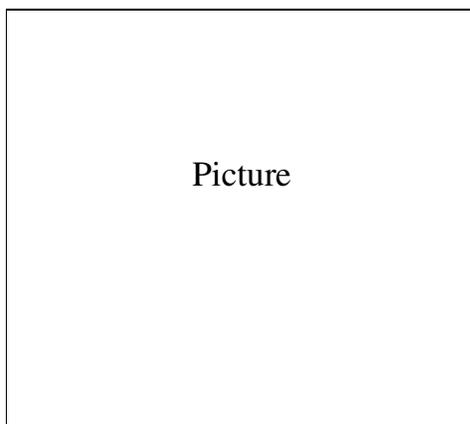




Gender Inequality in Uganda: The status, causes and effects.



Discussion Paper 11

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Foreword

The major concern of Government in Uganda today, is the issue of poverty reduction among the citizenry. Gender inequality and poverty are the result of distinct though interlocking, social relations and processes. Women's experience of poverty is mediated by social relations of gender.

Over the last two decades, government of Uganda has actively promoted women's empowerment and gender equality in both legal and policy arenas. However, although Uganda has embraced gender mainstreaming, it is evident that gender inequalities are still persistent.

This report has described the status, causes and effects of gender inequality in Uganda. The findings in the report are a reminder to all stakeholders of the uphill task still ahead in the struggle for gender equality.

I hope that these findings and recommendations rekindle efforts of government departments, civil society organisations as well as development partners; geared towards reduction of gender inequality.

C.M. Kassami
Permanent Secretary/ Secretary to the Treasury

Abbreviations and Acronyms

AIDS	Acquired Immuno-Deficiency Syndrome
ARI	Acute Respiratory Infection
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
DFID	Department for International Development
DRB	Domestic Relations Bill
EMIS	Education Management Information System
F	Female
FAL	Functional Adult Literacy
FHH	Female Headed Household
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HIV	Human Immuno-Deficiency Virus
JLOS	Justice, Law and Order Sector
LC	Local Council
M	Male
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MFPED	Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development
MHH	Male Headed Household
MTCS	Medium Term Competitive Strategy
NAADS	National Agricultural Advisory Services
PEAP	Poverty Eradication Action Plan
PMA	Plan for Modernization of Agriculture
POPSEC	Population Secretariat
PRSC	Poverty Reduction Support Credit
PSIA	Poverty and Social Impact Assessment
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
TFR	Total Fertility Rate
UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UDHS	Uganda Demographic and Health Survey
UN	United Nations
UNHS	Uganda National Household Survey
UPE	Universal Primary Education
UPPAP	Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process
US\$	United States Dollar
UWONET	Uganda Women's Network
WHH	Women Headed Household

Useful Definitions and Concepts

Gender

This refers to socially and culturally defined roles, attributes, and privileges of females and males. There exist biological differences between women and men but different societies in the world interpret and engineer the innate (God-made) differences into a set of social expectations about behaviours, activities, rights, power, and resources they have. The differences in activities of women and men often change with time, space or technology but there are also interesting similarities for instance caring for the young within a family is almost universally a female role and that of national defence is predominantly for men.

Gender Roles

This involves allocation of certain tasks predominantly to women and others to men, although both may do some. The roles are differently evaluated and rewarded. Gender roles unlike sex roles are not universal but are socially constructed and change with time and situations.

Gender Relations

These are the social relations between women and men that depend on the roles ascribed to them by society. These relations are expressed in different ways, places and times.

Gender equality

It may be understood in three dimensions: equality before and under the law; equality of opportunity in economic, political, social and other fields; and equality in dignity (internal worth) of the person between women and men.

Executive Summary

Background

Gender equality is not just a question of justice that women and men should have equal opportunities in all aspects of life, it is a question of good economics and is essential for development. Cross-country experiences have shown that in situations where technology or other economic conditions change rapidly, human capital will have a key impact on growth. Women and men both play substantial though different roles in our economies. One of the key lessons of development experience, is that development activities function much more effectively if all people are empowered.

Although the Uganda Government has taken the initiative to examine gender issues and is taking important steps towards redressing gender inequality by integrating gender in its reform policies and programs, stark gender inequalities have persisted.

Methodology

The report used data from the Uganda National Household Surveys of 1992, 1999 and 2003; The 2002 Population and Housing Census; Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process studies and research from elsewhere.

The Status of Gender Inequality in Uganda

Gender inequality is reviewed in the context of capabilities (health and education), opportunities (employment, access to economic services, and time) and levels of empowerment (ownership of productive assets, participation in governance, and access to justice).

Capabilities

- **Health**

Within Households, women were more likely to fall sick compared to men. However, women received disproportionately less treatment when sick compared to men.

- **HIV/AIDS**

Although the prevalence rate dropped significantly, there are stark gender disparities. Since awareness about HIV/AIDS is equally high for both women and men, the fact that the prevalence is higher among women, therefore, is a result of unequal gender relations within households.

- **Education.**

Literacy rates are also unequal with women having a rate far below the national average while the men are above.

On a positive note, since 1997 when Universal primary education was ushered in, the enrolment has been nearly equal for girls and boys. However, the dropout rate is extremely high particularly for the girls.

The enrolment trends within the secondary schools show that whereas total enrolment is increasing, the enrolment of girls is still lagging behind that of boys.

The situation is much worse at the tertiary level.

Opportunities

- **Employment**

Majority of both women and men are subsistence farmers. However, it is clear that in agricultural subsistence work, women are mainly producing crops. There is limited occupation diversification by women, with ‘sales’ (stalls, small shops etc.) providing the only real diversification.

Basing on the gender intensity of production, The estimates suggest, that men and women are not distributed evenly across the sectors of the economy, as women comprise the majority of the labour force in agriculture, while men are a substantially higher majority of the labour force in the industry and service sectors.

