transfers has marginally reduced from 3.9 to 3.5 percent.

Children in urban areas are less likely to stay with their biological parents compared to their rural counterparts. The UNHS also showed that orphans were more likely to live in urban areas than rural areas.

1.5 Challenges of Urbanization

Land ownership in the urban areas is a viable lucrative business with unrestricted sale opportunities. Land has been turned into a commodity, leading to the conversion of environmentally sensitive land to development projects with serious social and health consequences (Shaiub Lwasa, MWLE 2002). This has made environmental conditions very appalling. Accessibility to environmental services now ranges from total inadequacy to non-existence in most urban areas. Inadequate planning or lack of it in some urban areas and the resultant development in inappropriate areas such as open spaces, swamps, and steep slopes is causing serious health problems, such as water pollution and disease outbreaks.

The increased rate of urbanization without proper planning has made it difficult and posed a challenge for government to ensure provision of adequate housing, water and other amenities for many low income urban dwellers. The level and quality of services does not proportionately match the needs of the population in many urban areas in the country (Shaiub Lwasa, MWLE 2002).

If the present rate of urban population growth continues unabated, the demand for housing and other urban-based social services and utilities will proliferate and cause financial difficulties for districts and Urban Local Governments. This will culminate in the growth of squatter settlements and shanty towns (slums).

Urban areas in Uganda have experienced problems of service provision. The level and quality of services do not match the needs of the population in many urban areas. For instance Kampala city's daytime population almost doubles the night population, meaning that many of those who work and do other errands in Kampala reside outside the city. This puts pressure on the public facilities and transportation system in the urban centre/city during the day. While the city has to meet the demands of the commuters, government financial transfers to urban authorities are only limited to the night population for the source of information used for government transfers is the population census, which considers only the night population in an area.

The incomplete separation of powers at all levels of government creates bureaucratic delays in the approval, implementation and re-development of projects in urban areas. A large part of the urban socio-economic life takes place within disaggregated constituent elements namely, civil society organizations, non-governmental organizations, community-based organizations, tribal groups, private sector, civil society and informal sector. Conflicts of interest between politicians and bureaucrats in urban authorities also make the efficient running of urban affairs difficult.

One of the most important challenges for urban development in developing countries such as Uganda is transportation planning. The challenge is how to plan for the increasing importation of second-hand vehicles in the country, especially in Kampala city, which in essence has created high levels of traffic congestion, parking difficulties, difficulties for pedestrians and massive air pollution (Shaiub Lwasa, MWLE 2002). The immediate and obvious effect to the economy is the loss of labour hours as most people report to work late.

Urbanization breeds a number of complex social problems that arise from a shortage of living space and a high cost of living leading to the break up of the joint family system. That thus destroys the values, culture and

principles of a society and leads to crimes, violence and prostitution. This consequently increases pressure on the police force. The ever growing urban centers, especially the cities, face a shortage of administrative and police force during certain occasions such as emergency situations and strikes.

1.6 Policy Recommendations

Urbanization should be regarded as a condition for, and the result of development (MLWE 2002). Urban authorities must therefore work with local and traditional management systems and structures already in place to create functionally efficient urban systems, the can adequately serve as engines of national growth and development.

The role of local urban authorities as defined by the 1964 Urban Authorities Act, refined by the 1997 Local Government Act needs to be changed from just development control to include the role of guidance. The aim is to effect urban planning basing on the needs of the urban population and adapt to new challenges.

Urban areas are environmental “hot spots” which require special attention, not only from a local perspective but also from a global perspective.

There is a greater need for infrastructural development in urban areas in order to remove crowding and pollution. Besides the public authorities, private enterprises should be permitted to undertake widening of roads; constructing flyovers, bridges and new roads; plying of city buses and other means of transport and new houses for low income earners.

Although keeping law and order in Uganda is the responsibility of the police, residents in urban centers can reduce on the crime rates by establishing civil protection systems in their respective areas through pooling resources under the guidance of the government.

To reduce congestion and overcrowding, there should be dispersal of industries by establishing new industrial areas in other districts in the peripheral of Kampala city. However, this implies that all urban facilities be provided there.

It is imperative to create larger employment opportunities in the rural areas by setting up food processing and other industries. Besides a good network of transport and communication should be laid for the movement of labour, farm produce and industrial raw materials from the rural to urban areas. All these measures will help in developing rural areas and prevent people from settling permanently in urban areas.

1.7 Conclusion

There are many urban centres which are not officially gazetted. If these are gazetted and included in the urban population, the level of urbanization in 2002 will be higher (UBOS 2002). Urban change is a reality and a continuous process in Uganda influenced by local and global trends, thus creating continued pressure on infrastructure and other services as well as environmental conditions in urban areas.

Deteriorating health conditions in most urban areas are attributed to the poor sanitation conditions, inadequate

waste management efforts and prevalence of pollutants due to high energy consumption and existence of a dense network of dusty roads.

The overall picture of the urban areas in Uganda is that of a systemic crisis. The urban system is not only failing to meet the demands of the rapid population growth within the context of poverty and marginalization, but its own basis for sustainability is also largely wanting in many ways such as support supervision, availability of personnel to plan based on statistics and ability to provide quality services.

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CHAPTER 2



POPULATION GROWTH AND INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT

2.0 Introduction

The population of Uganda is currently estimated to be 28.3 million people, having increased from 24.2 million in 2002 at an average annual growth rate of 3.2%. 12.3% of this population is in the urban areas while 87.7% is still living in the rural areas. Although the urbanization level is still low, the 5.1% urban population growth rate is very high and has far-reaching implications on the future development prospects of Uganda. This trend will continue to place serious demands on land, infrastructure, services, housing and above all food requirements. If this goes on unchecked, Uganda's urban centres will increasingly suffer from overcrowding or congestion; slums and informal settlements; housing shortage; urban poverty; unemployment; inadequate urban infrastructural services like health facilities, schools, roads and amenities; and escalating environmental degradation and pollution.

2.1 The Status of Housing Conditions

According to the Uganda Population and Housing Census (2002), the housing conditions were generally substandard: more than 70% of the dwelling units were built out of temporary building materials that cannot maintain their stability for more than three years. The proportion in rural areas was as high as 80% compared to 27% in the urban areas. Units built out of permanent materials constituted 60% in the urban areas compared to only 10% in the rural areas. The housing conditions of a given household are directly related to the level of affordability. In urban areas, more than 56% of the dwelling units were occupied by tenants compared to about 30% which were owner occupiers.

The 2005/06 National Household Survey indicated that tenements (“Mizigo”) accounted for 64.3% of the dwelling units in Kampala, while in Northern Uganda, two out of every three households were living in huts compared to one out of every three in Eastern Uganda. The Western and Central regions had the highest percentage of households living in detached dwellings.

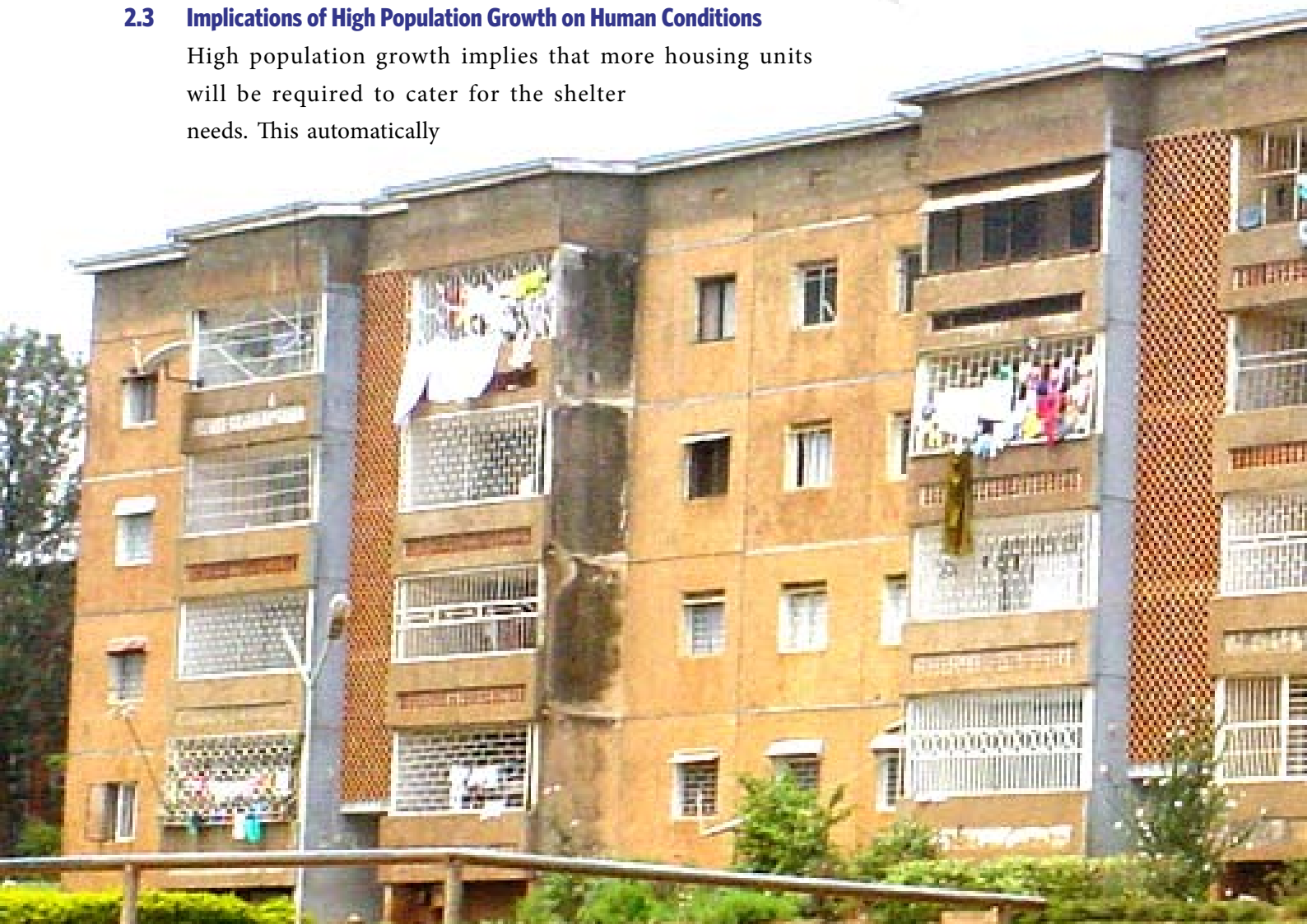
The Population and Housing Census (2002) indicated a sharing ratio of 1.3 household per housing unit, which translates into a housing shortage for 30% of the households in Uganda. The deficit is attributed to homelessness and high levels of overcrowding or sharing among the existing housing units. Overall, 48.8% of the dwelling units are overcrowded in the urban areas compared to 56.1% in the rural areas. The implication of this scenario in terms of land, building materials, financial resources and infrastructural services required is a big challenge.

2.2 Housing Needs

Currently, it is estimated that Uganda has approximately 6 million households living in 4.5 million housing units. At national level, there is a backlog of about 1.6 million units of which 211,000 units are in the urban areas and 1.295 million units are in the rural areas. Assuming the urban population growth rate is maintained at 5.1% in urban areas and 3.2% for the national population, then by the year 2035, Uganda will have a population of 73.5 millions of which 16.7 million will be in the urban and 56.8 million in rural areas.

2.3 Implications of High Population Growth on Human Conditions

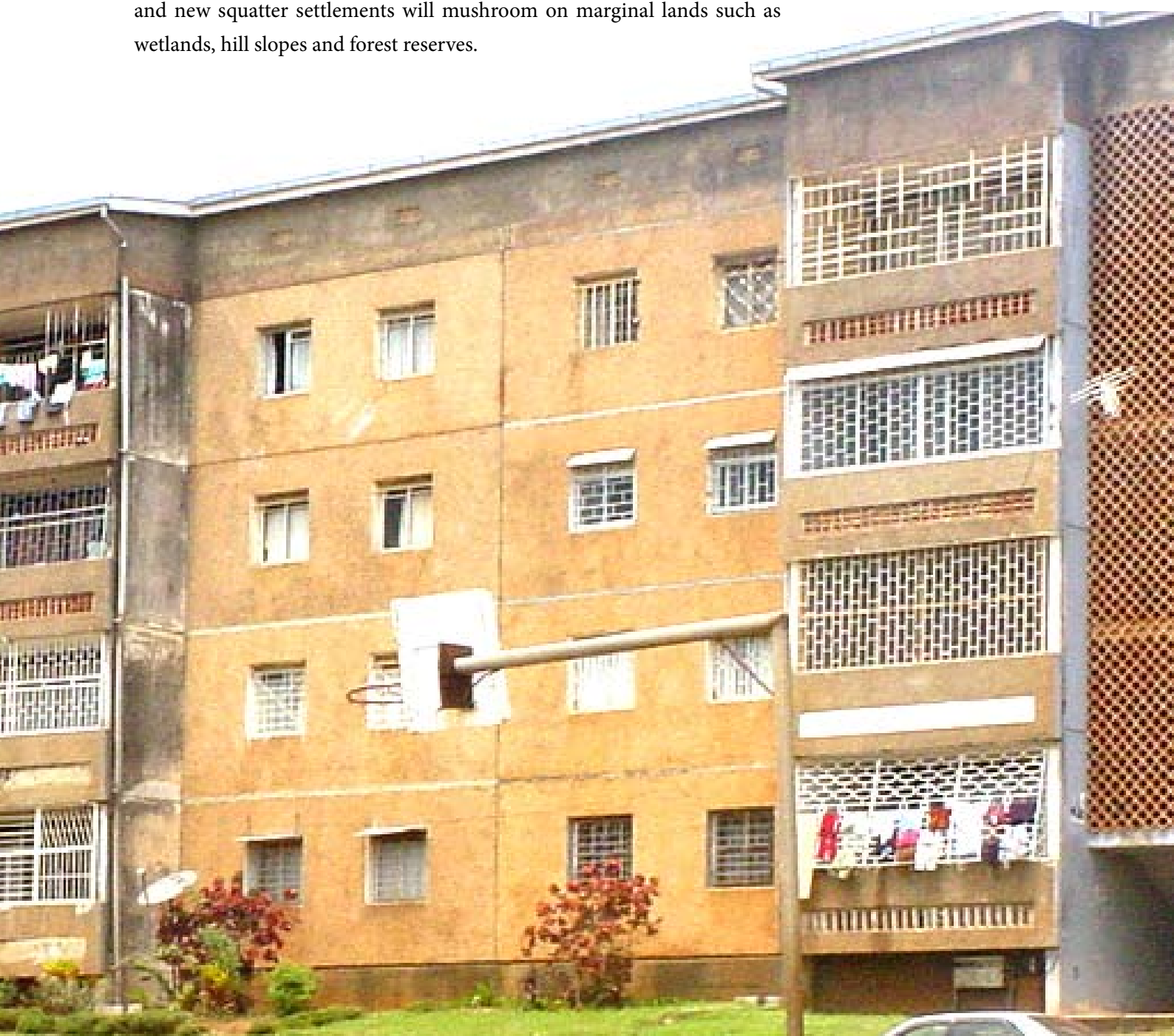
High population growth implies that more housing units will be required to cater for the shelter needs. This automatically



translates into increased demand for the necessary basic inputs into housing development. This section elucidates the implications of increased population on land, building materials, financial resources, labour and generally infrastructure.

2.3.1 Land Requirements

Land is a limited resource and is currently used for agriculture, settlements, environmental conservation and recreation. Increased demand for housing will increase demand for land. Land fragmentation will increase, which will ultimately result into low agricultural productivity and hence exacerbate food insecurity and poverty status. In the urban areas, however, more informal settlements will expand to unprecedented scales to absorb the increasing population, particularly of the underemployed and unemployed urban poor. With inadequate capacity to plan, guide and enforce development control, besides managing the present levels of urban growth, it is envisaged that the informal settlements will become more densely populated and new squatter settlements will mushroom on marginal lands such as wetlands, hill slopes and forest reserves.



- *There is therefore need for a national land use policy, plan and laws should declare the whole country a planning area and only permit human settlements within specific designated areas. This would then free the rest of arable land for large-scale commercial agriculture that can generate both employment for the rural population and increase agricultural productivity.*
- *Secondly, there is urgent need to review the land tenure law with the view of enhancing access to land for planned use and ensuring effective regulation of its use, given that it is a limited resource.*
- *There is need to seriously promote and support vertical housing development in order to optimize the use of land and minimize the cost of service provision since many more households will benefit from the same infrastructural investments.*

2.3.2 Building Materials Requirements

In order to deliver more housing units to meet the needs of the population, more building materials such as bricks, sand, cement, timber and iron sheets will be required. The implications of increased demand for such materials include the following:

- Since bricks and clay tiles are made from clay and soil, we envisage more clay pits being dug up, leaving gullies and water-logged pits which serve as breeding grounds for mosquitoes. These are responsible for spreading malaria fever, which is now the number one killer in Uganda.
- On the other hand, more wood resources will be consumed in burning bricks. This will accelerate the already high rates of deforestation that will subsequently have an adverse effect on the climate and the environment generally.
- Thirdly, the demand for timber for house construction will exacerbate further the rates of deforestation. If no serious plans are undertaken to plant more trees, the natural stock of wood resources will be depleted much earlier than anticipated and of course the cost of timber will increase as the supply reduces.

- *Government should provide incentives to attract local investment in production of building materials*
- *There should be an aggressive campaign to encourage afforestation programmes in order to meet the escalating demand for wood fuel and timber needed in the housing industry.*
- *There is need to make a bye-law that obliges every household in especially the rural areas to plant and nurture a garden of trees for purposes of sustaining supply of wood fuel resources.*
- *There is need to build capacity for strict enforcement of the environment laws and regulations relating to protection of the environment, especially the wetlands and forests.*
- *Promote the use of cement and lime stabilized soil blocks to reduce on the consumption of wood resources for purposes of burning bricks.*

- The demand for imported items including cement, iron sheets, tiles, etc. will also increase accordingly, putting more pressure on the foreign reserves for purposes of importing the building materials.