This considerable gender inequality in non-agricultural employment might place an increasing burden on an outward-oriented growth strategy in Uganda. Women participate less in the labour market than men, and women’s wages have been found to be significantly lower than men’s.

- **Unemployment**

More females are unemployed compared to the males. In the urban areas the unemployment rate for women more than doubles that of men.

- **Consumption patterns**

Consumption patterns on food are not very different between households with differing heads. However, across men and women headed households there are some distinct differences regarding the expenditure shares spent on alcohol (and tobacco) and school fees. The expenditure on alcohol in male-headed households triples that of female-headed households. On the other hand, female-headed household spend disproportionately more on school fees than their male counterparts. These re-affirm the fact that women spend most of their incomes on improving the welfare of their household members.

- **Access to Financial Services**

The current financial products do not favour agriculture the main employer of women.

Most women accessing credit are in the services sector. However, only 20% of overall micro-finance activities are rural based. On the other hand the urban women who are benefiting from micro lending do receive small amounts with very high interest rates.

- **Time Use/ Burden**

In rural Uganda, poor women work between 12 and 18 hours per day, with a mean average of 15 hours, compared with an average male working day of approximately 8-10 hours. The main source of discrepancy is women’s heavier commitment to their reproductive roles (child rearing/ care of family members) and the additional responsibility for the family food security.

Empowerment

- **Representation in Government**

At the policy level, Uganda has made extraordinary progress in affirmatively enabling women to have more of a voice in public affairs. In the seventh parliament, 24.4 percent of the members were women. At local levels, a third of all council seats are reserved for women.

- **Decision making at Household level.**

For real empowerment, it is the decision making at this level that counts most. In many cases men make the decisions because they are the breadwinners. However, in a lot of cases where women were the breadwinners, they were forced to spend it all on domestic expenditure, in order that they did not become economically active and increase their level of independence.

- **Ownership of Assets**

This was confined to ownership of land and livestock.

(a) Land

Women's land rights are limited in Uganda both by the inequitable legal structure and by traditional practice. Data show that female-headed households have less land than male-headed households. Women own only 7% of the registered land in Uganda.

To ensure security of occupancy, the Land Act provides for spousal consent with respect to disposal of registered land on which the family depends for its livelihood. The effectiveness of this provision is limited because land registration is not common; and the prevalent imbalanced power relations within marriage that make consent questionable.

(b) Livestock

For all types of livestock, women headed households were less endowed compared to their male counterparts. It was also evident that women owned mostly chicken and goats.

- **Access to Justice.**

In many communities wife battery that does not result in serious injury is tolerated and considered a normal part of marriage. There is general agreement that domestic violence rates are high in Uganda and it is estimated that more than 40 percent of Ugandan women have suffered domestic violence.

There is differentiated access to justice between men and women. For example, for gender based violence that remains a big issue today, reporting of cases was very low. It was surprising to note that many women (70%) have accepted domestic violence and cannot report because the offenders are their partners. This is a sign of disempowerment.

This marginalization is also evident in business operations. A gender and growth assessment in Uganda established that women headed enterprises were much more likely to be subject to harassment and to pay bribes than male headed ones; i.e. women are seen as "soft targets."

The causes of Gender inequality in Uganda

- **Unequal access to and control of resources**

The “lack of control” of resources, and the associated lack of decision-making power, is by far the most important, and most complex, of the issues.

The economic dependence of women—their lack of control over productive resources and assets—is at the root of the problems women face. At the household level, women’s limited decision-making is associated with their insecurity of access to productive resources, especially land, and to their being predominantly engaged in the unpaid care economy.

Differences in decision-making power within the household is one of the factors contributing to poor health outcomes in Uganda, including the high levels of maternal and child mortality.

The issue of women’s lack of control applies to the use of their own time.

There is a dark side to the issue of women’s lack of control of productive resources: powerlessness in the face of sexual and other forms of violence against women, which is exacerbated by the linkage between violence and the spread of HIV/AIDS.

- **Cultural Subordination**

Many of the issues of power and control over assets highlighted in this report have cultural roots. The fact that payment of bride price brings a control imperative where women are also “property” is one of the root causes of the gender inequalities within households. This has a bearing on all aspects of life ranging from resource allocation and control; roles and responsibilities in society and therefore livelihood options and opportunities; as well as acceptable levels of empowerment.

- **Unequal Legal status**

There are important gender differences in men’s and women’s legal status and in the rights and protections afforded by law. Key gender-related barriers to access to justice have been identified as: (i) substantive law issues, relating to gender biased laws and differences in evidentiary requirements; (ii) administration of law issues, including physical access, training and orientation of staff, and delays in delivery of justice; and (iii) barriers which exist in the community where disputes occur, notably the role of culture, religion, and patriarchy in community management, power imbalances in the household, and community dispute resolution for a which are not necessarily gender-inclusive or gender-responsive.

The Effects of Gender inequality

Different Poverty Trends

- **Income poverty**

The Gender Analysis of Uganda Household Survey Data 1992-2003, shows that female-headed households were more disproportionately represented among the chronically poor, and the households moving into poverty. It also shows that a smaller proportion of women have never been in poverty.

- **Welfare**

Two specific welfare indicators are used namely use of soap for bathing and having a radio.

(a) Use of Soap for bathing

All households (100%) should have access to bathing soap. The smaller the percentage of households having all their members bathing with soap, the less income a household is assumed to have.

Basing on the 2002 Population and housing census, 90% of the population used soap for bathing. Except for the children headed households, soap use was lower among female-headed households compared to their male counterparts.

(b) Having a radio

Access to information is a key ingredient for any meaningful development efforts

Basing on the 2002 Population and Housing Census, forty eight percent of households owned radios, with 52% for male-headed households and 37% for those headed by females. With a lower literacy rate in the country, women's low ownership of radios makes them a marginalized group in terms of any media based communication efforts geared towards development.

Reduced Economic Growth

There is a strong connection between gender inequality and growth performance. Cross-country growth regressions in Sub-Saharan Africa on the impact of gender differences in education and employment on growth suggested that these differences served to reduce annual *per capita* growth by 0.8 percentage points. If these results were to apply in Uganda, it would suggest that Uganda could stand to gain up to 2 percentage points of GDP growth per year through addressing structural gender-based inequalities in education and in formal sector employment.

For instance, it has been estimated that the gender gap in education between 1960 and 2000, accounts for up to 1.3 percentage points of the annual per capita economic growth difference between Uganda and Botswana (the most gender equal and prosperous country in Sub-Saharan Africa). Since the narrowing of the gap following the introduction of Universal Primary Education, and affirmative action for girls at the University, the growth difference with Botswana has now reduced to 0.65 percentage points.

High Fertility Rates

The well-established link between education and fertility is confirmed in Uganda. Women with no education have a TFR of 7.8, those with some primary education 7.3. Women with more than primary education have shown TFR dropping dramatically from above five in 1988 to 3.9 in 2000—a difference of nearly four children between women without education and those with secondary education.

High Infant and Maternal mortality

The fact that infant and maternal mortality persisted despite the reduction in income poverty, points to the distributional issues within households that are dependent on decision-making powers

Conclusions and Recommendations

Conclusion

Over the last two decades, government of Uganda has actively promoted women's empowerment and gender equality in both legal and policy arenas. The pervasive gender inequalities despite these noble efforts indicate the need for effective economic empowerment of women as a prerequisite for their effective emancipation.

Key Recommendations

1. Revising and enacting the Domestic Relations Bill
2. Establishing the Equal Opportunities Commission
3. Focus on Economic empowerment of women

(a) Enhancing existing interventions

- ◆ Address gender-based obstacles to growth and productivity explicitly in policy and programs, including in the revision of the Medium-Term Competitiveness Strategy (MTCS) aimed at developing entrepreneurship, and in other initiatives aimed at expanding and diversifying trade, such as the strategic exports initiative.
- ◆ Monitor the effective implementation of the NAADS provisions relating to the access by both men and women farmers to agricultural services
- ◆ Implement the poverty reduction support credit (PRSC4-5) provisions relating to women's access to land,
- ◆ Ensure provision of agricultural financing at reasonable interest rates and pay back periods.

(b) Priority new interventions

Prioritize investment in the energy sector, focusing on energy for the poor.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background

The centrality of addressing gender issues in poverty reduction and development in Africa is being increasingly recognised. A recently published World Bank policy research report confirms that gender-based inequality limits economic growth in Africa, and that it is essential for Africa to unleash the enormous productive potential of its women if it is to make impressive strides toward pro-poor growth.¹ The findings of both macro- and microeconomic analysis of the links between growth and gender inequality have shown that large gender disparities in basic human rights, resources, economic opportunity, and in political voice is directly and indirectly limiting growth in sub-Saharan Africa, and that women and girls are bearing the largest and most direct costs of these inequalities. In addition to being a major constraint to growth, gender inequality reduces the effectiveness of poverty reduction efforts. Therefore, understanding the nature of gender disparities and taking the necessary actions to redress them will not only promote higher growth rates but will also make a substantial contribution to the reduction of poverty.

Developing country evidence shows that the nature, causes and impacts of poverty are different for men and for women. Gender inequality persists in access to and control of a range of productive, human, and social capital assets - consequently, the core components of poverty – capability, opportunity, security, and empowerment – differ along gender lines. Poverty reduction strategies, therefore, need to address these differences in understanding the constituent elements and dynamics poverty and vulnerability, in prioritising actions, including setting and monitoring performance indicators, and in monitoring implementation.

The major concern of Government in Uganda today, is the issue of poverty reduction among the citizenry. Gender inequality and poverty are the result of distinct though interlocking, social relations and processes. Women's experience of poverty is mediated by social relations of gender. On the other hand, gender affects critical factors contributing to poverty risks: income, opportunity, security and empowerment.

The explicit gender dimensions of poverty defined by the PEAP include:

- Unequal power relations within the household arising out of gender disparities in security of access to capital assets which affect consumption and production decisions
- Powerlessness related to weak property rights, inability to enforce legal rights and lack of ability to access social services
- Inequitable gender division of labour

¹ See: *Engendering Development*, 2001. A World Bank Policy Research Report. New York, Oxford University Press. See also: *Can Africa Claim the 21st Century?*, 2000. Report prepared jointly by the African Development Bank, African Economic Research Consortium, Global Coalition for Africa, Economic Commission for Africa, and the World Bank. Washington, D.C.

Gender equality is not just a question of justice that women and men should have equal opportunities in all aspects of life, it is a question of good economics and is essential for development. Cross-country experiences have shown that in situations where technology or other economic conditions change rapidly, human capital will have a key impact on growth². Women and men both play substantial though different roles in our economies. One of the key lessons of development experience, is that development activities function much more effectively if all people are empowered.

At the sectoral level, men and women make differing contributions. In Uganda women contribute about 70 percent of the country's agricultural GDP, while men contribute about 50 percent to the GDP from services. Different sectoral growth patterns therefore make different demands on male and female labour time and have different implications for the gender division of income and work.

Although the Government has taken the initiative to examine gender issues and is taking important steps towards redressing gender inequality by integrating gender in its reform policies and programs, stark gender inequalities have persisted. This report therefore seeks to highlight the extent of gender inequality in Uganda, its causes and effects with the view to enhancing the efforts of public interventions geared towards reducing it.

1.2 Methodology.

The report used data from the Uganda National Household Surveys of 1992, 1999 and 2003; The 2002 Population and Housing Census; Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process (UPPAP) studies and research from elsewhere.

The major limitation of the report is the lack of intra-household analysis of the survey data and subsequent use of data on household heads. However, whenever possible data on individuals was used especially for the sectoral analysis.