2.3.3 More Financial Resources Required

Inadequate financial resources for both real estate developers and end buyers are one of the major constraints affecting housing development in Uganda. This is attributed partly to lack of long-term domestic savings that would provide the badly needed mortgage finance. The majority of Ugandans have very poor propensity to save in the long term. They normally carry out their transactions in cash. This has denied the financial sector the needed capital for long-term mortgage financing.

The financial institutions, including government, have not done enough to attract long-term savings. The interest rate paid on the deposits is a mere 5% while that levied on the loans is above 18% per annum. This is a disincentive to the depositors as it is a sure way of losing one's hard earned income. Instead people prefer to finance their house construction directly from their incomes even if it takes up to ten years. In essence, if all the capital invested in such dead stock were to be made available, there would be sufficient resources to sustain the mortgage industry. Lack of developer financing has crippled the formal private sector to such an extent that its contribution to housing delivery is very insignificant.

2.3.4 Labour and Skills Requirements

Housing construction is a labour-intensive activity and normally employs substantial amounts of labour, both skilled and unskilled. The level of housing needs arising from population growth is so high that conventional modes of construction cannot deliver adequate numbers to meet the need. It is therefore necessary to promote prefabrication of building components to facilitate mass production of housing units. Currently, the construction sector has attracted unqualified personnel who claim to be skilled and have been responsible for numerous construction accidents arising from their unethical practices and technical errors.

2.4 Access to Infrastructure and Services

The 2005/06 UNHS showed a slight improvement with regard to access to certain infrastructural services, although generally access is still limited depending on residence or regional disparities. It is worth noting that Government has accorded priority to the funding of water and sanitation improvement, road maintenance, rural electrification, the Universal Primary Education and Universal Secondary Education, and improvement of health facilities. However, increase in the population due to the high population growth rate has over stretched the available capacities of service delivery to the extent that accessibility to services is hampered.

2.4.1 Access to Safe Water

Uganda is well endowed with fresh water lakes and rivers. Uganda's surface area is covered by about 15.3% open water bodies. However, there are great disparities in availability and use within the country because the water resources are unevenly distributed. Much of the fresh water comes from seasonal rains. The rainfall pattern greatly influences the local land-use pattern and management, which in turn influences population distribution. Uganda receives an average annual total rainfall ranging between 700 mm in the semi-arid areas

of Karamoja to 2000 mm on the islands of Kalangala in Lake Victoria. The second source of freshwater is the groundwater resources (NEMA, 2001). There are also an estimated 9,000 natural springs of which 2,300 are protected. It is estimated that approximately 20,000 more boreholes will be required in order to meet the projected future demands. National Water and Sewerage Corporation is the principal provider of water in 19 major urban centres. It supplies 1.4 million customers with 150 million litres per day. Service coverage for safe drinking water in urban areas served increased from 63% to 65% as at June 2004. Water provision in small towns and rural areas is the responsibility of the Directorate of Water Development (DWD). Generally, there has been a steady increase in improved access to safe water. DWD's target is to supply 20 litres of safe and clean water per person per day and water sources must be situated within a walking distance.

- *There is need for reconsideration to lower the Treasury Bill rates to encourage financial institutions to make available more resources, particularly for developer financing.*
- *There is need for reconsideration of government policy regarding provision of guarantees to enable financial institutions access cheap offshore investment capital for mortgage financing.*
- *Failure of the market to address housing for the low income earners has contributed to the mushrooming of informal settlements. There is therefore need for public support for the development of appropriate schemes to meet the needs of the low income earners and the poor.*
- *There is need for aggressive mobilisation of capital through the Capital Market. Besides, there is need to operationalise a Secondary Mortgage Market to help free capital locked up in mortgages for further onlending.*
- *There is need for public support to build capacity of the private real estate developers to enable them build sufficient houses to meet the needs within the shortest possible time. They should be facilitated to acquire capacity for mass production of housing units to meet the current needs. For instance in Kampala, a single house should be built every four minutes or 15 houses per day if we are to meet the needs of the increased population.*

2.4.2 Sanitation

The sanitation situation in Uganda has registered some improvement over the years. The percentage of households that did not have access to proper sanitation reduced from 22% in 1992 to 11% in 2005, while that using pit latrines increased from 75% to 88% over the same period. The widespread use of pit latrines has a bearing on the contamination of the underground water sources. It is not surprising that virtually all springs and wells in Kampala are contaminated. The percentage of households using flush toilets actually reduced from 2% in 1992 to 1.1% in 2005.

There is therefore need to increase training opportunities for the building technicians and technical professionals needed in the construction of the housing units.

Currently the coverage of the main sewer network is only 8% in the towns that are served by the NWSC. The rest of the areas are not accessible to the main sewer. Plans are underway to increase the coverage of the sewer network. Some households (11%) did not have any toilet facility, translating into an estimated 660,000

households. This is not a small number. There is, therefore, need for sensitization programmes to increase the awareness of the population about the dangers of poor sanitation arrangements. It may also be necessary for Local Authorities to pass bye-laws to compel all households to have, use and maintain proper toilets.

2.4.3 Access to Sources of Energy

There are several sources of energy that the population in Uganda has access to; they include electricity, solar, thermal, biogas, wind, paraffin, and wood fuel. Generally, there has been an increased demand for all forms of energy with the increasing population. The results of the 2002 Population and Housing Census and the UNHS 2005/06 showed that 9 out of every 10 households in the rural areas used paraffin as their main source of energy for lighting compared to only 1 out of every 2 in the urban areas. Electricity is used by 4 out of every 10 households in urban areas. There was an increase in the percentage of households using electricity in the rural areas from 2.7% in 2002 to 4 % in 2005/06. Other sources of fuel for lighting are secondary. With regard to energy for cooking, 90 % of the households in urban areas depended on wood fuel compared to 98% in the rural areas. The percentage of households using electricity for cooking is still relatively low at 4.3% in urban areas and only 1% in rural areas.

2.4.4 Roads

Uganda has a total road length of 10,500 km of national roads, 27,500 km of district roads, 3,500 kilometres of urban roads and approximately 30,000 km of community access roads. Government has concentrated more on rehabilitation works and routine maintenance than any major new road development programme. As such, the total length of the network has virtually not increased.

2.4.5 Traffic

There are several road users who compete for the same roads, namely; motor vehicles, motor cyclists, cyclists, wheel barrow or cart pushers and pedestrians. There are no dedicated lanes for specific road users. Besides, the number of vehicles being imported and registered into Uganda has increased significantly. Between 1999 and 2003, a total of 40,000 vehicles were added to the fleet in Uganda. The trend has been increasing over the years without a corresponding increase in the road network. On the other hand, the road network was originally designed for a much smaller population which has now increased by more than five times.

It is, therefore, not surprising to experience frequent traffic jams. Traffic congestion is a common phenomenon in the major urban centres, especially Kampala city. The time spent in the traffic jam ranges from a couple of minutes to hours depending on the time of day, the season, and the condition of the road. Another contributing factor is road users who do not have regard for the traffic regulations. Besides the poor state of some roads, road marks and signs are defaced and in some places are lacking. As a result, the rate of road accidents has increased.

On the other hand, the number of vehicles in Uganda has increased tremendously over the last twenty years. It is estimated that on average 20,000 vehicles are imported and registered in Uganda annually. This implies that Ugandan roads are increasingly becoming more congested every other day. This has serious implications

on the time spent while going to places of work let alone increased fuel consumption, which translates into more dollars required to import more fuel to meet the increased demand.

2.5 Policy Framework

In Uganda, just like in many other developing countries today, the provision of housing is the responsibility of individual households. As part of the overall economic liberalization policy, Government adopted the policy of divesting itself from the direct supply of housing units. It assumed the role of an enabler to facilitate other stakeholders to play an active role in increasing the housing stock and improving the quality of housing. Government adopted this policy framework as a result of its increasing inability to finance construction and maintenance of houses for its employees. Subsequently, Government sold the pool houses and non-core institutional houses and consolidated the housing allowance into the salaries of all its employees.

The policy of divestiture had a positive impact on the housing market as it increased home ownership and generated resources for mortgage financing to the public. A number of other interventions proposed in the policy were implemented, while others could not due to financial constraints. The housing policy is, however, now under review to enhance the role of Government as a leader to guide, stimulate, regulate and ensure the efficient and smooth operation of the housing market.

2.6 Gaps, Weaknesses and Challenges

The importance of housing is not adequately addressed in the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) and this has denied the sector the necessary resources required by Government to enable other actors to participate actively. Government would be in position to intervene, for example in land banking for housing development, funding preparations for physical development plans of all urban centres, building capacity of the urban authorities to enforce development control, funding development and maintenance of infrastructure and services and supporting low cost housing schemes for the low income earners.

Housing provision is regarded as a private sector responsibility in the PEAP document. As a result, the formal private sector has responded to the needs of the high and middle income earners, leaving the low income earners and the poor to be catered for by the informal sector. This has partly contributed to the spontaneous growth of informal settlements. An explicit national human settlements policy is lacking, the existence of which would help to influence the settlement patterns in Uganda.

The policy would clearly define the hierarchy of settlements and map out areas where settlements should be allowed; it would also set standards and guidelines for management of developments within settlement to ensure order, functionality and sustainability; and above all it would promote integration of social, economic, and environment planning with spatial planning to ensure sustainable development.

The land tenure law that vests ownership of land to the citizens of Uganda perpetuates poor land management practices such as fragmentation and environmental degradation, which eventually lead to food insecurity, landlessness and homelessness, exacerbating poverty.

- *There is therefore urgent need to carry out a nationwide campaign for tree planting to ensure sustainable supply of wood fuel for cooking.*
- *Secondly, there is need to promote development of alternative sources of energy such as wind, solar, biogas, thermal and micro hydro-electric power plants to reduce on the dependence on wood fuel and the national electric grid.*
- *Promote development, application and use of appropriate technologies and appliances that are energy efficient and cost, saving.*
- *Explore the possibility of generating electricity from volumes of solid waste that are generated in the urban areas.*
- *There is need for public support for research initiatives in the development of alternative sources of energy to safeguard the environment and save the country the millions of dollars spent in importation of petroleum.*

2.7 Policy Recommendations

- The review of the housing policy should be expedited to provide the required direction in the sector.
- There is need for long-term planning in order to realize sustainable settlements where all have secure tenure, decent housing and adequate access to the basic infrastructural services.
- There is need to put in place the necessary urban policy framework to ensure sustainable human settlements development.
- Government should create incentives to attract private sector investment capital and technical resources for settlement planning, development and management.
- On the other hand, the relevant laws relating to physical planning, building quality, safety and environmental quality should be reviewed to enhance their compliance.
- Priority should be given to strengthening the capacities of the relevant authorities to ensure effective planning, guidance and enforcement of development control.
- Urban development programmes should be implemented through partnerships and alliances between various stakeholders. Given that most of the unplanned settlements in the urban areas are found on land that was initially privately owned, it may be necessary to review the relevant policies and laws relating to the management of the urban land with the view of enhancing access to land and ensuring compliance to plans.
- There is need for institutional restructuring to bring together the departments responsible for planning, housing and urban development and merge them with the Ministry of Local Government in order to ensure effective technical supervision since the functions of planning and urban development take place at local government level.

2.8 Conclusion

It is apparent that the high population growth rate has far-reaching implications on housing and related infrastructural services. It leads to over crowding among the existing dwelling units and overstretching of the existing infrastructural services. Increased population therefore calls for more housing units to be constructed to meet the demand. More inputs such as land, building materials, finance and labour are required. While in Uganda housing provision has been left to the private sector, the needs of the low income earners and the poor are being catered for by the informal sector. There is need for public support to respond to the needs of the low income earners and the poor to avoid the mushrooming and uncontrolled growth of informal settlements whose conditions are appalling.

Widespread use of timber and wood fuel in the housing industry is noted to increase the rate of depletion of trees. This calls for serious efforts to plant more trees in order to sustain the supply to meet the demand. Alternative fuels such as agro-waste products should be promoted as well as the use of stabilization with appropriate binders.

Given the scale of housing needs, the conventional modes of housing construction cannot cope with the population increase. There is need for adoption of mass production construction technologies to prefabricate building components and deliver units on a large scale. Finally, the scattered nature of settlements in rural areas is wastes of land and undermines its potential productivity. If no serious policy interventions are taken to address the issues of high population growth, land fragmentation, growth of unstructured and unplanned settlements, uncontrolled exploitation of wood resources and failure to plan and strictly enforce development, Uganda should be prepared for increased poverty, food insecurity, landlessness, homelessness and disastrous environmental catastrophes, all of which are a good recipe for a “time bomb”.

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CHAPTER 3



URBANIZATION AND ENVIRONMENTAL HEALTH IN UGANDA

3.0 Introduction

This chapter dwells on urbanization and environmental health in Uganda. It clearly highlights the background to environmental health in urban areas in Uganda; sanitation in the urban poverty enclaves and water supply. The chapter also dwells on excreta disposal; refuse disposal; drainage; aesthetics & housing; policy & legal instruments; environmental health impacts and the way forward for improving environmental health.

3.1 Background

Urbanization and urban growth are processes that are used to define a country's development (World Bank 2005). Urbanization is therefore one of the development indicators. The assumption is that the higher the level of urbanization, the more the level of a country's development. This paper, however, argues that it is not the level of urbanization per se but the management of the urbanization process that determines the eventual benefits from the urbanization process. In Uganda, particularly Kampala, urbanization started as an indigenous process¹, making Kampala an indigenous city. Before the creation of the colonial state, the Kabaka of Buganda had established Kibuga² as an administrative centre. This process was, however, accelerated by the colonial state formation in the late 19th century. The colonial state developed Kampala as an administrative centre and this accelerated the migration en masse of the rural population who came looking for opportunities. Later, the urbanization rate surpassed the absorptive capacity of the city to provide services such as housing; safe water; drainage and solid waste management, including poor management of human excreta, all of which define the

¹ Indigenous process means that an urban centre develops by people moving into an urban area for convenience and not production purposes (production orientation). Kampala City developed through this indigenous process with people migrating into the city for convenience.

² Kibuga was the Kabaka's administrative centre and comprised the areas surrounding Kampala city.



state of environmental health. The result was deterioration of these services, leading to poor environmental health.

The civil strife and subsequent economic collapse of the 1970s & 1980s precipitated an increase in the poor population who lack means of livelihood. These predominantly live in dilapidated housing structures that lack basic infrastructure services and have poor sanitation facilities. This results in hazards such as cholera episodes, which have become rampant in Kampala city and other urban centres (MoH 2005). It is, however, clear that urbanization is an engine of growth and therefore all urban areas should ensure safety of all inhabitants and not a section of the urban population. As described by Nuwagaba (2004), urban growth is a progressive process but it must ensure sustainable environment management.

3.2 Sanitation in Urban Poverty Enclaves in Uganda

In many urban centres around the country, the living conditions threaten people's health, impose misery and have potentially catastrophic social consequences. Conditions are worse for poor people, particularly in slums. Uganda's urban growth (5.1%) has out-stripped society's capacity to meet human needs, leaving millions of people with inadequate incomes, inadequate diet and inadequate housing and other social services. This has culminated in the improper disposal of commercial and domestic waste. Most of the urban poor enclaves have poor drainage systems because this is where land is cheap and does not have value and relevance for the affluent. Persistent stagnant storm water and silage around homes characterize housing accommodation, a condition that provides an excellent habitat for disease vectors. This has goaded a pattern of health problems for both children and adults that include diseases typical of underdevelopment. The problems of environmental sanitation seem to have resulted from rapid population growth, overcrowding and high density of human settlements with congestion amidst poor social infrastructure services. It is against this background that the plight of the urban peripheral populations must be addressed as an integral part of the overall development because they affect the overall urban environment.

There seems to be a significant relationship between sanitation and spread of disease in Uganda's urban centres for example, in Kampala City, common diseases include malaria, typhoid, diarrhoea, worms, respiratory infections and cholera epidemics, all of which, to a significant extent, relate to the unsanitary conditions.

This trend is manifested in all other urban centres of Uganda. The perpetually increasing population in urban settlements results in overcrowding of dwelling units.

The settlements have been affected by waste from various activities which is not well disposed of. Poor sanitation has also negatively affected the environment. This has mainly resulted from lack of 'private toilet facilities' for a significant proportion of households, which has resulted in the disposing of human excreta in the open drains in urban areas. The sanitation problem has been exacerbated by poor drainage. Most of the urban settlements are located in flood plains, with big parts of the area under swamps while most of the built up tracts are soggy. The implication from such an environment coupled with poorly maintained drains due to poor methods of waste disposal, is the creation of breeding grounds for mosquitoes with a high risk of infectious diseases such as malaria; typhoid and cholera which has hit Kampala, Masindi, Gulu, and Arua Towns (MoH, 2006).

Sanitation is being greatly improved by the efforts of Government and other organizations through ecological sanitation toilets. This has increased urban toilet coverage to 71.1% with private and shared toilets (UBOS, 2005).

3.3 Water Supply

There is an impressive distribution of water in the major urban areas in Uganda (MoE, 2006, UNDP, 2006). However, sometimes the amounts needed are compromised due to the problem of affordability of the water tariff. As a result, people resort to springs and wells, which constitute high risk sources of contamination. The corollary problem is the attitude of the people towards water supply. Urban communities feel that 'water is water'; which literally means that all water is the same and therefore why pay a high tariff for such a 'free' commodity. This implies an awareness gap on sanitation. The distribution and access to water in urban areas is indicated in table 3.1

Table 3.1: Urban Access to Safe Water Supply

Water source	Percentage Access (%)
Piped Water	44.9
Borehole	33.0
Stream/open source	6.2
Rain water	13.8
Spring	2.1
Total	100

Source: Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2005

Another aspect aggravated by the housing pattern and congestion is the storage of water. In urban centres, most households store water in the bedroom or sitting room (KCC, 2000). Considering the poor nature of their houses, their small size and the big number of people that share a room, the underlying health hazards cannot be over-emphasized (UBOS 2005). Table 3.2 provides the status of water supply in Kampala district.

Table 3.2: Current Status of Household Water Supply in Kampala

Source of Domestic water	Percentage (%)
1. Tap	86
2. Well	1
3. Spring	9
4. Vendors	4
Total	100.0

Source: Kampala City Council (2004)

As can be viewed from the table, there is an impressive distribution of piped water in Kampala. The supply and access to safe water has equally increased due to support by Small Towns Water Development and Directorate of Water Development (DWD). Out of the total number of households considered, 86 per cent use tap water. What the table does not indicate however is that most households fall far below average water consumption per capita. Because the water tariff depends on the amount of water consumption, households have attempted to trade off the potential high cost by consuming less water. The average water consumption per capita per day (wc/capita) is 20 litres, which also falls far below the standard requirement of 50 litres per capita per day in all the urban centres. Table 3.2 indicates the current status of water supply in Kampala and Table 3.3 indicates the water supply gap.

Table 3.3: The Gap Regarding Water Supply in Kampala

Variable	Expected standard score	Actual Standard score	Sanitation Gap score	Sanitation Gap %
Water present at time of visit	3,610	3,410	200	5.54
Litres consumed per person per day	3,610	1,122	2,488	69.39
Drinking water	3,610	2,335	1,275	35.32
Total	10,830	6,867	3,963	36.59

Source: Kampala City Council (2004)

The composite sanitation gap of 36.6% exists between the expected standards and the current reality. The implication is that there is a short fall of 69.4% to the expected level of water consumption. However, there is a discernible gap of 35% regarding drinking water. Majority of household members tend to regard tap water as safe enough for drinking and therefore do not see the need for boiling the water.

Cost-effective intervention measures for closing the gap include:

- The need to extend the distribution of water to close the existing gap from a significant proportion of the households who either use water obtained from springs or wells and piped water.
- Local urban authorities could achieve improved access to safe water through provision of stand pipes and water kiosks managed by community-based water committees. These committees have been tested in Wobulenzi in Luwero district; Masindi; Arua and they seem to be reasonably successful.
- It is envisaged that households will increase their water consumption as a result of increased standpipes and more competition in water business. Most of the water currently used in households is purchased

at high costs from vendors. A twenty-litre jerrycan is purchased from vendors at Ug. Shillings 100 as compared to Ug. Shillings 20 per twenty litres purchased from the National Water and Sewerage Corporation (NWSC, 2005).

3.4 Excreta Disposal

The standard of hygiene and excreta disposal is an influential aspect in the prevalence of diseases and their spread. In the entire country, national latrine ownership in urban areas is estimated at 71.3%, with wide variation in quality. Out of these, 19.7% are unsanitary open pits (UBOS, 2005). While the standards differ from area to area and even within an area, peri-urban environments are especially known for generally low standards, with differences mainly being in the degree. Kalanzi (2002) found that 32% of the households in Mulago slum area in Kampala City did not have a private pit latrine.

In Kifumbira slum, which is located in Kamwokya, North of Kampala City, another study (Kamya 2001) found that some people ease themselves in nearby bushes or banana plantations. The same study also identified the rampant sharing of toilets as leading to difficulty in keeping them aesthetically clean. The pit latrines are mainly of the raised category and shallow due to water logging. Human waste is a problem to reckon with in these areas and many households lack a urinal, bathroom and/or kitchen. Though most, if not all households (claim to) have toilets, a single toilet can be shared by up to four households. This trend cuts across all other urban areas in Uganda.

It is extremely ironic that a city, like Kampala, which is believed by many Ugandans to be a place of 'Milk and Honey', experiences such levels of sanitation gap regarding access to toilet facilities. As UBOS 2005 indicated, the toilet ownership in Kampala constitutes only 92% of the total city population. The major concern is what the remaining population uses for relief! As Todaro (1999) puts it; it is not the current opportunities that sustain the urbanization spiral but the perceived opportunities that influence people to migrate to cities. Recommended cost-effective interventions for excreta disposal include the long-term provision of flush toilets



in urban centres especially the City Council; Municipal Councils; and Town Councils. The reason is that most settlements are located in low land and soggy areas that cannot allow deep pit latrine construction.

Table 3.4: Sanitation Quality Gap³ for Refuse Disposal for Selected Households in Uganda: A Case of Kampala Central Division

Variable	Expected standard	Actual standard	Sanitation Gap	Sanitation Gap
	score	score	score	%
Presence	3,610	3,220	390	10.8
Accessibility: Distance	3,610	2,742	868	24.04
Accessibility: Cost	3,610	3,330	280	7.76
Accessibility: Privacy	3,610	2,845	765	21.19
Technology	3,610	1,835	1,775	49.17
Accessibility: Locking	3,610	2,545	1,065	29.5
Level of filling	3,610	1,829	1,781	49.34
Accessibility: Soiling outside (around/approach)	3,610	2,040	1,570	43.49
Smell	3,610	1,895	1,715	47.51
Aesthetics	3,610	2,630	980	27.15
Support facilities: Toilet paper	3,610	1,855	1,755	48.61
Hand washing/ water Toilet (Stance)	3,610	2,010	1,600	44.32
Population Ratio				
Toilet ownership	3,610	2,075	1,535	42.52
Insect Infestation	3,610	2,034	1,576	43.66
Children's stool	3,610	1,290	2,320	64.27
Evidence of buyer (plastic bag) toilet	3,610	3,010	600	16.62
Total	57,760	37,185	20,575	35.6

Source: Michael Darkoh & Apollo Rwomire, 2002: 413

3.5 Refuse Disposal

Poor refuse disposal definitely goes hand in hand with slums. Approximately 13% of the urban population disposes solid waste in gardens, 19% in pits and 32% just heap the waste yet pits and heap disposal are less hygienic in areas with high population concentration. Table 3.5 shows the methods of solid waste disposal in the urban centres of Uganda.

In many urban areas in the country, the standards of refuse disposal are generally low. According to UNICEF (2006), poor rubbish disposal is a national problem. Less than 5 per cent of the households in Uganda have proper rubbish pits and approximately 91 per cent of the families just scatter their refuse within or outside their compounds. The poor disposal of refuse is evident from studies done (Mwesigwa 1993), which indicate that the majority just dump litter anyhow

³ Sanitation Gap is the difference between the expected score and the actual score regarding an element of environmental health. The gap is calculated by setting the summation of the scores per element minus the summation of the actual score of the relevant element of environmental health.



Table 3.5: Methods of Solid Waste Disposal among the Urban Population

Method of Disposal	Percentage of Urban Population
Garden	16
Pit	38.1
Heap	32
Burning	9.9
Skip Bin	32.8
Other	3.3
Total	132.1

Source: Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2005

some houses are just located amidst a continuous sea of refuse/ litter. Table 3.6 shows the gap between the expected standards of refuse disposal and the reality.

The sanitation gap is mainly a culmination of both attitudinal as well as technical problems. There is evidence from the Ministry of Water and Environment that even areas which are well served with refuse skips do not utilize them despite having heaps of garbage around houses. On the other hand, there were areas which lacked garbage skips and hence had no alternative but to throw garbage in the open. The implication here is the need for community education and participation in ensuring a sanitary and healthy environment. More investment in skips and acquisition of more landfills by municipal authorities alone may not solve the problem. The population should be sensitized about the concept of environmental health.

Table 3.6: The Gap between the Expected Standards of Refuse Disposal and the Reality

Parameter	Expected standard score	Actual standard score	Sanitation Gap score	Sanitation Gap %
Refuse container: size	3,610	1,500	2,110	58.45
Refuse container: material	3,610	1,955	1,655	45.89
Refuse container: cover (isolating vermin)	3,610	1,385	2,225	61.63
Evidence of littering	3,610	2,442	1,168	32.35
Presence of vermin/ pests	3,610	2,075	1,535	42.52
Total	18,050	9,357	8,693	48.16

Source: Nuwagaba (2006: 41), MWLE (2004)

3.6 Drainage in Urban Centres

The problem of poor drainage-cum flood plain nature of most of the settlements in Kampala City and other urban centres has made it difficult to construct appropriate pit latrines. Because the water table is very low, the few pit latrines available have been made shallow, resulting into quick filling. The overcrowding of dwelling units and the fact that in many instances up to six households share one toilet facility compounds the problem. Similarly, because of the low-income nature of the inhabitants in the settlements, there are very few cesspool services in the area. Therefore, the major option available to filled-up pit latrines has been the opening of the filled pits and letting the sewage gush out into the open drains. Table 3.7: shows the sanitation quality gap for drainage for selected households in Kampala.

Table 3.7: Sanitation Quality Gap for Drainage for Selected Households in Kampala

Parameter	Expected standard score	Actual standard score	Sanitation Gap score	Sanitation Gap %
Utensils washing/drying	3,610	2,207	1,403	38.86
Bathing	1,025	2,520	1,090	30.19
Drainage: waste water grey	1,530	1,025	2,585	71.61
Drainage: Storm water	3,610	1,530	2,080	57.62
Refuse/Kaveera choking of drains	2,115	2,115	1,495	41.41
Night soil dumping	2,755	2,755	855	23.68
Total	14,645	12,152	9,508	43.9

Source: Michael Darkoh & Apollo Rwomire 2002: 413

People indiscriminately dump garbage and dirty water in the drains, further complicating the drainage problem. This has led to pooling of water in many parts of the area, even during the dry season. The practice is unsanitary and provides a haven for disease vectors like mosquitoes, flies and rodents. The gap regarding the expected drainage standards in Kampala City and the current reality is indicated in the table above. This has resulted in the choking of water drains that results in blockage of channels. It has culminated in flooding during the rainy season and dusty conditions in the dry season. This problem further complicates the flow of storm water as indicated by the 58 per cent gap resulting in breeding grounds for mosquitoes, a condition that increases morbidity in the area.

It should be reiterated that the high density of irregular settlements has been greatly facilitated by the existence of these flood plains that are less demanded by the affluent in the city and other urban areas. The flood plains

are mainly water-logged and these areas are less attractive to the affluent individuals who prefer to purchase land and reside in well-drained areas in urban centres.

3.7 Aesthetics and Housing

Housing is a major parameter of the sanitation phenomenon. The nature of a dwelling unit, its structure, spacing, size and ownership of the houses affects the frequency of sickness among the household members. Most of the slum houses are predominantly single-room shelters commonly known as “mizigo”, a local description of a tenement. These structures are built in such a way that there is virtually no space between them. Clusters of shelters are just separated by a corridor or verandah. In this type of housing, a single room acts as a bedroom, sitting room, store and so on. Pathetically, four people and in some circumstances more than four may share a single room.

Where some houses have some space, which passes for a compound, in the strict sense of the term they are actually more of public paths and mini playgrounds than compounds. The general characteristic of these dwelling units in urban enclaves is poverty. The foundation of the dwelling units is poor, leading to many houses assuming slanting postures, without ventilators and characterized by breaking walls and wearing away. Perhaps the most detrimental aspect of housing in this group is the ‘clustering syndrome’ where either separate houses are built too close to each other or in most instances where a building is structured in such a way as to constitute numerous single room units (mizigo), each accommodating a big household.

3.8 Policy and Legal Instruments

The growth of urban poverty and the deteriorating urban environment in Uganda have necessitated government interventions. The major thrust of government policy had, since the 1960s, been a presumption that urban areas are better off in terms of socioeconomic infrastructure (Stren and White 1989; Mabogunje 1994). This presumption notwithstanding, there was increasing government concern about urban unemployment, low incomes, poor infrastructure facilities, appalling sanitation, lack of access to housing and increasing social exclusion. These ills led to a number of policy programmes and strategies. These include: Statutory Instruments like the Public Health Act (1969) recently repealed by the Local Government Act (1997), which empowered Municipal Authorities to effect development control and provide urban services. The Act further empowered Municipal Authorities to demolish illegal structures such as dwelling units without toilets (Public Health Act 1969: Section 37). The services provided include water supply, sanitation management and construction and maintenance of access roads in the urban areas. As long as the Ugandan economy was buoyant, there were no problems in the provision of these services.

Constitutional Provisions like the Uganda Constitution (Republic of Uganda 1995), which was promulgated by the Constituent Assembly, repealed the 1975 Land Reform Decree and stipulated that: “all land in Uganda becomes freehold and vests the holding and user rights in private citizens [Article 237 Cap (8)]”. This has imposed tremendous implications and consequences on urban resource use management and development. The implication for mailo and free holding is that most of the population has to acquire land through purchase, which requires enough financial resources. However, the difficulty with mailo and freehold tenure system

is that the owners of titles to particular land parcels may not have enough resources to develop their land resources. Because the landowner has security of tenure and there is no effective design, zoning, land use or infrastructure requirement legislation, the urban authorities seem to be unable to enforce planned development control in these areas. This has had far-reaching environmental consequences, especially the emergence of squatter settlements without appropriate infrastructure.

3.9 Environmental Health Impacts

The extent of the impact of these environmental health components on the environment quality seems to have a direct relationship with population increase in urban areas. This situation is further aggravated by the minimal control of these activities by urban authorities (Kalanzi 1998; Nuwagaba, 2002 and Mwesigwa, 1993). Table 3.8 shows the possible environment impacts associated with socio-economic activities in urban areas.

Table 3.8: Possible Environment Impacts Associated with Urbanization

Valued Environmental Components (VECS)	Examples of Urban Activities Putting VECS at risk	Possible Impacts Associated with Urbanization
Land resources/terrain and soils	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uncontrolled construction • Solid waste dumping • Inappropriate agriculture 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Land pollution from garbage disposal • Overcrowding • Lack of good road access between neighborhoods and urban centres • Lack of urban planning
Water resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Solid waste disposal practice • Severe sanitation problems • Poor maintenance of drainage systems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Possible pollution from variety of sources • Health problems; water borne diseases • Malaria on the increase due to poor drainage, etc.
Wetlands/Swamps	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poor maintenance of drainage systems • Drainage for agriculture and other uses • Burning and harvesting of papyrus at unsustainable rate in some areas • Brick making. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived increase in air pollution but no hard data available • Dust from roads is a reported problem
Air quality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rapid increase in motor vehicles • Indoor pollution from charcoal use • Garbage burning on the increase • Uncontrolled industrial emission 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived increase in air pollution but no hard data available • Dust from roads is a reported problem

Source: Michael Darkoh and Apollo Rwomire, 2002

According to Nuwagaba (2006), there is a high level of awareness of environmental problems in urban areas among the population in peri-urban settlements. However, there is an insignificant proportion of the population which contributes to mitigating actions against environmental degradation. The explanation for this anomalous relationship between knowledge of the environment and mitigating the adverse effects of environmental degradation is that people may be conditioned to ignore their values due to lack of means to promote good sanitary environment. The issue is affordability rather than carelessness. A deeper analysis, however, indicates that some clusters of the urban population seem to regard the concept of environmental sanitation as alien (ibid.). In most areas, household members actually believe that their sanitation standards are not as low as an outsider might think.

3.10 Recommendations

Urbanization is a structural crisis requiring structural solutions. Governments have the responsibility to regulate urbanization but the people also have an obligation to take up measures directed at improving the status of urban centres and environmental health.

There is need for an Urbanization Policy. Currently Uganda does not have this policy yet the country is experiencing a high rate of urbanization (5.1%) per annum. The urbanization is haphazard, unplanned and primate. The Urbanization Policy should prescribe the institutional framework for the management of urban development, including urban planning and settlement development.

There is need for the review of the main legislations that influence urban development. These should include a review of the Town and Country Planning Act (1964), Public Health Act (1964) and the Urban Authorities Act (1967). These legislations are crucial tools for regulating urban development but most of them are absolute.

Streamlining land tenure and administration is also necessary. It is clearly indicated in the chapter that most of the existing irregularization and poor environmental health is influenced by the land tenure. The tenure system constrains physical planning and development control. For example, there tend to be more informal settlements on mailo land than other types of tenure. The existing legislation to enforce development control in all areas of their jurisdiction notwithstanding, most urban authorities, including KCC, encounter an uphill task in enforcing standards on mailo land.

Development control should be enforced. While it is pertinent that land tenure impacts on the efficacy of development control, it is apparent that there is poor enforcement of existing legislations. This is partly explained by inadequate personnel, inadequate funding and lack of equipment and vehicles to use.

Financing of urban authorities needs to increase. Most urban authorities in Uganda are grossly under funded. Most of the funding for development programmes in Uganda is based on PEAP 2004 which focuses on rural development. The implication is limited financial capacity for urban authorities to provide services. Ironically, the urban centers are experiencing high rates of growth with phenomenal development for services (housing, water supply, sanitation, waste disposal, access roads and drainage). All these services require specifically tailored financing.

There is need to address urban poverty in Uganda. Most of the urban population lack skills and are either unemployed or engaged in the informal sector. The sector operates on an adhoc basis without sufficient financing. There is need to support this sector as it commands over 70% of the urban employment.

Attitude change of urban individual households is another strategy. One far long fervent has stated that “you can take a person out of the village but you can not remove the village out of him”. The implication is that most of the urbanizing population holds attitudes that are repugnant to the expected urban behavior. These are portrayed in negative attitudes like the indiscriminate disposal of garbage yet skips may have been provided. Other behaviors include: tipping water in the yard even when one’s house is plumbed. This therefore posits the need for developing IEC (Information, Education & Communication) and BCC (Behavior Change Communication) strategies for urban dwellers.

We should adopt the concept of minimum service in urban development. This concept refers to adopting standards that are lower than the expected standards of urban development. For instance urban authorities can

approve pit latrines as acceptable instead of toilets; stand pipes instead of plumbed houses and stone pitching of secondary and tertiary drainage systems. The concept of minimum service is derived from the inability of poor urban dwellers to access expected services, hence the need to revise standards that are affordable.