1.3 The Structure of the Report

The report has five chapters. The second chapter describes the status of gender inequality; the third reviews the causes while the fourth examines the effects of the inequalities. Chapter five concludes and gives recommendations for addressing the inequalities in light of the on-going government interventions.

² Growth is a necessary though not sufficient condition for poverty reduction.

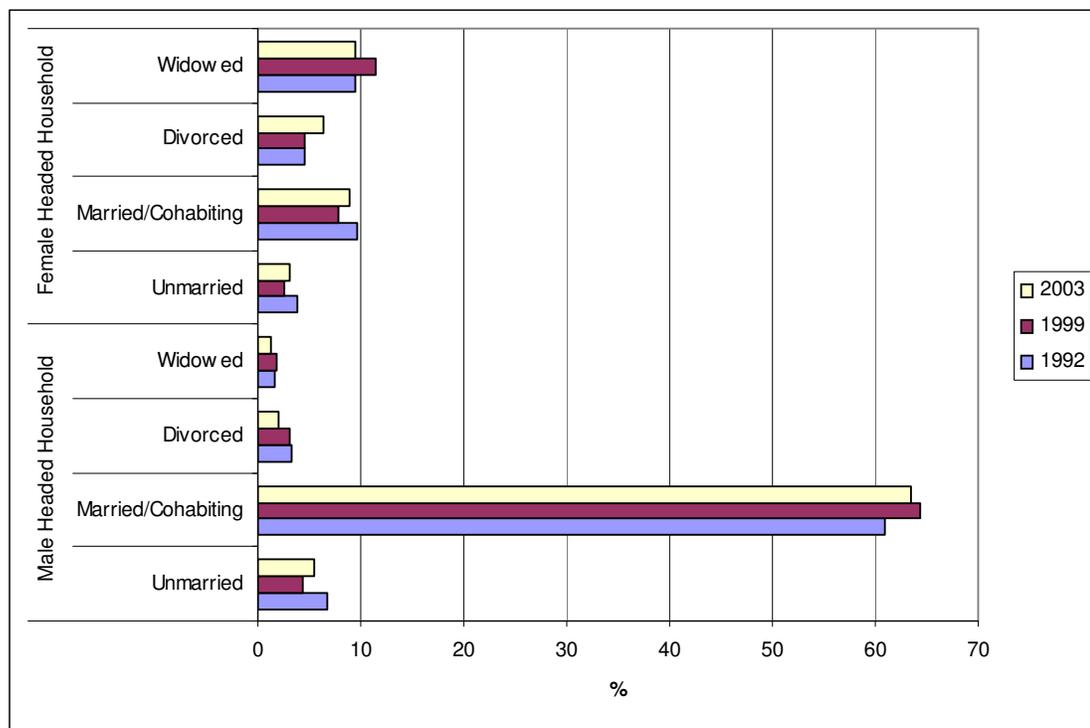
Chapter 2: The Status of Gender inequality in Uganda

Gender inequality is reviewed in the context of capabilities (health and education), opportunities (employment, access to economic services, and time) and levels of empowerment (ownership of productive assets, participation in governance, and access to justice).

2.1 Household Structures

In introducing this gender-based analysis, we first focus on some simple demographic trends, investigating, for example, the prevalence of female-headed households (FHHs).³

Figure 1: Sex of Household Heads by marital status for 1992,1999 and 2003



Source: UNHS 1992,1999, 2003

Each of the surveys highlight that approximately 27% are FHHs and, over the period of the surveys, approximately 20% of all individuals in the samples lived in these households. There was a disproportionate increase in the percentage of widowed FHHs in 1999 (increased from 9.5% to 11.4% - probably as a result of AIDS) and divorced FHHs in 2003 (6.3% compared to 4.5% in 1999).

In terms of household size, slightly over half of the households⁴ (52%) are small with a maximum of four persons, with half of these having a household size of at most two

³ These are used as a proxy for the status of women where data on individuals is lacking.

⁴ Based on the 2002 National Population and housing census

people. Household sizes⁵ seemed relatively similar across both male and female-headed households. Although many households are relatively small, there is an average dependency ratio of 110 percent. However, in those households headed by divorced females, the dependency ratios were almost twice (1.5) as large compared to the divorced male heads (0.9). In the same households of divorced females, the proportion of orphans was higher (6.2%) compared to 4% for the divorced male heads.

2.2 Health and Education (Capabilities)

A paper on economic growth and transformation which was prepared for the PEAP⁶ identified the determinants of growth in Uganda during the 1990s as improved security, the restoration of macroeconomic stability, the removal of economic distortions and an improvement in the terms of trade. It was noted that growth in total factor (labour and capital) productivity made a significant contribution to GDP growth during the period. Enhancing labour productivity through human capacity development is, therefore, critical.

This section will focus on the key human capital components of education and health. Specifically we will analyse how health status, usage of health care facilities and education attendance/attainment varies across males and females within (and across) households. For instance, we will look at whether girls and boys receive disproportionately less (or more) education or health care, relative to boys within households, and see if this varies by income group (i.e. are women in the top income quartile more likely to seek health care than those in lower income quartiles).