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CHAPTER 4



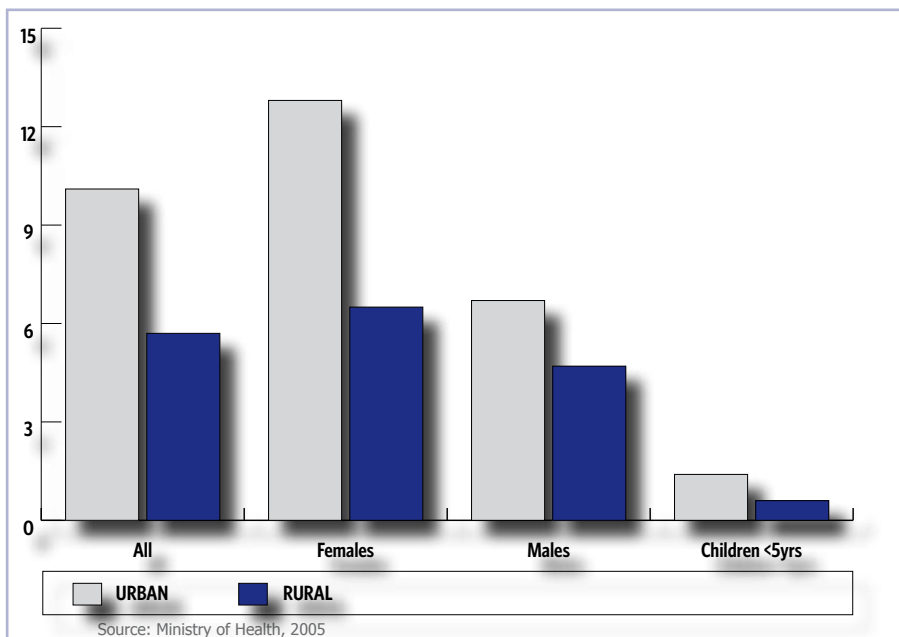
HIV/AIDS IN URBAN CENTERS OF UGANDA: THE CHALLENGES

4.0 Introduction

HIV/AIDS has posed a serious threat to human life since the last quarter of the 20th century. In 2006, almost two thirds (63 percent) of all persons infected with HIV were living in sub-Saharan Africa. An estimated 2.8 million adults and children became infected with HIV in 2006, more than in all other regions of the world combined. The 2.1 million AIDS deaths in sub-Saharan Africa represent 72 percent of the global AIDS deaths (UNAIDS, 2006).

Uganda is reported as one of the most successful countries in Africa in reducing the prevalence of HIV/AIDS. It reduced significantly from 18 percent (1992) to 6.4 % (2005) over the last two decades. The 2004/05 Ministry of Health National HIV Sero and Behavioural Survey (NHSBS) established that for both sexes, HIV prevalence is highest among those aged 30-34 and lowest in the 15-19 age category. This represents an upward shift in age of highest prevalence over the last two decades. Data also show that people who reside in the urban areas have a significantly higher risk of HIV infection (10 percent) than rural residents (5.7 percent). This disparity is true for both males and females, though the urban-rural difference is stronger for women than men. The prevalence of HIV infection among urban women (12.8%) is almost twice that among their rural counterparts (6.5 percent), while among urban men, HIV prevalence is 6.7 percent compared to 4.8 percent for rural men (See figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1: Urban - Rural HIV Prevalence



It is estimated that approximately 1 million (0.85 million – 1.2 million) people were living with HIV in Uganda in 2005 (UNAIDS, 2006), with approximately 130,000 new infections annually (100,000 infections are adults). This is close to the total number of infected people at the height of the epidemic in 1994. The rate of new infections each year has been rising in some age groups. This has potentially devastating consequences on the economy, labour supply and productivity, overall production, revenues and families and communities. Countrywide, over 1 million orphans and other vulnerable children below the age of 17 are so because of the dreaded virus which has claimed numerous parents and even rendered some helpless to look after their own children (UNAIDS 2006).

4.1 Situation in Urban Centers

Uganda has 75 gazetted cities, municipalities and townships (1 city, 12 municipalities and 64 towns) which make up the urban centers in the country. Approximately 2,921,981 million people (12 percent of the country’s 2002 population) live in these centers (2002 Population and Housing Census). The Central region has more than half of the total urban population (54 percent) while the other regions follow with 17 percent, 14 percent, and 13 percent for Northern Western and Eastern regions respectively.

The high rate of urbanization in the central region is highly attributed to Kampala city, which constitutes 41 percent of the total urban population (2002 census report). Rapidly increasing urbanization associated with poverty, rapidly changing lifestyles and lack of effective programmes targeting high risk and vulnerable urban populations are some of the reasons for the persistently high HIV prevalence in urban settings.

4.2 Challenges and Impact of HIV and AIDS

Approximately 12 percent of Ugandans now live in urban areas and this is expected to increase to 60 percent by 2020. Urban areas are at crossroads for various people. Urbanization, when well managed, can create an

opportunity for development, facilitating sustainable economic growth and promoting broad social welfare gains.

Unfortunately, the growth of cities and towns is often a driving force for the spread of HIV/AIDS as well as economic and social growth. This is due to the high population density, the presence of transportation hubs and many vulnerable persons, sex workers, unemployed youth, migrant labour and drug users.

While affecting countless individual lives and livelihoods, HIV/AIDS also has the potential to undermine local governance in all its aspects. Through its profound impact on health and human resources, HIV/AIDS can undermine the capacity of local governments to carry out their core functions of local service delivery particularly to the poor and local economic development. The urban poor are disproportionately affected by HIV/AIDS, through the costs of care and loss of income resulting from HIV, increasing their vulnerability. This is particularly true for the families living in informal settlements (slum areas) who have limited access to secure livelihoods, health care and information. While many countries around the globe, including Uganda are now making a progress in addressing HIV/AIDS, in many cases urban centers have not received sufficient support in dealing with the epidemic.

4.2.1 Orphans and Vulnerable Children

The orphan crisis poses one of the greatest challenges to the country's development efforts and addressing HIV/AIDS. Approximately one million orphans are a result of HIV, and most of them have sought the streets as their homes. This has led to increased immorality and prostitution across the urban centers as these orphans seek means of survival, thereby aggravating the problem. Unlike in rural areas where the majority of orphans are still being taken care of within the extended family, this traditional social safety net is less developed and less supportive due to the shift in the urban social set-up of small modern families. As a result, the majority of orphaned children in urban areas do not have shelter and end up living on the streets. These children are neglected, employed as child labourers, sexually exploited, and endured serious abuses, including physical and emotional harassment.

Existing Orphan and Vulnerable Children (OVC) interventions have not fully involved local governments to explore their full potential and address the problem. The majority of services to OVC, especially those affected by HIV/AIDS, are mainly rendered by Government, Civil Society Organizations (CSO) and Faith-based (FBO) led initiatives, with minimal involvement of the local governments where they operate.

Legal support for OVC is still very limited. Although the Constitution of the Republic of Uganda (1995) is the overriding national legal framework for ensuring that the rights of children as a whole are protected, subsequent legislation has not provided special protection to orphans and other vulnerable children.

Whereas the urban local governments have seen a number of civil society groups coming to offer OVC services, little impact has been significantly created as noted by the increasing number of OVC not only in conflict areas but in most of the urban settings. The specific problems relate to lack of financial and human resource to deliver effective programmes to address the challenges faced by OVC and realize the desired goals. The



inadequate staffing and resources of government sectors, Civil Society Organizations including NGOs, CBOs and FBOs limit the coverage and scope of interventions. Lack of appropriate skills to handle legal issues related to orphans remains a big challenge and skills to offer psychosocial care are still limited.

4.2.2 Health Systems

In the past decade, many people have migrated from rural to urban areas, most evidently in towns such as Kampala, Jinja and Mbarara among others. In addition, most people from rural areas regularly visit the urban centers to work and access goods and services and yet the urban infrastructure cannot match the increased demand for services, particularly HIV/ AIDS services.

HIV/AIDS affects the performance of health systems by increasing demand for services in both quantity and complexity and by reducing the supply of services by its impact on the numbers and performance of the health workforce (World Bank 1999; Bollinger and Stover 1999). These processes are associated with increased costs at a time when funding for health care is diminishing, particularly in Uganda.

A number of factors have contributed to the changing landscape of health and disease and the service needs. These include the resurgence of previously well controlled diseases such as tuberculosis, diarrhoea, and other opportunistic infections whose prevalence has increased due to HIV/AIDS. This has further caused a “crowding out effect” by HIV/AIDS patients suffering from other illnesses. On the other hand, there is an increased demand for services such as safe blood supply, new medical procedures and protocols, voluntary counseling and testing (VCT), prevention of mother-to-child transmission of HIV, and the provision of new HIV/AIDS therapies, including antiretroviral drugs.

Health facility assessments suggest that the epidemic is crowding out patients suffering from conditions that are seemingly less severe than HIV/AIDS, thus denying them their right to care.



The exploding tuberculosis epidemic in countries most heavily affected by HIV has human resource implications. Tuberculosis has become the leading cause of death among people infected with HIV, accounting for one third of AIDS deaths worldwide.

A study by Cornia et al. (2002) indicated that the epidemic's impact on health systems is devastating, as it has created an increased burden of disease, shifted the demand for services, caused a substantial increase in health expenditure, and eroded the capacity of the health systems to respond adequately, particularly as it affects the health workforce.

Making changes and maintaining subsequent high levels of service performance cannot be achieved in any organization without good human resource management (Martinez and Martineau 1998). With health reforms and the introduction of new prevention, care, and treatment approaches to the epidemic, human resource planning is a larger task than producing the numbers and types of health staff to match the health services.

On the broader perspective, it has become clearer that an expanded response to the HIV/AIDS epidemic requires an integrated approach combining the core interventions that include primary prevention, prevention of mother-to-child transmission linked to voluntary and confidential counseling and testing, treatment of sexually transmitted infections, improved blood supply, treatment of opportunistic infections, and care and support of people living with HIV/AIDS.

4.2.3 Poverty

A stable macroeconomic environment, sustained high population growth rates and huge dividends from the liberalization policy translated into impressive poverty reduction during the 1990s and the early 2000s. Precisely, income-poverty headcount fell from 56% in 1992/93 to 34% in 1999/2000 and then rose to 38% in 2002/03 but declined again to 31 % in 2005/06 as shown in table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1: Poverty and inequality by spatial subgroup, 1992 to 2003

Level	Poverty headcount					Gini index of inequality				
	1992/93	1997	1999/00	2002/03	2005/06	1992/93	1997	1999/00	2002/03	2005/06
National	55.7	45	33.8	37.7	31.1	0.36	0.35	0.4	0.43	0.408
Rural	59.7	49.2	37.4	41.7	34.2	0.33	0.31	0.33	0.36	0.363
Urban	27.8	16.7	9.6	12.2	13.7	0.4	0.35	0.43	0.48	0.432
Central	45.6	27.9	19.7	22.3	16.4	0.4	0.36	0.42	0.46	0.417
Eastern	58.8	54.3	35	46	35.9	0.33	0.33	0.35	0.36	0.354
Northern	72.2	60.9	63.6	63.3	60.7	0.32	0.28	0.32	0.36	0.331
Western	53.1	42.8	26.2	31.4	20.5	0.34	0.31	0.34	0.34	0.342

† Estimate based on entire country sample.

Whereas it is assumed that most of the urban dwellers are not poor, it is not the case as the biggest number of people only survive in slums in urban centers and most do not have any stable source of income. They therefore lead very vulnerable lives as they are exposed to cross generational sex, transactional sex and reckless living, which supports the fact that poverty drives AIDS and AIDS drives poverty. Although poverty in Uganda remains predominantly a rural phenomenon, urban centers are not exceptions. For instance, while rural poverty headcount declined from 60 percent in 1992 to 37 percent in 2000 before rising to 42 percent in 2003, the corresponding figures for urban are 28 percent, 10% and 12 percent. In 2005/06, although rural poverty again declined to 34 percent, it remained the same in urban areas (14 percent), indicating that the improvements in income poverty were rural driven.

It should be noted that, the level of urban poverty in Uganda further compounds the challenges and impact created by HIV/AIDS. Studies have found a strong link between health and poverty; health as a cause, an effect and an indicator of poverty (PPA II &I). Poor health is the most frequently cited cause of poverty. Poor health causes poverty due to time lost when looking after the sick and the cost of care. AIDS is specifically mentioned to cripple people’s productive capacity and leading to large families with orphans. Poverty also curtails efforts of the urban authorities to provide services, given their low local revenue bases. AIDS has affected the development of urban centers in a way that once a business owner dies, the business will be affected as the people left behind will not be able to run and maintain it.

4.2.4 Housing conditions

More than 50% of Uganda’s urban population lives in informal unplanned settlements on land owned by other people or the government. Without security of tenure, they cannot access credit from the formal financial institutions and therefore lack the basic means of production. The squalid conditions they live in are a source of the health hazards they face on a day-to-day basis, including HIV and AIDS. They have insecurity of tenure especially when they are no longer in position to pay house rent due to sickness.

Insecurity of tenure also has implications on sexual behavior as well as access to and proper use of appropriate treatment and care. Most, if not all slum dwellings are poor housing types and sizes and have an effect on

HIV/AIDS. Shared rooms expose children to sexual activity at a very early age. Overcrowding results into cross-infections and provides opportunity for opportunistic infections. The housing units in slums are poorly planned, overcrowded and with no light, exposing young people to sexual abuse like rape and defilement, which has implications for HIV/AIDS, early teenage pregnancies and other STDs. The rampant teenage pregnancy is an indication that people do not use condoms. More so, since people in slums are known to each other, there are social challenges that hinder them from accessing condoms.

4.3 Policy Interventions

The overall government policy on HIV/AIDS is characterized by openness and political commitment to combating HIV/AIDS, which has contributed to increased levels of awareness among the population about the dangers of the epidemic and possible means of prevention. This policy environment enabled the formulation of key national policies. The National Policy on AIDS (draft) provides the overall policy and planning environment through which the National Strategic Framework (NSF) for HIV/AIDS Activities is delivered. The inset policies under the NOPA include, but are not limited to; Orphan and other Vulnerable Children (OVC), Condom Policy and Strategy, HIV/AIDS and the World of Work and Antiretroviral Therapy (ART).

This framework is subordinate and complementary to key policies and development planning frameworks to fight poverty and other development challenges in Uganda. These include the Revised National Strategic Framework for HIV/AIDS Activities in Uganda 2003/04-2005/06, Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) 2004/5 - 2007/8, The National Health Policy and the Local Government Act of 1997. The development of the National Strategic Plan 2007/08-2011/12 is on going.

4.3.1 Role of Local Governments

Local governments are important players in the fight against HIV/AIDS for they are the level of government closest to communities. They constitute the level of service delivery where the causes of vulnerability to HIV/AIDS and the consequences on the grassroot communities are more felt and can, at the same time, be addressed. Within the national response, the local governments are mandated to guide and coordinate AIDS mainstreaming at district and urban levels and to promote a multi-stakeholder response to the epidemic.

The Decentralization Act 1997 (Part 2, second schedule) provides for roles by local governments to directly manage HIV/AIDS at lower levels, as well as monitoring the delivery of services within their areas of jurisdiction. The Act, under Section 81, also provides for the delegation of responsibilities from the higher local government to lower levels as long as any extra obligation transferred is fully financed. This section of the law provides an opportunity in the efforts to fight HIV/AIDS because it is an avenue through which higher local governments or the central government can delegate a lower local government to undertake certain activities.

Coordination Framework for HIV/AIDS Activities in Local Governments

This framework was developed in 2002 and issued in 2003 by MoLG. It is provided in a two-way system: Politically and Technically. The political side is led by task forces carrying out advocacy for attention to HIV/AIDS issues, policy guidance, community mobilization, strategic direction, partnership development and

social mobilization. On the other hand, the technical side is concerned with planning, monitoring activities and resources and information sharing. At the parish Level, both arms, functions are combined. They are mandated to carry out these activities by Section 97 of the Local Government Act. This kind of recommendation is aimed at promoting the application of Uganda's Partnership Principles.

Decentralized Health Service Provision

The design of the health care delivery system was based on a decentralized policy with the aim of taking services nearer to the communities.

The health care delivery system at local levels in Uganda is multi-layered with services provided from Health Centre I to IV as lower units, and most districts having a hospital at the top of the hierarchy. This structure plays a critical role in health care service delivery. For example, the implementation guidelines for scaling up ARV treatment in Uganda outline the primary and community home-based care model with the ultimate goal of ensuring that ARV therapy services are expanded to Health Centre IV level, with follow-up and support extending to Health Centre III to I as explained below.

The Health Center IV, which is at county level usually refers the PHAs to a Physician for assessment or reassessment, counseling and psycho-social support, revises the treatment plan and refers back the patient to the health centre. This is normally run by the District Health Services Department.

Health Centre III which is at the division/sub-county level, carries out follow-up of people in therapy, supplies drugs, carries out check-ups, counseling and encouragement, identifies problems and makes referrals to the hospital outpatient department. It is facility-based with a nurse in charge, a maternity delivery service and a midwife. Health Centre II is run at the parish level, is facility-based, with a nurse in charge and some few community volunteers who carry out follow-ups and other support exercises to persons living with HIV/AIDS.

At level I are community based organizations/initiatives and groups mainly composed of community health workers who carry out such functions as motivation of PHAs, educating PHAs and their families in therapy, applying an approach of using directly observed therapy for TB, informing health centers of problems as well as linking with community organizations and groups for social and material support. It should be noted that most of these levels in the urban centers are supported by referral hospitals, which are mainly located in urban centers.

4.3.2 Civil Society Organizations

Openness, political support and commitment have marshaled tremendous support, especially from the non-government, non-profit sector. By 1997, over 1,200 agencies were implementing HIV/AIDS-related activities in the country. These organizations were set up to respond to the needs of specific groups such as women, youth, children, people with disabilities and workers/employees. The organizations range from national NGOs with branches at various levels, district-based NGOs, e.g. religious-based hospitals, international NGOs, CBOs, PHA networks, and the private business sector. Some of these are urban-based and have made a great

contribution to addressing HIV/ AIDS in these centers.

Private, non-profit organizations like The AIDS Support Organization (TASO) and faith-based organizations have greatly contributed to the well-being of PHAs through provision of integrated services for care and prevention. This involves treatment of opportunistic infections, on-going social and spiritual counseling, home-based care to relieve pressure on hospitals, provision of credit facilities for income-generating activities and vocational skills building for affected family members, especially orphans. Formation of post-test clubs at most of the centers provides the much needed social support to PHAs and is key in prevention and support activities in communities.

Some partners have focused on the issues of ethics and human rights generally and more especially for those infected and affected. The CSOs have systematically sensitized the public on the rights of an individual in the context of HIV/AIDS. Along with other awareness interventions, this has greatly reduced on PHA stigmatization and discrimination and reduced the number of cases where relatives deprive the deceased's widows and orphans of their property.

Among the CSOs and NGOs focusing on HIV/AIDS in urban areas is the Alliance of Mayors and Municipal Leaders Initiative for Community Action on AIDS at Local Level (AMICAALL Uganda Chapter), which was launched in November 2002 with the support of the UNDP Country Office in collaboration with the UN AMICAALL Partnership Programme. The AMICAALL Uganda Chapter comprises all designated urban authorities in the country.

AMICAALL's strategy involves the development of strong partnerships between local governments, the private sector, CSOs and local communities all working together to translate opportunities into concrete actions to scale up HIV/AIDS interventions in local governments. The strategy is based on principles of good governance, which are critical to successful HIV/AIDS programs. The establishment of the alliance and AMICAALL Programmes addresses the increasing need for more effective capacity at the local level in responding to HIV/AIDS and fostering local leadership and ownership.

Since its inception, the AMICAALL Uganda Programme has created foundations for partnership, multi-sectoral action, local-level interventions, sustainability and scaling up in urban areas in Uganda. The role of AMICAALL has been recognized and supported by Uganda AIDS Commission in fostering the grassroots response and coordination among the urban local governments in Uganda. The AMICAALL strategy is intended to enhance the HIV/AIDS response among the critical urban population sectors that are most affected by the epidemic.

In addition, AMICAALL has stimulated the urban leadership to lead the local response to HIV/AIDS, and is trying to bridge the gap between the districts and municipality leadership to collectively respond to the epidemic. In urban authorities, AMICAALL has encouraged the formation of AIDS task forces with representatives of the District Council Leadership to help in getting the district leadership focused on urban authorities as priority areas of HIV/AIDS intervention in districts.

All in all, interventions by CSOs and private sector organizations largely complement the central efforts by Government and are supported in areas of advocacy to recruit more players and sustain action, information sharing to promote exchange of ideas and experiences and formulation of appropriate policies, standards and guidelines to guide implementation.

4.4 Strategies to Address HIV/ AIDS in Urban Centres

The HIV/AIDS challenges facing the urban areas also provide opportunities for action. The urban leadership is closer to those affected by the epidemic and is therefore optimally placed to address it. However, the urban leadership can only succeed in addressing HIV/AIDS by working closely with other levels of government as well as working in partnership with other CSOs at community level.

4.4.1 Enhanced advocacy

One of the major challenges in urban local governments is limited capacity to effectively respond to HIV/AIDS at the local level. Urban local governments face severe constraints with regards to human resources and capacities for district planning and community mobilization. New forms of partnership have to be created to harness the existing capacity from other partners in HIV/AIDS working at the community level. There is a challenging demand of mobilizing and supporting the community to develop and own the local response to HIV/AIDS. The HIV/AIDS service delivery system in urban local governments is poor due to limited infrastructure and other logistical requirements.

Sustained leadership commitment builds the capacity and willingness of leaders to engage in the national response to HIV/AIDS. Leadership is required in all sectors and at all levels of municipal developments, so local urban leaders will be provided with appropriate skills and information. These local leaders in the urban areas will inform their constituencies about HIV/AIDS prevention, care and support, advocate for non-discrimination of PHA and promote inclusion of the infected people. Leadership training will be critical as it is vital in mainstreaming HIV/AIDS in all urban workplaces, programmes, communities and institutions.

Advocacy remains a prominent task in all HIV/AIDS programmes. Despite the recent mobilization of politicians, government and opinion leaders in Uganda, issues and concerns of HIV/AIDS have to be tackled in the general public as well as among the decision makers. These includes stigma and discrimination, human rights of PHA leadership, participation, involvement and resources. Continuous strong advocacy can reduce social and cultural barriers in the fight against AIDS.

4.4.2 Capacity Building

Effective responses to the epidemic are based on the capacities of local communities to assess their own vulnerability and plan their own responses. Community mobilization, empowerment and support to respond effectively are the key elements of capacity building for a national response. The fight against HIV/AIDS will be sustainable in the communities and at the local level.

Local governments are therefore the most appropriate levels of planning, coordination and support for the implementation of HIV/AIDS interventions. Local governments provide a close link to the community, are

more sensitive to their needs and able to articulate local issues better. However, one of the major challenges in urban local governments is limited capacity to effectively respond to HIV/AIDS at the local level. Urban local governments face severe constraints with regards to human resources and capacities for district planning and community mobilization. New forms of partnership have to be created to harness existing capacity from other partners in HIV/AIDS working at the community level.

Over emphasis of abstinence and fidelity or faithfulness at the expense of consistent and correct use of condoms undermines the fact that the age of first sexual encounter in urban areas is low at 16, which implies that abstinence is almost inapplicable in such situations.

4.5 Way Forward

Externally, urban centers should play a dual role in mobilizing CSOs active in HIV/AIDS services and coordinating activities in rural areas so they can get on board and support HIV/AIDS programmes in urban areas as well. It is the mandate of leaders in urban communities to ensure that all citizens have access to services and information. Despite the many challenges they face in delivering these they are certainly able to add value as coordinating, lobbying and facilitating entities to link residents to existing resources within their communities.

4.6 Recommendations

1. Build the capacity of urban political and technical leadership in mainstreaming of HIV/AIDS in their local development plans.
2. Allocate resources for HIV/AIDS activities mainstreamed in development plans.
3. Establish coordination mechanisms through quarterly and annual review meetings for available HIV/AIDS services providers.
4. Advocate and lobby for more resource allocation to urban HIV/AIDS interventions from both Government and AIDS development partners.

4.7 Conclusion

Uganda has made a considerable dent in the progress of the HIV/AIDS epidemic. However, compared to the magnitude of the epidemic, this can only be regarded as modest progress, not “success”. There is therefore no room for complacency. There are still more gaps existing and therefore HIV/AIDS must remain a priority in all social and economic development efforts. Substantial progress can only be achieved through expanding intervention and service coverage to all areas of the country by bringing all potential sectors and actors on board to fight the epidemic.

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CHAPTER 5



URBAN AGRICULTURE FOR SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS IN UGANDA

5.0 Introduction

The United Nations Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (UNECD), 1998 defines urban agriculture as the production of food and non-food plant and tree crops, and animal husbandry, both within and fringing urban areas. Most definitions often specify location (urban, and sometimes suburban sites or peri-urban) and activities (such as the production of vegetables and fruits, aquaculture and animal husbandry, or the horticultural production of trees and ornamental plants). Other definitions also indicate the stages of production (growth and harvesting, or processing, marketing, and distribution), and purpose (e.g. production for own consumption, or production for sale to others).

Producing and selling non-food products such as flowers, trees and fertilizer by community-based organizations can also be found within some definitions (Kaufman and Bailkey 2000) together with fruit trees, poultry, fish, bees, water management, rabbits, guinea pigs and other indigenous animals, and organic waste management. Urban agriculture can be found on vacant plots, in open spaces, on road strips, along railways, below power lines, on verges, in containers, on balconies, in school gardens, in fish ponds and on communal lands for community-based gardens.

In Uganda, the urban population is growing very fast at the rate of 5.1 percent per annum. People move from the countryside to seek a better future and the municipal authorities are finding it hard to cope with the influx.

There are too few jobs and limited socio-economic facilities. Many of these new urban migrants face poverty and malnutrition, often spending three-quarters of their meagre income to provide just one meal a day.

In an effort to improve their well-being, the disadvantaged urban population has devised coping mechanisms, which include petty trading, hawking, urban farming and the many service activities of the informal sector. Although all these activities significantly employ the majority of the urban population, urban agriculture stands out due to the innovativeness of the actors as they use any available space to practise crop and livestock production. On the outskirts of cities, farming becomes the main occupation and may provide support for an entire family or group of families. This paper explores the role played by urban agriculture in creating sustainable livelihoods in Uganda.

Today urban agriculture (UA) is increasingly being recognized on the international agenda as part of a comprehensive solution to the problems of runaway growth of cities in the developing world. A number of UA declarations, especially in Africa and Southern America have been signed by Ministers of Local Government and City and Municipal Mayors to acknowledge the existence and increasing importance of UA for many city populations. The declarations signed include the 1999 Dakar Declaration, the 1999 Medellin Declaration, the 1999 Barcelona Declaration, the 2000 Declaration of Quito, and the 2003 Harare Declaration: Way forward for UA in East and Southern Africa.

5.1 Sustainable Livelihoods

Chambers and Conway (1991) define sustainable livelihood as one comprising people, their capabilities and their means of living, including food, income and assets. A livelihood is understood to mean an organized combination of assets available for a household and activities in order to take decisions on transformations of these assets to provide the requirements for a living. These assets are both tangible and intangible resources. A livelihood is environmentally sustainable when it maintains or enhances the local and global assets on which livelihoods depend, and has net beneficial effects on other livelihoods. A livelihood is socially sustainable if it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, and provide for future generations. Therefore a sustainable livelihood prioritizes people's assets, their ability to withstand shocks (the vulnerability context) and policies and institutions that reflect poor people's priorities, rather than those of the elite. How, then, can urban agriculture be used as a lever to build sustainable livelihoods in urban areas in Uganda?

5.2 The State of Urban Agriculture in Uganda

In September 2000, the United Nations Millennium Declaration set out eight Millennium Development Goals. These were designed to provide the international community with an expanded vision of development and a framework for measuring development progress. UA is an important implementing strategy to achieve MDG1 (eradicating extreme poverty and hunger), as well as MDG3 (promote gender equality and empower women), MDG6 (combat HIV/AIDS and other diseases) and MDG7 (ensuring environmental sustainability). Although UA may not be the total solution to the issues facing the future of urban areas in Uganda, it is an essential part of any programme to make these urban areas more livable and to improve the lives of urban dwellers.

Urban Agriculture has become a real, complex and dynamic feature of the urban landscape and socio-economic reality in Uganda (Nuwagaba 2004). However, most of the government programmes under the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) the overarching development framework, together with the Plan for Modernization of Agriculture (PMA) sector approach for Uganda have the rural areas as the main target areas. However, the National Agricultural Advisory Services (NAADS) programmes have of recent shifted attention also to urban areas, with Hoima declared as the model town for promoting NAADS agricultural activities in the country.

Urban Agriculture can also make an entry point into the all inclusive Uganda Food and Nutrition policy draft that was formulated within the context of the overall national development objective as spelt out in the PEAP. The National Cattle Breeding Policy of Uganda also provides guidelines to farmers, companies, researchers, extension workers and civic leaders on suitable breeds for various agro-ecological zones including intensive dairy production in peri-urban areas, alternative breeding programs, sustainable use of indigenous genetic resources and the use of modern breeding technologies, but not much of this policy framework has been implemented in urban areas.

Urban Agriculture emerged strongly as a survival strategy to fill the gap that was created by the death of the formal economy in the 1970s and early 80s following the economic war. The period was characterized by massive loss of jobs as a result of the structural adjustment programmes leaving urbanites desperate for survival. The urban dwellers developed several coping mechanisms, among which urban agriculture became significant (Kiguli, 2005). Today, as urbanization accelerates in the country, it has evolved into a livelihood strategy for many, including middle-income people. Much of the agriculture is practised in informal settlements where low-income earners can be found, but significant acreage under urban agriculture in middle to high income suburbs cannot be underestimated.

In Kampala, for example, urban agriculture has persisted since the 19th century despite the fact that it only became legal in 2005 (Wyn and Sarah, 2003 in Ssemwanga, 2007). This was largely precipitated by the fact that the creation of Kampala Municipality was superimposed on the cultural and agricultural traditions of Buganda kingdom and thus the continued practice of urban agriculture. In most urban areas, however, the expansion of urban boundaries into the surrounding rural communities has engulfed communities where agriculture is traditionally the dominant activity.

5.3 Policy Framework for Urban Agriculture in Uganda

Through the Local Government Act of 1997, Local Governments have been mandated to take decisions and develop their areas of jurisdiction. They are also responsible for determining where an activity can be done through zoning based on the available resources. However, many urban managers and planners think of cities more in terms of housing, transport, commercial activities and industry rather than in terms of UA, which generates comparatively low yields (Girardet 1992). Although UA has had no legal status in Uganda for a long time, many urban planners and national policy makers have recently recognized its central role in the wider urban economy.

A recent study characterizing UA carried out in Kampala, Jinja, Mbarara, Mbale, Lira, Entebbe, Kiira and Masaka, shows that various agricultural enterprises are established for different purposes. Despite this widespread evidence, UA is misconstrued as a disorganized and pervasive activity for the urban poor with no supporting policy for promotion and extension of services to the multitude of urban farmers (Ssemwanga, 2007). On the policy side, although the urban development and management policy is unified by the national laws, whereby some of the urban areas such as Kampala, have developed bye-laws to guide urban agriculture, in Mbale and Mbarara the prohibitive bye-laws are still enforced in a rather intermittent and selective manner. It should be noted that Kampala became the first city in sub-Saharan Africa to develop city laws for UA, which were passed in 2005.

In 1994, an urban agriculture sector was created within the City Council's department of Production and Marketing to support, promote and guide communities in UA and ensure household food security and nutrition. Table 5.1 shows the different laws/ordinances that after careful reviews in 2003, KCC assented to "provide for licensing, guidance, control and regulation of urban agriculture and to provide for other connected matters (KCC, 2006). KCC, together with the Kampala Urban Food Security, Agriculture and Livestock Coordination Committee (KUFSAALCC) has prepared guidelines to operationalise these ordinances in the city. To test their practicality in terms of adherence at the individual and community level, their enforcement and challenges, these ordinances are being pilot tested in Kyanja and Ggaba; two parishes in the city (Ssemwanga & McCans, 2006). In Entebbe Municipality, Mulyowa (1996) recognized that urban farming activities had encroached on and overlapped with other urban land use patterns set out in the 1959 Entebbe Outline Scheme. This led planners to realize the importance of UA and to include it in the new 1993 Structure Plan as one of the land use patterns in the municipality.

Table 5.1 Institutional and policy framework for urban agriculture in Kampala

Post-Independence bye-laws	Remarks
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The Kampala City Registration and Control of Dogs Ordinance, 1964 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Emphasized the control of rabies
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The Kampala City Maintenance of Law and Order Ordinance, 1964 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Emphasized the control of roaming livestock and proper disposal of carcasses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The Public Health Act, 1964 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Emphasized the growing of trees and ornamental plants in the city
New Bye-Laws	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Kampala City Livestock and Companion Animals Ordinance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • These ordinance s outline regulations for city farmers and traders to promote sound management practices for each form of urban agriculture and marketing. • Provisions were included to legitimize farmers' activities and licences to regulate quality standards of commercial production. Subsequent sections of the ordinances place restrictions on where urban agriculture can be practiced and ban the use of unsafe inputs such as pesticides and chemicals. The disposal of wastes is also clearly addressed.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Kampala City Fish Ordinance 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Kampala City Urban Agriculture Ordinance 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The Kampala City Sale of Milk and Milk Products Ordinance 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The Kampala City Sale of Meat and Meat Products Ordinance 	

Source – Ssemwanga and Mc Cans, 2006

MAJOR ACTORS IN URBAN AGRICULTURE IN UGANDA

Figure 5.1 Actors in Urban Agriculture in Uganda

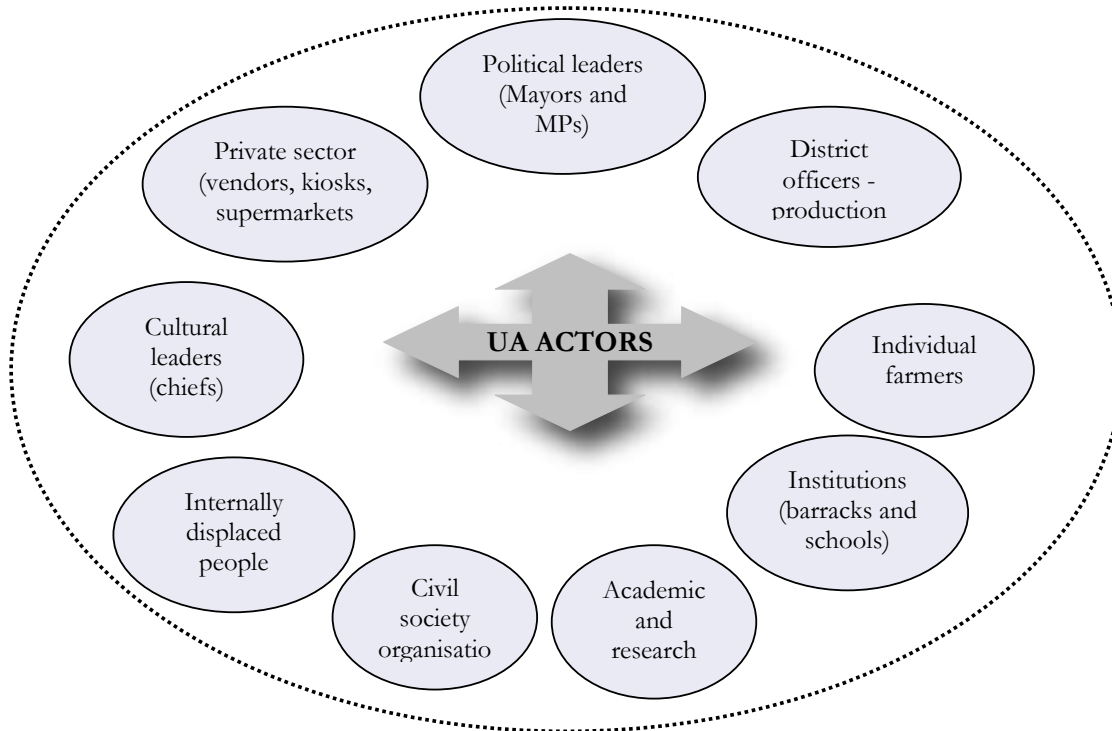


Table 5.2 Actors and Major Projects in Urban Agriculture in Uganda

Actor	Agency (Source of support and partners)	Project and its aims
Urban Authorities	KCC (IDRC, McGill University, and ETC Netherlands)	<i>Making the Edible Landscape project</i> to demonstrate the value of including urban agriculture as a permanent feature in city planning and housing design in Kampala
	KCC (IDRC)	<i>Focus City Research and Development Project Kampala</i> to pilot development activities that turn environmental burdens into livelihood benefits
	KCC (IDRC)	Pig-Feed project, to examine the linkages and waste reuse chains for feeding pigs in Kampala
	KCC (Environment Alert)	Urban Agriculture in Uganda: Characterization, Opportunities and challenges for Policy, intended to examine urban and peri-urban agriculture in urban areas of Uganda
	KCC (KARI, FIRI, UH, CIP-Peru, IDRC and IWMI Ghana)	Research projects by national and international research organizations have been instrumental in highlighting the status of UA, why it is being undertaken by urban dwellers and how some of the potential risks can be managed.
	KCC	The Kampala District Cow Bank (KAD ICOBA) - A presidential initiative targeting local women leaders in Kampala City to demonstrate the possibility of improving household nutrition and income in urban households
	KCC	The Kampala City Project for Piloting ECOSAN - aims at improving the livelihoods of people living in poorly sanitized areas of the city, based on the concept of "Closing the Loop"
	KCC	The Kampala District HIV/AIDS project - Is equipping the vulnerable groups in Kampala with appropriate production technologies as well as linking urban agriculture to nutrition education
Research and academic institutions	Urban Harvest & IITA	The project brings together a range of international and national research bodies and municipalities to investigate urban agriculture in the livelihood strategies of the urban poor
	Faculty of Agriculture Makerere University (KCC)	The Orange Fleshed Sweet Potato program (2004-2006) in primary schools to promote the widespread growing of orange fleshed sweet potatoes that can ultimately enhance food security and nutrition among households in Kampala
	Kyambogo University	Practises poultry and dairy farming on the university campus in order to supplement the dietary requirements of the student population and to