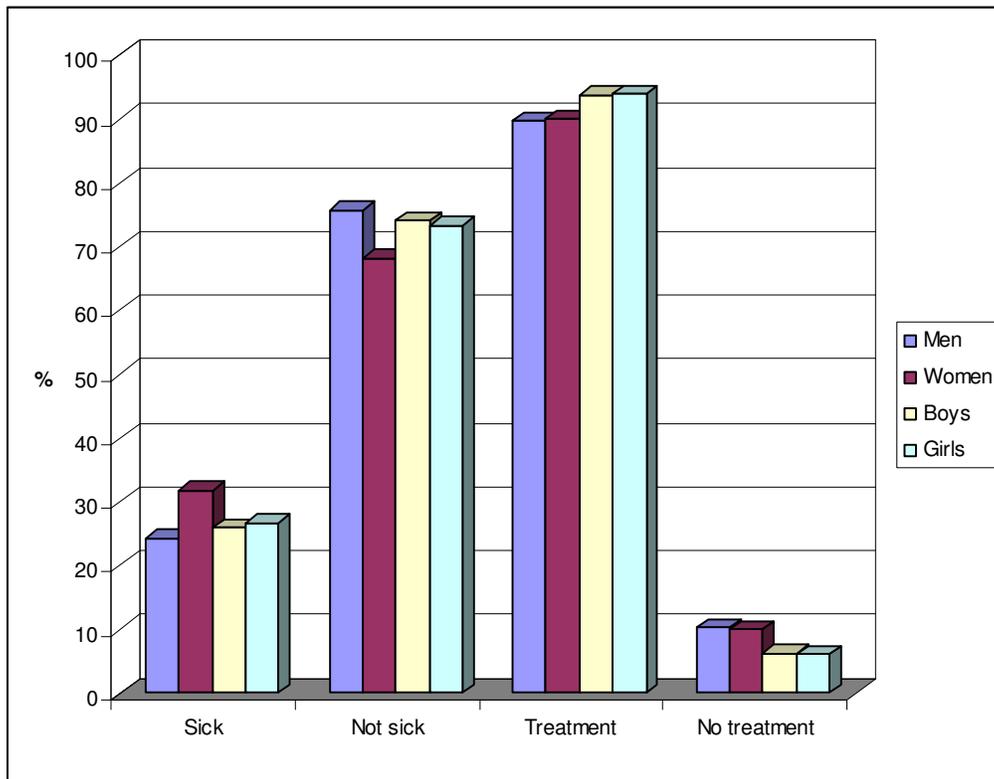
2.2.1 Health

Within households adult women are more likely to be sick (31.8%) than men (24.3%). However, the proportion of males and females not seeking treatment appear to show few differences, when all income groups are considered (figure 2).

⁵ Based on the UNHS 2002/03 data analysed by David Lawson.

⁶ Discussion Paper on Economic Growth, Investment and Export Promotion; by Bevan, Okidi, Adam and Muhumuza (2003).

Figure 2: Proportion of Men, Women, Boys and Girls Within Households – level of sickness and treatment



Source: UNHS 2002/3

Health care demand⁷ relative to the income of a household, using the 2002 data shows that women in the poorest and richest households receive disproportionately less treatment, when sick, compared to men (table1). Increasing incomes generally raises the demand for health care, with the demand dramatically increasing for all adults, as incomes rise.

Income is also important in raising overall health care demand of children. But it is boys who are more likely to receive health care, when in wealthier families.

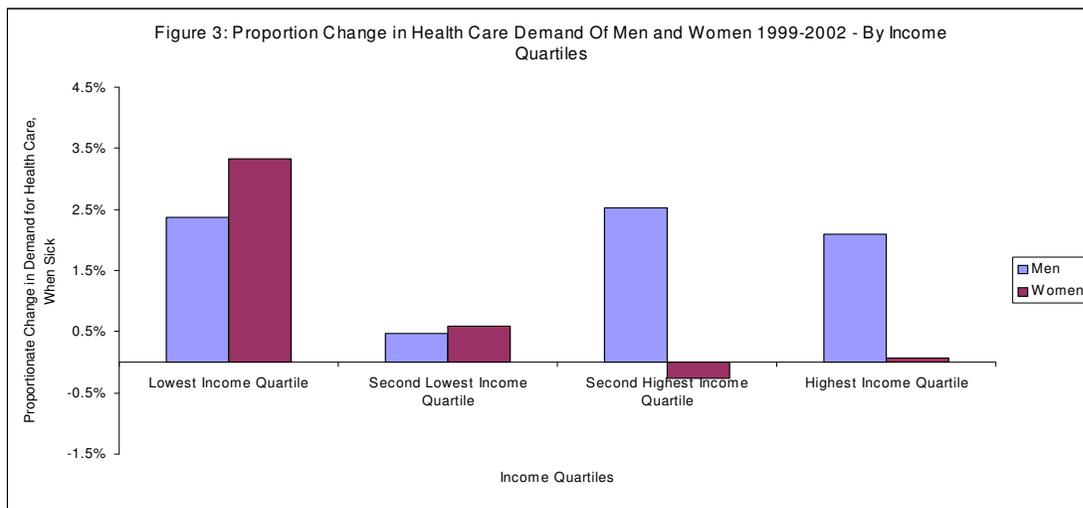
⁷ Health care demand refers to the whether health care has been sought.

Table1: Health care demand by sex and income level (%)

Income Level		sick	No Treatment
Lowest quartile	Men	23.3	13.8
	Women	30.1	14.8
	Boys	25.6	10.3
	Girls	27.0	9.4
2nd lowest	Men	23.7	9.3
	Women	30.5	9.1
	Boys	27.5	4.1
	Girls	27.1	4.3
3rd lowest	Men	22.6	5.1
	Women	31.1	5.3
	Boys	30.6	5.1
	Girls	29.9	5.7
highest	Men	24.7	3.8
	Women	31.5	4.4
	Boys	29.3	1.8
	Girls	27.3	3.5

Source: UNHS 2002/3

Interestingly, if we analyse the changes in demand for all health care, since the abolition of user fees, relative to the income groups we find poor women have