	Women Together for Development (WOTODEV)	Facilitates urban women to form groups and empowers them with knowledge and skills to improve their livelihoods, UA inclusive
	Urban Development Community Association (UCODEA)	Promotes the reuse of biodegradable wastes for production of livestock feeds and energy (briquettes)
Institutions	Various schools	Establish on-site school gardens to enrich and provide hands on learning opportunities for pupils
	Military, police and prisons barracks	Those found in Kampala City have large tracts of land that are used for agricultural purposes
Non - Governmental Organisations	Environmental Alert	Supported 600 households under the Urban Food Security and Nutrition Project in Makindye Division. It is also presently lobbying and engaging in advocacy activities related to UA and natural resources management
	Joint Energy and Environment Project (JEEP)	Supports KCC's efforts in promoting sustainable agriculture, energy saving technologies and environment protection activities
	Plan International (Uganda)	Initiated a food security and nutrition pilot programme supporting vulnerable children by empowering parents and guardians with knowledge and skills in sustainable agricultural production
	Buganda Cultural Development Foundation (BUCADEF)	Interested in women mushroom producers in Bukesa Parish in Kampala City together with providing knowledge ad skills on mushroom growing
	Environment Alert (ACODE, VEDCO, NOVIB, FAO, Ford Foundation)	Works at providing an enabling natural resources environment for resource poor communities by targeting policy and decision makers. Our major areas of advocacy are food security, access to markets, Influencing local government and natural resources management. It has also undertaken sensitization of councilors from Kampala City Council and LCIII leaders of Makindye division on the importance of urban agriculture and also co-funded the process of stakeholder input into the urban agriculture ordinances in Kampala district.
	The International Centre for Tropical Agriculture (CIAT) and the Uganda National Bean Programme (UNBP)	Undertook research to disseminate and promote new bean varieties in Kampala City between 1999 and 2000. The project promoted seed marketing activities and investigated modalities for introducing climbing beans as a new technology.

5.4 Description of Urban Agriculture in Kampala

One urban area where urban agriculture seems to capture policy attention in the country is Kampala City. In 1962, Kampala City Council (KCC) established an enforcement division within the city planning department whose main function was to 'keep the image' of the city. This governed all other towns in Uganda. This division has been harassing urban farmers, cutting down their crops and confiscating animals grazing within the city boundaries. There are three different time periods when people began farming in the city.

- Those who were already farming before the enlargement of the city by re-drawing its boundaries: 1910, 1930, 1955 and 1968.
- Those who began farming in the mid-1970s, a time of severe political and economic problems referred to as the time of 'economic war'.
- Those who began farming in the late 1980s, the period during the beginning of the structural adjustment programmes and improved security in the city (Maxwell 1995)

Estimates of the percentage of the urban population engaged in agriculture vary. Muwanga (2001), Maxwell and Zziwa (1992), Riley (1987) and UNICEF/KCC (1981) put it at 30%, 36%, 28% and 25% respectively. Urban

agriculture is not only a coping mechanism by the urban poor to ensure the availability of food but also a viable economic activity undertaken by people of different levels of economic status (Table 5.3 and 5.4), contributing enormously to the broad economy and benefiting all city dwellers as explained in the next section.

Table 5.3 Farming category by income group

Household Category	Income Group				Total
	Very low	Low	Lower Middle	Upper Middle & High	
Commercial	0	0	3	0	3
Food security	11	62	19	6	98
No other means	9	4	0	0	13
Non-farming	35	148	31	13	227
Total	55	219	53	21	348

Table 5.4 Types of urban farmers in Kampala City

Category of farmers by the major reason for practicing UA			
Commercial farmers	Food production for household consumption	Secondary form of employment	Limited economic opportunities
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Produce entirely for the urban market ▪ Numerically small ▪ Engage in zero grazing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Found in the peri-urban areas ▪ Have significant amounts of customary land ▪ Have sufficient food including cassava, sweet potatoes and beans ▪ Found in the parishes of Kyanja, Banda, Busega and Natete 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ UA is a secondary form of employment ▪ Aim at food security, i.e. grow food which they consume when they can not buy it because of shortage of cash ▪ Farming is secondary employment and source of income ▪ Land is either borrowed from institutions such as schools and churches or they use public land such as road reserves and wetlands 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Practiced by very low income groups. ▪ Dominated by female-headed households - recently widowed or abandoned by their husbands ▪ Farm for survival and consumption. ▪ Sometimes forced to sell to meet other needs, e.g. soap, salt, school fees, etc.

Source: Ssemwanga, (2007).

However, Muwanga (2001) in Ssemwanga, (2007) viewed types of urban agriculturalists as falling into two broad categories, 70% of whom are women and government institutions such as police/military barracks and educational institutions.

5.5 Urban Agriculture and Sustainable Livelihoods in Kampala

This paper would like to argue that urban agriculture is one activity that should strongly be promoted in urban areas in Uganda. This section explores the various ways in which urban agriculture, in part, contributes to sustainable livelihoods. It has been reported that urban agriculture contributes to four main areas in sustaining livelihoods. These are categorized into; food security, food self sufficiency, environmental protection, and enhancing household incomes.

Figure 5.2: Urban Agriculture and Sustainable Livelihoods Model



5.5.1 Urban agriculture, food security and nutrition

By far, the most common rationale for urban agriculture is food security, a major reason for those households with fewer means. Urban agriculture is thus an important supply source in developing-country urban food systems, a critical food-security valve for poor urban households. The urban agriculture sector represents 60% of Kampala's household food basket. This factor has facilitated the persistence of the urban agriculture sub-sector despite the ruthlessness of the urban authorities. Indeed it is this revelation which has finally led to the realization by urban planners that urban agriculture makes a very important contribution to the general food basket of city dwellers (Maxwell & Zziwa, 1992).

Crops grown are largely staple food crops: cassava, sweet potatoes, beans, maize, matooke (plantains) and cocoyams. Vegetable crops and fruit trees are also grown and a limited number of commercial producers grow coffee and even vanilla beans in the city. Among livestock producers, poultry raising is the most common, but cattle, small ruminants, pigs, rabbits and other micro livestock are raised as well (Maxwell and Zziwa, 1992). Apart from food security, urban agriculture is important for public health as well. The direct impacts are improved health conditions amongst urban farmers, thanks to a richer vitamin and protein diet. When controlling for individual children, maternal and household characteristics, the study shows evidence that urban agriculture has a positive, significant association with higher nutritional status among children, particularly as measured by height for age, caloric and protein intake, meal quality and indicators of children's growth. Further, more appropriate waste management practices lead to a decrease in health risks.

5.5.2 Urban Agriculture and Sustainable Resource Management

Sustainable resource management implies a more efficient use of resources, including a reduction and re-use of waste flows whenever possible. Closing the nutrient loop in the urban environment by re-using the so-called wastes as fertilizers in UA is an option to the prevalent open loop and linear urban system. Urban Agriculture contributes to the quality of the environment through provision of green spaces thereby enhancing the "livability" of cities. An important potential contribution of UA has been the recycling of organic wastes within the urban and peri-urban area through composting or transformation into fuel briquettes rather than expelling them as contaminants into the environment. It affords a cheap, simple, and flexible tool for

productively using open urban spaces, treating and recovering urban solid and liquid wastes, adding value to products, managing freshwater resources more sparingly, and resolving otherwise incompatible urban land use issues.

Few studies have actually permeated into urban ecological maintenance through urban agriculture, flood control and use of productive urban spaces through greening. However, these innovative technologies are being pilot-tested for out and up-scaling under the Sustainable Neighborhood in Focus-Kampala, a research and development project funded by IDRC in Kampala (SNF-Kampala, 2007). Ssemwanga (2007) also found out that the main trees commonly grown in urban areas include fruit trees, leguminous trees, medicinal trees, woodlots for commercial purposes and ornamental trees.

5.5.3 Urban agriculture and household incomes

Urban agriculture is an important supplement to household income, both real and tangible. In any case, urban farmers save money for home consumption and income from sales is spent on other basic needs or invested in other businesses. This is especially significant for poor women who must often juggle meagre household finances and face budgetary constraints, prompting them to increase their income generating activities in addition to existing productive and reproductive tasks. Thus urban agriculture can contribute significantly to urban and national efforts to deal with poverty.

Urban agricultural activities generally form part of the informal economy and are usually not included in official statistics. Furthermore, it is very difficult to determine the urban agricultural contribution towards the overall city economy as it is determined by the quantity and market value or price of the goods created by the sub-sector. However, prices cannot easily be determined, because much of the output from urban farming is sold in informal markets. According to Maxwell (1995), women in Kampala may not even let their husbands know the extent to which their gardening is relied upon in the household budget.

Tumutegyerize (1997) indicates that zero-grazing farms were more profitable compared to fenced dairy farms. In terms of cost contribution, fixed costs accounted for 79% for fenced dairy farms and 73% for zero-grazing farms. Concentrates, hired labor, water, pest control and medication were the biggest variable costs for both types of farms. Annual gross margins on a per cow basis were Ush 163,066 for zero-grazing farms and Ush 628,024 for fenced dairy farms, indicating the greater profitability of zero grazing in per-urban areas

5.6 Risks and Constraints of Urban Agricultural Practices in Uganda

Public health concerns in UA stem from misuse or mishandling of agro-chemicals, the application of untreated or improperly treated wastes to food crops, the exposure of crops to air, water, or land pollution, including possible contamination from heavy metals, and unsafe disposal of vegetable and animal wastes. Some threats, such as those from agro-chemicals, are less prevalent than commonly believed because the poor usually cannot afford inorganic inputs. Consequently, they grow crops or raise livestock organically. However, the poor often have no option other than to grow their crops in hazardous conditions and threats from authorities may only deter them from investing in safer production methods. In Uganda, for example, there has been a serious

outcry over the chemical contents of various vegetables and root crops such as yams. Results in Kampala show that wastewater released by some Ugandan industries into agricultural land, and most especially wetlands, has heavy metal content above internationally accepted concentration levels, which the crops absorb, thus posing a health risk to consumers. This is especially so with sweet potatoes and cocoyams (Nabulo, 2002). Crops grown in wetlands have the possibility for them to take up lead from leaded petrol and house paints. Cocoyam was found to be three times more resilient than sweet potato, surviving even at 800 particles per million (lead). Studies carried out also show that vegetables in the industrial area have higher concentrations of zinc, lead and copper than those grown at sites irrigated by municipal wastewater and solid waste from dumping sites. The high heavy metal content in these vegetables was attributed to multiple exposure routes (contaminated soil, soil splash onto leafy vegetables, absorption from aerial emissions and direct contact with effluents during the rainy season. It has also been suggested that it is not prudent to grow crops less than ten metres from busy roads, particularly in countries where lead fuel is still in use (Ssemwanga, 2007).

Table 5.5: The Major Constraints by Percentage Faced by Urban Farmers

Types of Constraints	Percentage (%)
Pests and diseases	68
Shortage of land	66
Land of and/or expensive inputs	53
Unreliable rainfall/drought	49
Theft of crops	48
Low soil fertility	43
Lack of extension staff	31
Lack of credit	16
Declining yields	14
Destruction of crops by domestic animals	14
Available land is water-logged	12
Labour shortage	9
Soil contamination	5
Lack of market	5
Others	11

Source: Sonia, 2003

UA farmers face a problem of access and control of land for farming in the city. Land for farming is accessed through squatting, renting and borrowing. Most people do not have absolute rights over the land that they use for farming. There is also rampant encroachment on marginal lands such as wetlands, railway margins and road reserves. In most of these cases, the size of land for urban agriculture is also very small, which limits further expansion and improvement of many agricultural enterprises. Studies carried out by Ssemwanga (2007) in Lira, Mbarara and Mbale indicate that the average land area used for UA is relatively small in the urban core areas but these increase towards the peri-urban areas (Table 5.6). The different land tenure systems (that exist in Kampala City) further complicate the ability of farmers to access land for agriculture, e.g. private mailo land (49%), statutory leases held by Kampala City Council (30%), land under direct control of the Uganda Land Commission (10%), freehold (7%) and leases held by institutions (4%).

Table 5.6 Size of Land Used for Urban Agriculture in Selected Municipalities in

Size of land for UA	Municipality								
	Lira			Mbarara			Mbale		
	Core	Transition	Peri-urban	Core	Transition	Peri-urban	Core	Transition	Peri-urban
≤0.25	9.1	12.5	5.6	13.6	15.6	3.7	4.5	6.3	7.4
0.25 - 0.49	11.4	3.1	5.6	2.3	9.4	0	6.8	18.8	7.4
0.50 - 0.99	9.1	0	11.1	4.5	3.1	3.7	4.5	12.5	0
1.00 - 2.00	6.8	0	9.3	6.8	9.4	20.4	13.6	3.1	5.6
2.10 - 4.00	0	0	7.4	2.3	0	1.9	0	0	3.7
4.10 - 6.00	0	0	0	0	3.1	1.9	0	0	0
> 6.0	0	0	0	2.3	0	3.7	0	3.1	0

Source: Ssemwanga, 2007

The lack of adequate inputs for crop and animal production is one other problem facing urban farmers. Most of the inputs are either borrowed or bought. However, it was reported that the lack of inputs was due to lack of money to purchase them, irresponsible borrowers who keep losing borrowed inputs, scarcity of particular inputs and lack of clear agricultural programmes that target urban areas. This further undermines the ability of farmers to increase production (Ssemwanga, 2007).

Perceptions about the importance of agriculture in urban areas vary. Most urban residents are very skeptical about the need to encourage urban agriculture in urban settings. Because of the unavailability of adequate pastures and feed stocks, most of the livestock in urban areas is left to roam freely. This creates a nuisance for both farming and non-farming communities, especially travelers and motor vehicles. Studies done by Ssemwanga (2007) revealed that urban agricultural problems are institutional in nature. Out of the 7 districts where studies have formally been conducted, it was reported that it is only in Kampala City and Entebbe Municipality where there are extension officers appointed to provide extension and training services to urban farmers. Other municipalities lacked extension staff to help the increasing number of urban farmers in their towns.

Theft of crops and animals is a major problem experienced by urban farmers. Problems of food insecurity and the ready market for agricultural products were the major reasons for the high rates of crop and animal thefts in the various urban centers in the country.

5.7 Recommendations

Despite the many studies that have been carried out by individual scholars and Kampala City Council in the 7 districts in Uganda, there is need for a comprehensive national study on the magnitude (size of operation, growth trends, space utilization, tenure arrangements, production systems, types of infrastructure facilities and services provided etc.), gender, youth, poverty/welfare, public health, institutional and environmental implications, opportunities and challenges of a growing sector in many urban areas in the country. This comprehensive national study should be able to strengthen local research capacity so that urban areas can formulate and implement policies and technology options, primarily for the benefit of all urban farmers.

Overall, experience shows that the prohibition of urban agriculture has been ineffective. From a policy perspective, in an effort to legitimize UA practices, urban authorities need to realize that UA is not only practiced

by the urban poor or the most recent migrants to urban areas, but by a cross section of the urban population. There is therefore a need to have a supportive political environment and a comprehensive planning system on agriculture in all urban areas in the country. Opportunities that arise from the current supportive environment in Kampala City should be seized by other urban areas in the country so that a conducive environment for urban farming is created. Urban laws and regulations in other towns need to be revised so that they are compatible with people's survival options, as in Kampala, where bye-laws now allow for certain kinds of farm production in certain zones. Government also needs to tolerate urban agriculture as an interim land use system in public housing areas or incorporate it as a way to productively manage open urban spaces.

Government has adopted a variety of measures to reduce poverty in the whole country. However, most of the approaches such as PMA, NAADS activities and Prosperity For All are biased against urban areas. Some of these programmes, if not all, need to be re-oriented towards the urban areas as well. There is a need to increase support to urban farmers either in form of subsidized farm inputs or micro-credit to facilitate increased agricultural production.

Urban areas in Uganda are confronted with a number of problems that are associated with poverty, production and consumption patterns. It is important to explore the possibilities of using urban agriculture as a lever to problems such as waste management and nutrient cycling, soil conservation and water management, nutritional programmes that target mothers and children, urban agriculture for vocational training, and general community development. There is enormous potential for reducing risks to public health by educating and empowering urban producers, as opposed to ignoring or harassing them. Farmers can reduce environmental risks and gain financially by making appropriate choices about what crops to grow.

Studies carried out show that there are a number of stakeholders that are involved in urban agriculture. There is therefore a need for urban agriculture to be fully integrated into the urban development strategies of most urban areas. Integrated participatory planning together with new partnerships should be used to build a strong urban agriculture constituency in the country.