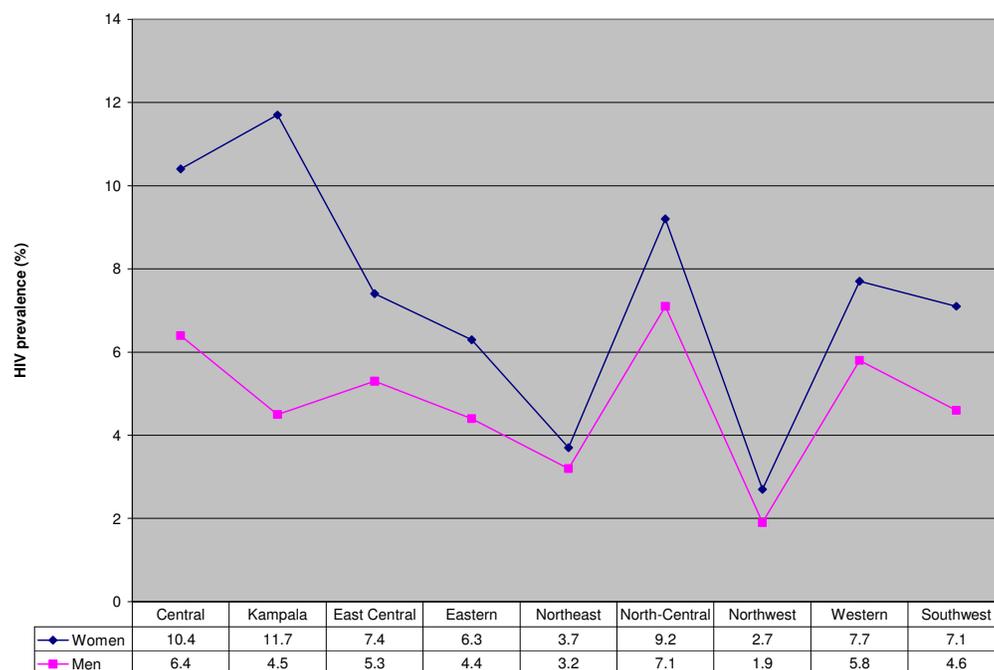
Source: UNHS 1999 and 2002

increased their demand more than poor men (Figure 3). There was also a disproportionate increase in health care demand by wealthier men, relative to wealthy women. This could represent an increased awareness by men of health care services, an increase in men using private health care facilities, or simply mean that wealthier men have benefited more than wealthy women, from the abolition of user fees.

2.2.2 HIV/AIDS

Uganda has often been quoted as a success story in the fight against HIV/AIDS. From the early 1990's to 2002, the prevalence rate dropped significantly with estimates suggesting a decline from 18% to 6%. However there are stark gender disparities (figure 4).

Figure 4: Percentage of HIV positive women and men age 15-49, 2004-05



Source: Sero-survey 2005

Given the decade of comprehensive AIDS awareness campaigns in Uganda it is perhaps reassuring that high proportion of women and men, in virtually all regions are aware of the methods by which HIV/AIDS is prevented (Table 2). Only for women in the North is HIV/AIDS significantly lower than for men. For boys and girls, AIDS awareness is relatively even throughout the regions, but might not be as high as expected.

Table 2: Proportion of Men, Women, Boys and Girls in Household Aware of How AIDS is transmitted – Disaggregated by Region

	Region/Rural or Urban						
All	Central	Western	Northern	Eastern	Rural	Urban	All
Men	98.0	97.8	97.0	97.5	97.3	98.2	97.6
Women	97.6	97.2	93.6	96.8	95.8	97.5	96.5
Boys	70.4	74.6	74.5	74.8	71.0	77.2	73.3
Girls	69.9	78.9	73.1	75.0	71.2	78.5	74.1

Source: UNHS 2002/3

NOTE: Children (Boys and Girls) assumed to be <=16 years of age

The fact that the prevalence is higher among women, therefore, is not necessarily because of lack of awareness on their part but a result of unequal gender relations within households.

It is clear that the **impact** of HIV/AIDS differs markedly along gender lines, reflecting men’s and women’s different roles and responsibilities in household and market activities, and critical gender differences in access to and control of resources—this has implications for *care*, *support*, and *treatment* programs, and especially for addressing the needs of the 1.3 million AIDS orphans in Uganda.

2.2.3 Education

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

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

The attainment of these two MDGs would ensure a universal literacy rate for all Ugandans. From the 2002 Census, the adult literacy rate⁸ stands at 64% with 54% for females and 75% for males. It was also noted that 13% of the total population⁹ had attained no education, with 67% of these being females. The majority, 95% were from rural areas, while 35% of the total were from the north.

The UNHS data of 2002/03 confirms these findings and also gives some indication on the differences in education attainment between female and male-headed household heads (table 3). It is only in the Eastern Region where the gender differences are statistically different, with women household heads being more likely than men household heads in having ‘some secondary’ education.

Table 3: Education levels of household heads, by Region. %

Variable	Region/Rural or Urban					
	Central	Western	Northern	Eastern	Rural	Urban
MHH						
Missed	20.1	27.3	36.0	29.9	31.3	21.4
Some Primary	28.0	40.6	41.7	42.2	41.3	31.8
Primary Completed	25.0	17.9	13.1	15.0	16.7	20.8
Some Secondary	23.8	12.6	8.6	11.6	10.0	22.6
Secondary Completed	1.8	1.3	0.4	1.0	0.5	2.2
University	1.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	1.2
WHH						
Missed	21.5	25.0	39.0	23.8	33.3	20.0

⁸ This is for those who are 18 years and above

⁹ This was the population aged 10 years and above

Some Primary	33.5	41.7	38.3	43.0	41.5	36.1
Primary Completed	22.0	18.2	13.1	14.9	15.0	19.9
Some Secondary	21.2	13.7	8.6	16.6	9.4	21.9
Secondary Completed	1.0	1.0	0.7	1.0	0.6	1.2
University	0.8	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.1	0.8

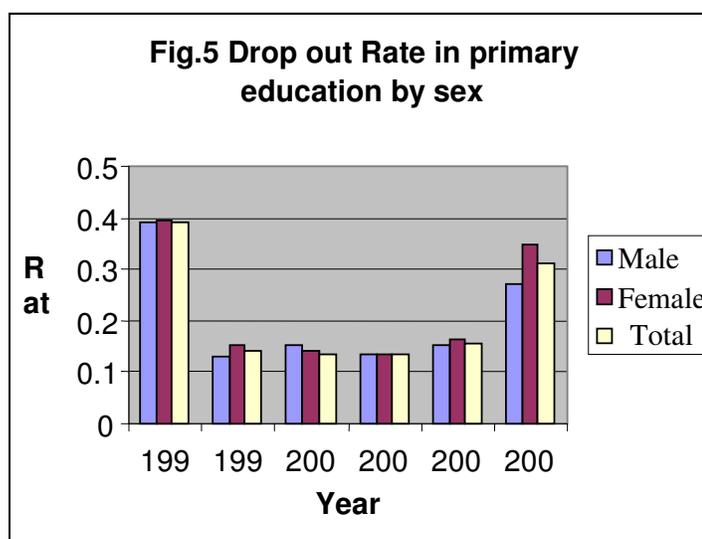
Source: UNHS 2002/3

The education achievements are a reflection of the inequalities that are persistent in the sector.

(a) Primary education

With the introduction of UPE, total enrolments increased by over 70 percent with a higher rate for females with 74 percent compared to 72 percent for males. The female to male ratio also improved from 0.86 in 1996 to 0.87 in 1997. Since 1997, the enrolment into primary education has been nearly equal¹⁰ for girls and boys. A benefit incidence analysis conducted¹¹ in 2004, concluded that the UPE programme was not only pro-poor but also pro-girls.

However, reviewing statistics on drop out rates gives a different picture, as shown in figure 5 below.¹² Of the 2.2 million pupils who enrolled into P1 in 1997, only 22 percent completed P7 (see Annex Table 1). The survival rate was 24 percent and 21 percent for boys and girls respectively (see Annex Table 2). The reasons for dropping out also varied between boys and girls(see Annex Table 3).



Source: Computed from Ministry of Education Statistics

(b) Secondary education

¹⁰ The enrolment rate has been 85 percent for girls and 86 percent for boys.

¹¹ The analysis was done by Mpuga and Canagarajah; both are World Bank Staff

¹² The drop out rates were generated for the 1997 cohort

The school enrolment trends shown in the table below indicate that whereas total enrolment is increasing, the enrolment of girls is still lagging behind that of boys in the secondary sub sector.

Table 4: Enrolment patterns of secondary students in all schools (2000 to 2005)

Ownership	Gender	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Government	Male	126,642	152,741	179,753	191,718	211,244	168,303
	Female	89,650	108,923	138,053	144,644	159,563	124,221
	Total	216,292	261,664	317,806	336,362	370,807	292,524
Private	Male	163,534	149,073	179,741	182,941	166,954	113,536
	Female	139,105	129,049	158,404	164,306	150,160	96,481
	Total	302,639	278,122	338,145	347,247	317,114	210,017
Grand Totals	Male	290,176	301,814	359,494	374,659	383,652	281,839
	Female	228,755	237,972	296,457	308,950	313,855	220,702
	Total	518,931	539,786	655,951	683,609	697,507	502,541

Source: EMIS, 2005

© Tertiary Education

At the tertiary level the situation is much worse, with enrolment rates at only about 3% overall while the enrolment rates for girls are even worse at about 1.5%, and no major changes have been witnessed over the years. In terms of benefit incidence of public resources, they have benefited the boys more than the girls.

2.3 Opportunities

2.3.1 Employment

In terms of livelihoods, majority of Ugandans (68%) are subsistence farmers, while 15 percent are engaged in some employment income activities. The rest (16%) are engaged in either business enterprises (6%) or other activities.¹³ For the subsistence farmers both female (97%) and male (98%) headed households are mainly based in rural areas. A similar trend was discerned for the households who depended mainly on business enterprises with about the same percentage of male (58%) and female (53%) headed households living in the rural areas. However, among those in employment income majority of the male-headed households (54%) are in rural areas as opposed to 46 percent for the female-headed households (see table 5).

Table 5: Household's main source of livelihood by sex of head and rural-urban location (%)

	National			Subsistence farming			Employment income			Business enterprise		
	Total (T)	Male (M)	Female (F)	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F

¹³ These include cottage industry, family support, property income, World Food Programme support, etc

Urban	14.0	13.2	16.4	2.5	2.2	3.3	45.6	43.8	53.7	43.9	42.5	47.2
Rural	86.0	86.8	83.6	97.5	97.8	96.7	54.4	56.2	46.3	56.1	57.5	52.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Population and Housing Census, 2002.