5.8 Conclusion

Urban agriculture will continue to be an important element as urbanisation unfolds in Uganda. However, for it to be included in urban development strategies, it should be important to understand:

1. Policies and technologies that can offer alternative strategies to improve the livelihoods of the poorest city dwellers, the dominant group engaged in the activity;
2. The mix of crop and livestock choice and growing practices that offer the best balance of nutritional value, income, safety, and work effort;
3. What tenure arrangements can be offered to allow organized groups, particularly women, the youth and the very poor, to have equitable access to urban spaces for agriculture;
4. What innovative forms of credit can be made available to assist urban producers and small-scale processing operations and

5. Support for community groups and sustenance for production, processing, marketing and advocacy. All these can further be linked to the various sector approaches that inform the PEAP as the overarching development policy framework for the development of Uganda.

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CHAPTER 6



UPSCALING HOUSEHOLD INCOMES AND INVESTMENT IN URBAN UGANDA: CHALLENGES AND PROSPECTS

6.0 Introduction

The goal for every individual is a “better life”, with a higher standard of living, education, health care, and economic opportunity, not only for themselves today but also for their children in future (SUPRE 2001). Efforts to support the individual to attain this goal have been invested at household, community, national and international levels. Despite these efforts, 31 percent of the population remains below the poverty line (UBOS 2006). Although 96 percent of those below the poverty line live in rural areas, urban poverty is more concentrated. This chapter identifies critical factors for up-scaling household incomes and investments in urban Uganda as well as examining challenges and prospects to increased household incomes and suggests recommendations on the way forward.

6.1 Background

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) represent a set of global development priorities and targets that world leaders committed themselves to at a UN summit held in New York in September 2000. The eight MDGs: Eradicating extreme poverty and hunger; Achieving universal primary education; Promoting gender equity and empowering women; Reducing child mortality; Improving maternal health; Combating HIV/AIDS; Ensuring environmental sustainability and Developing global partnerships for development.

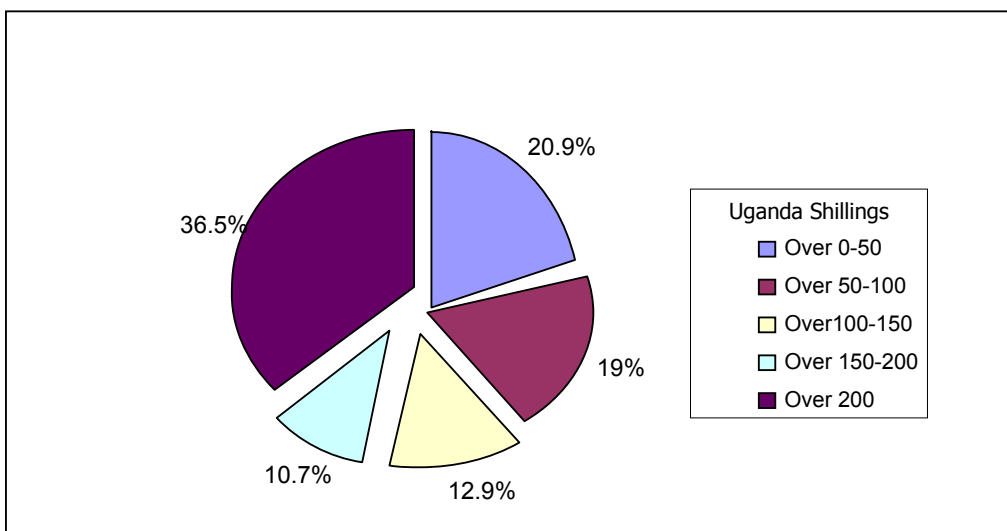
Since 1997, the Government of Uganda has pursued the goal of poverty eradication through the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP), which is the national development framework and medium-term planning tool. It has six pillars, namely: Economic Management, Enhancing Production, Competitiveness and Incomes, Security, Conflict Resolution and Disaster Management, Good Governance and Human Development.

The population of Uganda was projected to be 28.2 million (in 2006). The urban population is about 3.23 million people. The incidence of income poverty fell from 56% of the population living below the poverty line in 1992 to 34% in 2000 and further to 31% in 2006. The incidence of income poverty in urban areas rose from 9.6% in 2000 to 12.2% in 2006 (MFPED 2005, UBOS 2006).

6.2 Income Generation at Urban Household Level

Urban households are engaged in a number of economic activities to generate incomes and eradicate poverty. As a result, a number of them have come out quite successfully while others have not been so successful. Figure 6.1 shows the percentage distribution of urban households by income class.

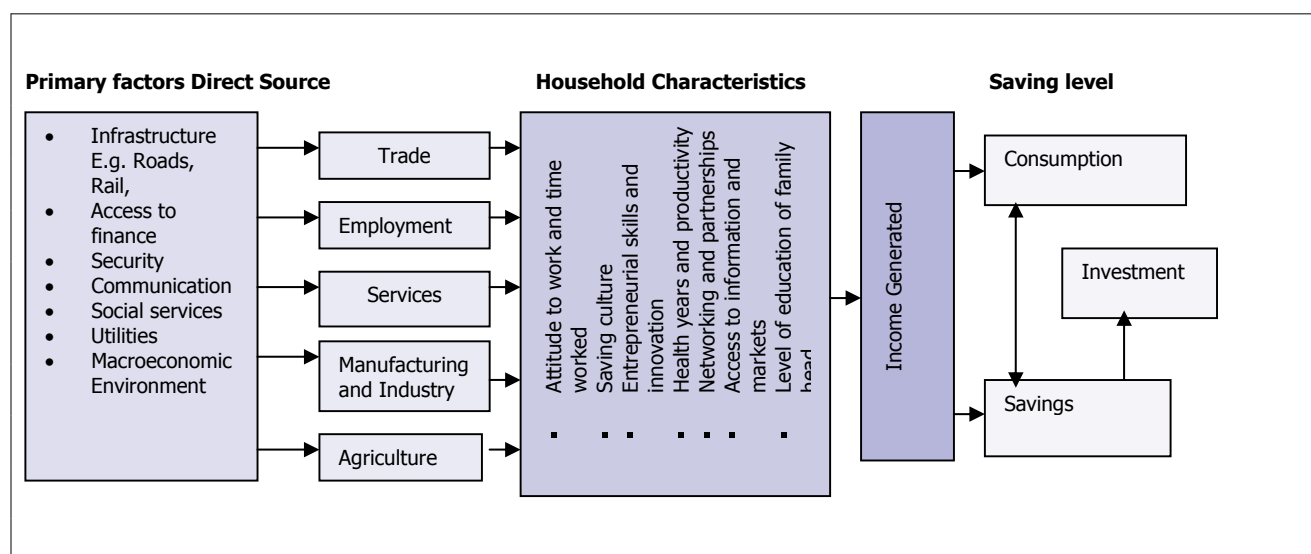
Figure 6.1: Percentage Distribution of Urban Households by Income class



Source UBOS: 2006

The income-generating activities include trade, employment, services, manufacturing and agriculture. These form direct sources of income which also depend on primary factors to generate incomes at household level. The primary factors include infrastructure (roads, rail, and electricity), access to finance, security, communication, social services, utilities and macroeconomic environment. However, for a household to generate incomes from both direct and indirect sources, the primary factors depend on its characteristics. For instance household size determines how much of the earned income is saved and invested. Figure 6.2 presents the theoretical relationship between income generation and investment at household level.

Figure 6.2: Conceptual Framework for Generating Household Income and Investment



Source: Adapted from PEAP 2004/5-2007/8

6.3 Primary Factors

Infrastructure is known to increase the productive capacity of an economy more than any other sector. Infrastructure, which includes roads, rails, electricity and ports, plays a crucial role in the transportation of goods and people. Good infrastructure reduces the time spent traveling from one place to another and reduces the transport costs, thereby reducing the total costs, hence increased profits and savings. Infrastructure is also crucial for accessing markets for products, especially food products, which are highly demanded in urban areas. Good roads, for instance, enable traders to reduce prices for food and fuel (charcoal) thereby enabling urban dwellers to make substantial savings on the two most important items. The savings made on charcoal, for instance, would reach the majority of the urban population since 66.6% of urban dwellers use charcoal for cooking (UBOS 2005).

Electricity is critical for income generation as it enhances the ability to manufacture, store, preserve and allow for processing of products into less bulky, long shelf life and high value products. Electricity also enables producers to use high productivity technologies which are labour saving and reduce drudgery. Lighting also contributes to increased working hours for households and cottage industries, thereby increasing incomes (SUPRE 2002). Providing electricity offers a conducive environment for entertainment, an item cherished by urban dwellers, enabling those in the entertainment industry to generate income.

Access to financial services is crucial for providing the much needed capital for trade and other income-generating activities. Access to finance has been limited by high lending rates and lack of collateral. For instance the mean average weighted lending rate for the first six months of the financial year 2005/2006 was 20% compared to 21% and 18.5% for the two previous financial years (MFPED 2005).

The security of people and property is paramount in as far as income generation is concerned. A peaceful environment enables people to work longer hours and increases the marginal propensity to save. As urban

areas are associated with crime, especially robbery, money conning and pick-pocketing, there is need to maintain peace and security to avoid loss of income but also to facilitate increased income generation through increased working hours. Security also builds confidence in the population to forego consumption of earned income in preference for the future.

Provision of social services, especially health and education, is critical for income generation. Good health, for instance, increases workdays, thereby increasing incomes. The first Participatory Poverty Assessment (PPAI) conducted in 1998, and the PPAII conducted in 1992 cited the most frequent cause of poverty as ill health and disease. People explained that poor health causes poverty because when they are sick they cannot work, women and children spend time taking care of the sick, thereby reducing the time for productive work and the cost of treatment uses up valuable savings and in some cases assets have to be sold (MoFPED 2000).

Government policies relating to taxation and subsidies affect much of income generation. Taxes erode disposable income while subsidies boost the disposable income. Taxes on products and imports include customs duty, excise duty, VAT (net of refunds) and commission on imports.

Communication services are also important as they facilitate business transactions which translate into increased incomes. Access to information is very critical as it facilitates identification of opportunities, stimulates behavior change and helps product and service marketing. However, the uneconomical use of mobile phones depletes earned incomes instead of generating more.

A stable macro economic environment, which includes stable prices (controlled inflation), stability of currency exchange rates and balance of trade is crucial for income generation and savings. For instance stable prices encourage people to save with confidence that their real incomes will not be diminished by increased prices in the near future. In addition, wage and salary earners are able to cope without fear of loss in real earnings.

6.4 Direct Sources

Trade is the main occupation of urban dwellers with a large population involved in informal and local trade such as sale of second hand clothes while a small proportion are engaged in formal or international trade.

Employment is a direct source of income for urban dwellers as they are paid salaries and wages for the labour services offered. Unfortunately, not all job-seekers are able to find work and therefore a number of them remain unemployed. Table 6.1 shows monthly wages for employees in the private and public sector.

Table 6.1: Median Monthly Nominal Wages for Employees ('000)

Sex	Public sector	Private sector	Total
Male	150	40	48
Female	140	18.1	20
Rural/Urban			
Urban	176	72.4	90
Rural	143	25	28
Education level			
No Formal Schooling	53	18.1	18.1
Primary	60	27.2	27.2
Some Secondary	117	63.4	70
Post secondary	150	120	150
Uganda	148	30	36.2

Source: UNHS 2005/06

The services sector has also become a major source of earnings for urban dwellers. The services include: hotel and restaurant, transport, banking and micro finance, real estate, internet café, recreation and culture and sports. The transport and communication has become the fastest growing sub-sector in the economy (MFPED 2005).

The manufacturing sector is also a direct source of income for those involved in it particularly in the sub-sectors of: sugar processing, edible oil, soft drinks, cotton ginning, cement and roofing products.

Although on a relatively lower scale than the rural areas, agriculture plays an important role as a source of income, particularly floriculture and fish farming. Compared to the rural population, the urban population practises agriculture more on a commercial basis.

6.5 Household Characteristics

Household characteristics determine how much income is generated, consumed, saved and invested. For instance households whose members spend long hours working earn more incomes than those that have a poor work attitude and spend few hours at work. Also households with a higher saving culture invest more of the earned incomes than those that spend more on purchasing for consumption. Other household factors include: entrepreneurial skills and innovation, access to information and markets, level of education of family head, previous investments and household size.

6.6 Household Income Expenditure and Savings

Households which are engaged in various income-generating activities are able to realise incomes. However, how much of the earned income is saved and invested depends on their levels of consumption expenditure.

According to UNHS 2005/2006, households spend their incomes on food, drink and tobacco, rent, fuel and energy, education, health, transport & communication household and personal goods, and clothing and footwear as reflected in table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Percentage of Household Expenditure by Item Groups

Items	2002/03			2005/06		
	Rural	Urban	Uganda	Rural	Urban	Uganda
"Food, drink & tobacco"	50	33	44	50	34	45
Clothing & footwear	4	5	4	4	4	4
"Rent, fuel & energy"	17	23	19	15	20	16
Household & personal goods	7	7	7	5	6	7
Transport & communication	6	12	8	6	10	7
Education	6	10	7	8	13	10
Health	5	3	4	8	4	7
Other consumption expenditure	2	3	2	2	4	3
Non-consumption expenditure	3	5	3	3	5	4

Source: Census Report 2002

The table above shows that food, drinks and tobacco take the highest proportion of households' income followed by rent, fuel and energy. Non consumption expenditure, which by implication is investment, takes only 5 percent of earned income.

6.7 Household Investments

The long journey to poverty eradication at household level ends with real investments, particularly real estate and household asset ownership. The ownership of assets (particularly land in the case of the poor) has been found to have a large impact on a household's ability to hedge itself from poverty.

An analysis of the land market carried out by Deininger and Mpuga (2003), based on the 1999/2001 UNHS survey, finds that only a small proportion of households owned land. The village census also found that the poor have been at a low level of asset ownership for a long time and do not follow the steady growth experienced by the wealthier households. These findings are confirmed by Lawson et al (2003) who show that asset depletion is particularly prevalent in households that were chronically poor and households moving into poverty that appear to make distress sales of key assets in an attempt to avoid poverty (MFPED: 2003). Table 6.3, indicates that a number of households own just a few assets.

Table 6.3: Percentage of Households Owning Selected Assets, 2002

Selected Household Assets	2002		
	Rural	Urban	Total
Occupied own house	86.2	30.4	78.5
Owned a radio	45.4	68.2	48.6
Owned a TV set	2.1	19.6	4.5
Owned a bicycle	35.7	18.9	33.3
Owned a motor car	0.9	6	1.6
Owned a motorcycle	2.3	3.6	2.4
Did not own any means of transport	61.9	74.7	63.7
Owned a telephone (fixed or mobile)	2.5	24.4	5.5

Source: Census Report 2002

6.8 Challenges and Prospects for Upscaling Household incomes and Investments

The state of infrastructure, especially the roads, poses serious constraints for income generation since transport costs have been hiked as a response to the bad roads. The poor roads also present a hidden tax to motor vehicle road users arising from high maintenance costs. The deteriorating road conditions have been exacerbated by a poor road maintenance culture. The commitment to upgrade roads that has been jumpstarted by the forthcoming Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting (CHOGM) gives some hope for a continued culture of road improvement.

Uganda is facing a severe electricity supply shortage which is manifested in load shedding. Whereas the country needs about 340 MW, the two major power stations, Kiira and Nalubale, generate 180 MW, which is supplemented by 50 MW of thermal electricity. The load shedding has negatively affected income generation for the business community especially those dealing in perishable commodities such as milk and meat and those engaged in small-scale processing and manufacturing. There is, however, a ray of hope for investors and the business community as Government plans to produce 250 MW from Bujagali and 200 MW from Karuma falls. The Rural Electrification Programme (REP) is also enabling extension of power to urban councils hitherto not connected to the national grid (MoFPED 2006).

The continuing difficulty in accessing financial credit due to very high interest rates is poses a great challenge to those who are seek to start or boost their business ventures. However, the “Bonna Bagaggawale” (Prosperity for All) initiative provides optimism as it offers low interest rates of 9% and solves the collateral problem by allowing social security. This is expected to benefit especially women, who are the hardest hit regarding lack of collateral security (PSR 2003).

Insecurity in urban councils of the north and north east still poses a great challenge to income generation in those areas. The current peace talks between the Government and the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA) offers hope towards ending the war and the commencement of rapid income generation in the northern and north eastern parts of Uganda.

The Government’s provision of social services, especially health and education to the urban population, still faces a lot of pressure due to large numbers. The demand for services far exceeds the supply. As a result, the urban poor, most of whom are concentrated in slums, have little or no access to basic services. In real terms, therefore, these people are poorer than the people in rural areas (PSR, 2003).

Government policies still do not focus on improvement of households as most emphasis is placed on macroeconomic management. For instance at 30 percent income tax and 18 percent VAT, taxation remains unfriendly by way of grossly eroding household disposable income. The huge public expenditure also erodes the capacity of Government to reduce on taxation and upscale provision of public services.

The communication sector still poses challenges to income generation as the calling rates and the transmission of data through various ICT modes is still way too expensive. A service such as communication, which only facilitates transactions and is not in itself a final product, should not be as expensive as it is in Uganda

today. The inherent hope here is that Government has waived the monopoly in the sector and opened it for competition, which is hoped to lower calling rates and the transmission of data. The wide coverage of radio through a number of FM stations is stimulating behavior change and empowerment of the population (United Nations, 2003).

There are challenges emanating from the macroeconomic environment such as the current high unemployment and under-employment, which are disproportionately affecting the urban population. The prices for imported products, especially inputs and industrial machinery, have also remained very high as well as interest rates. There are, however, good prospects since Government has maintained a competitive exchange rate and kept inflation below 5%. For instance the annual headline inflation rate for March 2007 fell to 4.5%, the lowest since December 2005 due to a decline in food prices (UBOS 2007). There are also prospects of market expansion through the fast tracking of the realization of the East African Community (EAC).

Increasing incomes at household level still faces challenges of retrogressive household characteristics including poor attitude to work, few hours of work a day and a poor saving culture. Households are also characterized by inadequate skills, low life expectancy due to high mortality and morbidity, low levels of education for family heads and poor access to information and markets. Due to chronic poverty, a number of households do not have previous investments inherited from their ascendants and therefore start from scratch in the search for wealth (Chronic Poverty Research Center, 2005). A number of households are characterized by large family size and a large number of dependants, which increases their consumption and erodes their capacity to attain economic growth.

6.9 Roles of Various Players in Up-scaling Household Incomes

A number of players have been instrumental in up-scaling household incomes in urban Uganda as follows:

6.9.1 Household Heads

Household heads play a crucial role in generating household incomes as they are the major planners and decision-makers. They assign work to individual household members and supervise them to ensure that tasks are accomplished in time. Household heads also perform the critical function of household size determination and that of resource allocation to various and often competing needs. The role household heads play is so critical that they need to be educated, skilled and committed to household development. According to the UNHS 2006, households with high incomes are those likely to be headed by educated members (UBOS 2006).

6.9.2 Private Sector

The private sector provides income to households by way of employment and trade profits. The private sector, which has a high potential to absorb all the unemployed population, is negatively affected by high taxes, electricity shortages, high cost of capital and high operational costs.

6.9.3 Civil Society Organizations

The civil society very been so supportive of households in search of increased incomes. They, have for instance, provided employment, served as market for traders and run projects that have had a multiplier effect on

household income generations. The civil society, however, has been weak in sensitizing the population to demand services from Government, promoting accountability and efficiency in government expenditure, influencing policy development and implementation, reaching households with product information and services and provision of critical services such as education, health and waste disposal.

6.9.4 Urban Local Government

Urban authorities, especially urban councils as the main decision-making bodies, play a crucial role in ensuring delivery of public services. Their policies, bye-laws and decisions directly affect household incomes and welfare. They, however, have been weak in reaching households to check if government services reach them, monitoring compliance with government bye-laws and regulations such as those on alcohol consumption and hygiene, ensuring accountability and effective service delivery, prioritizing infrastructure development and maintenance, especially of roads and electricity, and addressing bottlenecks to trade and other income-generating activities.

6.9.5 Development Partners

Development partners have been very supportive in as far as Government budget support is concerned and directly extending financial support to projects. The financial support, however, has not been targeted towards activities that directly increase income at household level. Where this has been done, funds have been misappropriated or directly embezzled, thereby frustrating service delivery.

6.10 Policy Recommendations

1. Government should accord infrastructure development and maintenance, especially of roads and electricity top priority and make sufficient budget provisions in the Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF).
2. Government should reduce the bank lending interest rate to at least 15 percent and introduce different interest rates for different business activities depending on their levels of profitability and gestation period.
3. Government needs to provide incentives to the private sector in form of subsidies and tax waivers especially to those providing vital services such as health and education and those with potential to provide large-scale employment.
4. Government should make households the main target of its programmes and a strong monitoring and evaluation mechanism be developed and implemented to ensure this is achieved. Programmes should be put in place to address causes of poverty at household level, especially poor attitude to work, few hours of work done a day, poor saving culture, inadequate skills, low levels of education for family heads, and poor access to information and markets.
5. Government reintroduces running enterprises where it has a comparative advantage to generate enough income to finance public expenditure while easing the tax burden on citizens.

6. Government should license more service providers in the telecommunication industry in order to introduce competition, thereby reducing the calling rates and cost of data transmission through various ICT modes.
7. Government needs to address the electricity supply shortage as a matter of urgency by providing the necessary resources to implement envisaged projects and financially supporting the Rural Electrification Programme to extend power to all urban councils.
8. The civil society should step up provision of products, services and information especially to urban households and also sensitize the population to demand services from Government, promote accountability and efficiency in government expenditure and influence policy development and implementation.
9. Local authorities, especially urban councils, should start household-focused delivery of services and develop and enforce bye-laws that regulate household conduct such as those on excessive alcohol consumption and idleness.
10. Development partners should support more projects focused on household development and step up accountability to ensure that households benefit from their support.

6.11 Conclusion

The goal for every individual is a “better life”, not only for themselves today but also for their children in future. Efforts to support the individual to attain this goal have been invested at international, national, community and household levels.

Households which are engaged in various income generating occupations are able to realize incomes. How much of the earned incomes is saved and invested depends on their levels of consumption and savings, which themselves are dictated upon by a number of factors such as size of family and price levels. The saved household earnings are translated into investments, which manifest themselves in household asset ownership.

The ownership of assets, particularly land, has been found to have a large impact on a household’s ability to tackle poverty. Up-scaling incomes at urban household level faces a lot of challenges, but there are prospects that can be taken advantage of. A number of players such as household heads, Government, civil society, the private sector and development partners are instrumental in up-scaling household incomes. A number of recommendations have been proposed, including improving the infrastructure, especially roads, and enhancing access to financial credit.

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CHAPTER 7



STREET CHILDREN: IMPLICATION FOR DEVELOPMENT

7.0 Introduction

Uganda has made substantial progress in social and economic development since 1986, but several challenges remain. Although free primary education is available to all Ugandan children, only 60% complete primary school. The HIV/AIDS pandemic continues to exert its toll on Uganda's population in terms of death, disability, lost productivity and numbers of orphans and vulnerable children. Persistent conflict and the insurgency over the last 20 years have disrupted the lives of over 4,000,000 Ugandans. The number of people internally displaced has risen to over 840,000. The number of orphans has increased to two million. The above factors play a significant role in the influx of over 10,000 children on the streets (ANPPCAN 2006).

A number of efforts have been made, both by the Government and the community to reduce/eliminate street children. However, not enough is being done to address the problem.

7.1 Situation analysis

7.1.0 Street Children by Tribe/Region

In the various towns of the country, there are street children of different tribes, a trend that shows some form of migration of the children. In Kampala, the major tribe on observation is the Karimojong. Data from way back in 1993 notes a mixture of Ganda, Banyakitara and Gisu. This shows that the tribal dimension has been changing with time. The predominant tribes in Western Uganda are the Banyankole and the Bakiga. In eastern Uganda are the Gisu and Karimojong. In the north are the Acholi and Lugbara.



7.1.1 Street Children by Sex

Girls are far less visible on the streets, constituting the minority of street children. A survey of all full-time street children in Kampala in 1999 revealed that less than 3% were girls. Table 7.1 shows an analysis done in 1993, which showed that the percentage of girls on the streets is far much less than that of boys.

Table 7.1 Street Children by Sex

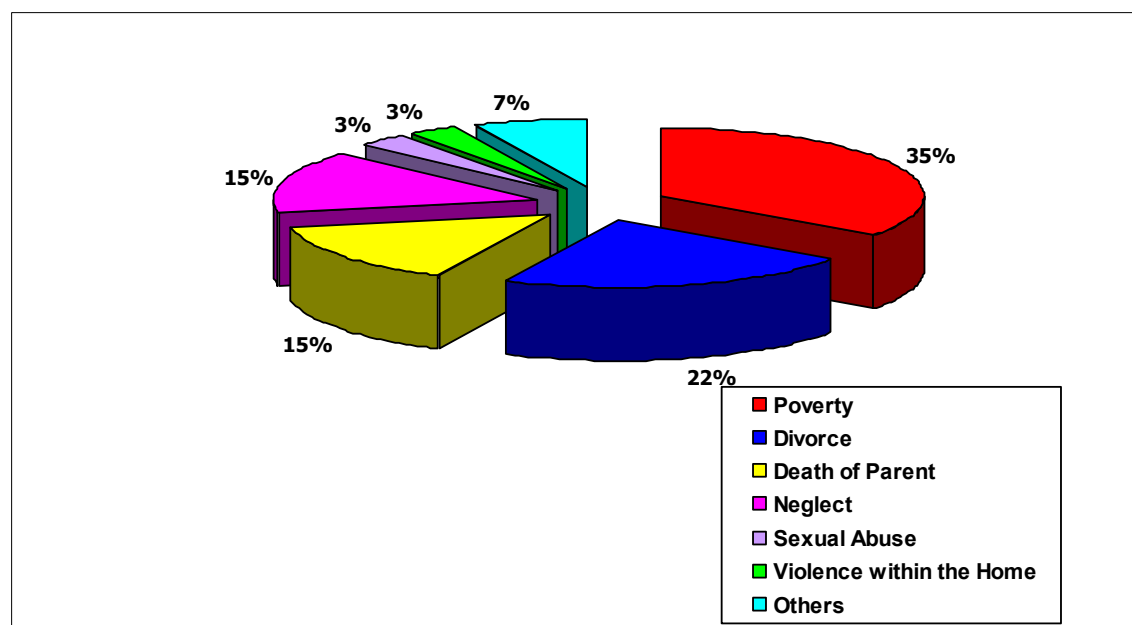
Sex	Jinja, Mbale	Busia	Malaba	Masaka	Mbarara	Kampala	Gulu	Kabaale	Arua
Girls	35%	41%	41%	0	0	10%	12%	8%	8%
Boys	65%	59%	59%	100%	100%	90%	75%	92%	92%

Source: Ministry of Gender Labor and Social Affairs, 1993

7.2 Causes of Street Children

- Extreme poverty in the home; Poverty results into children being forced to work on the streets to support themselves and their families. Poverty also causes families to break up, with parents being unable to support their children. Rural poverty causes rural populations, including children, to move to urban areas with the hope of a better future. Poverty causes malnutrition and poor health and reduces a family's ability to work, thus creating conditions for the children to move to the streets.
- Breakdown in the family structure; In Uganda, the family institution is going through a lot of upheavals. Fewer children have stable and loving families. Many families are increasingly being characterized by absent parents, lack of communication between parents and children, alcoholism and domestic violence. Many children run to the streets to avoid abuse by parents or family members.
- AIDS pandemic; HIV/AIDS still remains a serious challenge, contributing to morbidity and mortality. The morbidity and mortality of those in the 20-49 age group leaves many of their children without support. Illness and eventual death of parents translate into a lack of capacity to generate income and provide basic needs. Many of the children involved cannot go to school. These children and youth are primary candidates for street life.
- War civil strife; In Uganda, wars/civil strife have been a major contributing factor to children joining the streets. Other causes include deceit, leading to trafficking, as well as natural disasters such as floods and drought.

Figure 7.1: Reasons cited by Street Children for leaving Home



7.3. Development and Street Children.

For a country to develop, it should invest in its human capital. This can be done through provision of education, health and employment services among others. Today's children are tomorrow's workers, entrepreneurs, parents, active citizens, and, indeed, leaders. Street children's vulnerability hinders them from acquiring education and employment and their health status is compromised due to their poor standard of living. Their contribution to development is limited; instead they interfere with other developing sectors of the country.

7.3.1 Health

One of the measures of a country's development is its health indicators. A number of factors contribute to this, including health services and information dissemination. For good indicators, a country has to ensure that all its citizens can access health services and are not at risk. Street children's health, however, is threatened because of their lifestyle. Their health is affected in three ways. The first is their exposure to accidents and other risks while on the streets. Second is the difficulties they face in accessing medical care, including their inability to pay for services and lastly, their lack of motivation to use and ignorance of existing medical services.

Street children are more vulnerable to HIV/AIDS than their counterparts who are not on the streets. This is because they lack correct information, are sexually active earlier and have more partners. They are sexually exploited, engage in transactional sex and rarely use condoms. STDs and pregnancies occur more frequently among them than among other youth (Gawaya, 2002). Disease and more especially HIV/AIDS is a major setback to development.

7.3.2. Education.

These children should ideally be in school. The fact that they are not contributes to the high illiteracy levels in the country. When they grow up, because they are uneducated, they are unable to find formal employment.

Unemployed and without money, they are unable to give their own children education. The childhood period is a time for intense learning, when one can acquire the human capacity needed to move themselves out of poverty. Because they are not in school, street children miss out on other aspects of life such as acquiring skills and becoming responsible citizens.

7.3.3. Employment.

This group is mainly unemployed because of their low levels of education. Those who work are employed part-time in the informal sector. They engage in activities such as washing cars, cleaning compounds and carrying luggage. The majority of street children are engaged in stealing and begging. The more the number of employed people, the broader the tax base. Street children do not contribute to the development of the country since they do not pay taxes. In addition, their lifestyle hinders them from investing, even when they get enough money to do so. The majority spend their earnings on recreational activities such as watching movies.

7.3.4. Political Forces

The presence of large numbers of disgruntled young people in cities can be politically destabilizing. They are prime targets for those prepared to use violence as a political weapon. Street children can be the guerillas and terrorists of tomorrow. Political instability has been a major factor in hindering development in Uganda in the past. It is therefore important that street children are not given chance to get recruited into rebel groups.

7.3.5 Tourism

Uganda is one of the most beautiful countries in Africa, with fantastic natural scenery. Half of the world's remaining mountain gorilla population is in Uganda. The country also offers world class white water rafting at the source of the River Nile. It has one of the region's best national parks where wildlife viewing does not involve long waits. Despite all this, tourists need a conducive environment that is clean and has security. Street children make the towns where they are less attractive and less secure. The children's presence on the streets of key towns interferes with the security of those who visit the towns.

7. 4. Instruments and Commitments About Street Children.

While one can speak of some kind of political commitment on the part of Government, very little is being done to address the problem of street children. Uganda's commitment to children includes the ratification of the UN Convention on the Rights of Children and the enactment of the Children's Statute. The Constitution of the Republic of Uganda protects the marginalized groups including children. The Government has also put a Ministry of Gender, Labor and Social Development, which is directly responsible for children and women's affairs. However, most of the direct actions to help street children are being undertaken by NGOs, charity organizations and religious leaders. The instruments outlined below are legal entities that hold the Government responsible for the welfare of all children, including street children.

7.4.1 International Instruments

- United Nations (UN) Convention on the Rights of the Child protects children against any form of abuse and neglect.

- The Organization of African Union (OAU) Charter on the Rights and Welfare of Children.
- The Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights protects against abuse of human rights.

7.4.2 National Instruments

- The Constitution of the Republic of Uganda recognizes the need to protect the rights of children and all adults without discrimination.
- The Children's Act 2000 provides a legal framework to protect and promote the rights of children. The Local Government Act 1997 Schedule 2 mandates the local administration to provide services to children within their areas of jurisdiction without discrimination.
- The Children's Statute was enacted in 1996; six years later Uganda ratified the Convention on the Rights of the Child. The statute was created as a means of offering higher resource allocation to social services that directly benefit children. Local councils are assigned responsibility for ensuring children's safety and well-being (Republic of Uganda, 1996).

7.5. Government and Community Initiatives

7.5.1 Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs)

There are a number of organizations in Uganda that work with street children. These play a major role in rehabilitation. An example is the Friends of Children Association (FOCA), a local NGO formed in 1987, which is the oldest organization empowering and re-integrating street children in their local communities. FOCA has been partnering with a number of local and international organisations in providing vocational and life skills to these children to enable them access jobs or self-employment which make life on the streets less attractive. In partnership with International Solidarity Foundation (ISF), Finland, FOCA has seen hundreds of former street children into productive and meaningful life. Many are in the small-scale metal craft ventures.

Over 1,000 former street children have graduated in vocational training since FOCA started. These children get training for example, in metal fabrications works in places like Katwe and Kisenyi and get employment in the same places after training.

Other organizations include Rubaga Youth Development Association (RYDA), which operates one of the largest street children skills training in Uganda.

Kids in Need targets children living and working on the streets in Uganda. The programme identifies children actively involved in the worst forms of child labor and those who are very likely to become entrapped. Religious leaders have also played a role in relocating street children into homes set up by churches.

7.5.2 Individuals

Individuals, too, have come up to assist in street children's rehabilitation. An example is the Kampala Woman MP, Nabilah Ssempala, who in 2006 opened up a food pantry and childcare centre to cater for needy children.

Other families go ahead and foster street children. Rather than sending these children to rehabilitation centres, fostering some of them is the cheapest way of removing them from the streets of Kampala. Those willing to help children do so through the homes established by the Government, which include Naguru Remand Home, Kampiringisa National Rehabilitation Centre and Nsumba Transit Centre.

7.5.3 Government

Government's traditional practice has been to round up the street children and confine them along with non-street children, delinquents, stray children and other children in need of care, in government residential facilities of remand, training centers, probation and children's homes. While a number of government centers have tried to be responsive to the rights of street children, most have cited financial and human resources as inadequate to fully meet the challenge of providing for these children. In addition, Government has come up with strategic plans to remove these children/adults from the streets. The most current is the statement by the Minister of Gender, Labour, and Social Development, Hon. Syda Bbumba on Street Children in Uganda. It is hoped that if effectively implemented, the strategies will help curb the problem of street children. The family and Children Protection Unit has been established in the police force; a draft government street children policy is in place and the National Street Children Committee was established, involving both government and NGOs to address the problem of street children.

7.6. Conclusion

From the above analysis, it is clear that there is need to address the issue of street children in a more comprehensive way to reduce its impact on development. Although the Government has come up with a number of strategies, these can only be effective if they involve all stakeholders including the street children themselves. There is also need to holistically address factors that contribute to the children's journey to and retention on the streets. It is important that while these children are still on the streets, their rights as humans be upheld, for instance they should be able to access crucial services such as health. Although data is vital for planning for street children, most of that available is outdated. There is need for current research on street children in Uganda to inform policy and decision makers.

7.7. Recommendations

- Develop and implement, with the active involvement of street children/adults themselves a comprehensive policy that addresses the root causes in order to prevent and reduce this phenomenon, and which provides street children with the necessary protection, adequate health-care services, education and other social services.
- A process could be initiated through child welfare fora to review existing legislation on children and how these can be strengthened.
- The Government should prioritize and increase budgetary allocations for children at both national and local levels, for example for the work of the District Probation and Welfare Office, to ensure, at all levels, respect for the rights the child, and in particular to pay attention to the protection of the rights

of children belonging to vulnerable groups, such as those with disabilities, those affected by and/or infected with HIV/AIDS, children living in poverty and those in remote areas.

- Effective support programmes for children in vulnerable families, such as those affected by HIV/AIDS, single parent families and families suffering from poverty need to be encouraged.
- Many of the organizations working in the area of street children have been in existence for a couple of years. In the long term, it could be beneficial for these to have capacity assessment in order for intervening around NGO, CBO or organizational capacity-building.
- Effective support be lent to extended families which care for the children of parents who have died of AIDS and for child-headed families; and the promotion of and support for family type forms of alternative care for children deprived of parental care, in order to reduce the resort to residential care.
- The problem of trafficking in children and young women should be put on the public agenda by publicizing its nature and magnitude in the media and at workshops and seminars held for all stakeholders including community leaders, judges, immigration officials, the police and political leaders.

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