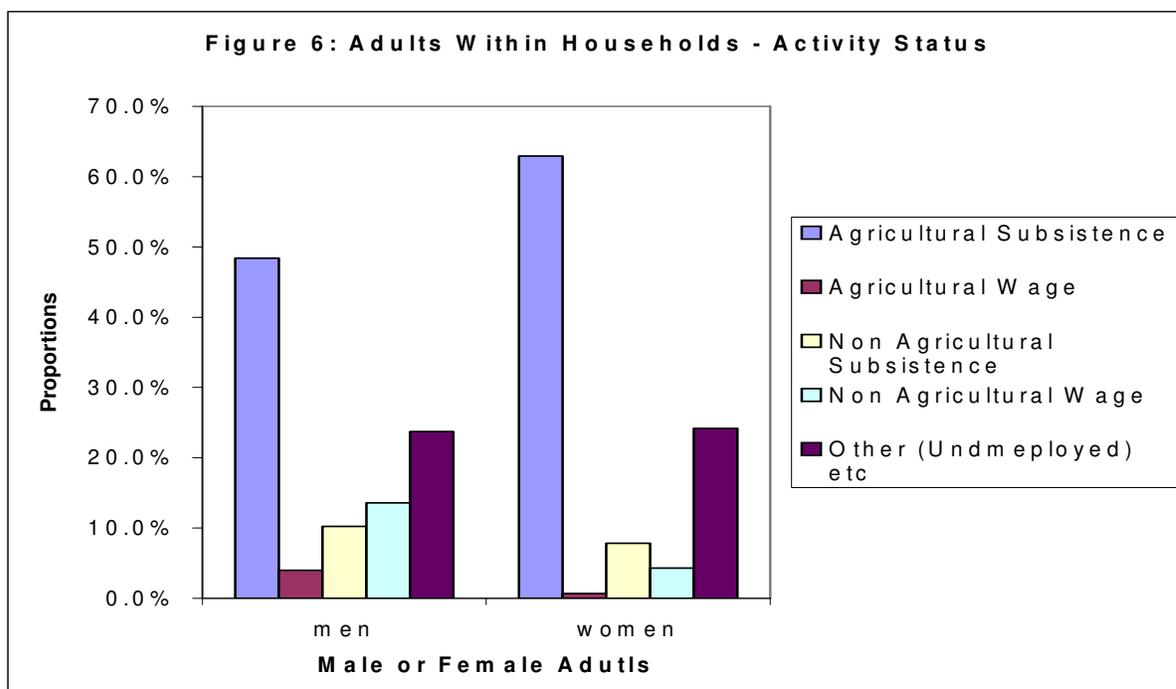
If we decompose the employment further, it is clear that in agricultural subsistence work, women are mainly producing crops (Table 6). There is limited occupation diversification by women, with 'sales' (stalls, small shops etc.) providing the only real diversification. The same trends manifested themselves in all regions of the country (see Annex Table 4).

Table 6: Occupation Types of All Men and Women
%

	Men	Women
Professional	5.6	2.0
Admin	0.6	0.2
Clerical	0.5	0.4
Sales	6.1	5.5
Service	3.0	1.6
Crop	48.8	60.1
Livestock	3.0	0.4
Poultry	0.0	0.0
Forestry	1.1	0.1
Transport	4.5	1.5
Unskilled	5.0	1.2
Other	21.9	27.0

Source: UNHS 2002/3

An analysis of adults within households reveals the same trends, with women engaged mainly in subsistence farming and with little diversification (figure 6). Despite the above evidence however, the second Participatory Poverty Assessment (UPPAP 2) findings indicate that in both rural and urban areas, women are doing more income generating work outside the home (other than agricultural work), than in the past and yet men are not taking on responsibilities that are traditionally ascribed to women. Subsequently, women's roles and responsibilities have increased, with a negative impact on family welfare (as will be explored in chapter four).



Source: UNHS 2002

Another way to capture the dynamics of the different contributions of men and women to the productive economy is in the “gender intensity of production” in different sectors, an approach developed by Elson and Evers and applied to Uganda (Elson and Evers 1997). *Table 7* below presents the “gender intensity of production” in Uganda, and the respective shares of men’s and women’s contributions to national product by principal sector. These estimates, while highly aggregated, provide a useful indication of the magnitude of the respective contributions of men and women to the economy. They suggest, in the Ugandan case, that men and women are not distributed evenly across the sectors of the economy, as women comprise the majority of the labour force in agriculture, while men are a substantially higher majority of the labour force in the industry and service sectors. They suggest, further, that men and women each contribute around one-half of the country’s national product. It is probable that these estimates understate women’s contribution to the economy, though they also do not take account of gender differences in productivity.

Table 7: Uganda - Structure of the Productive Economy 1997 (Preliminary Estimates).

Sector	Share of GDP*	Gender Intensity of Production*		Contributions to GDP by Sector and by Sex**	
		Female	Male	Female	Male
		(%)			
Agriculture	49.0	75	25	72.6	24.8
o/w Smallholder Sector	33.0	80	20		
Traditional Exports	3.5	60	40		
Non-Traditional Agricultural Exports	1.0	80	20		
Industry	14.4	15	85	4.3	24.8
o/w: Manufacturing	6.8	n/a	n/a		
Services	36.6	32	68	23.1	50.4

Informal Sector (estimates)					
Total/Share:***	100.0	50.6	49.4	100.0	100.0
Note: Gender Intensity of Production: female and male shares of employment.					

Source: Based on Elson and Evers 1997.

Principal data sources: * = Elson and Evers 1997; ** = Africa Country Gender Database (ACGD), staff estimates. *** own calculations.

There is considerable gender inequality in non-agricultural employment which might place an increasing burden on an outward-oriented growth strategy in Uganda. Women participate less in the labour market than men, and women's wages have been found to be significantly lower than men's. In 2003, 51% of currently employed women had wages of 40,000 per month or below, compared to 44% of currently employed men. 88.2% of the economically active women are either self-employed or unpaid family workers. This may be at least partly due to the difference in average educational status, or it may reflect labour market institutions that discriminate against women. It has been argued that unless all the human potential (men and women) are developed fully for optimal use, Africa will not claim the 21 st Century either!

2.3.2 Unemployment

Based on the Labour Force Survey 2002/03 data, Uganda has an estimated 346,000 people who are unemployed, with females almost doubling the males. The unemployment rate¹⁴ for the country is estimated at 3.2% being higher in urban areas (12%) than rural areas (2%). The gender differential is also higher in urban areas – female unemployment rate is 16% compared to 8% for males (Table8). This suggests that in urban areas, females are less likely to get jobs than their male counterparts probably due to their lower education and vocational skills.

Table 8: Rates of Unemployed Persons aged 10 years and above by Sex and Residence

Residence	Unemployment Rate (%)		Total
	Male	Female	
Urban	7.5	16.3	12.0
Rural	1.6	1.8	1.7
Total	2.5	3.9	3.2

Source: UBOS, 2003

2.3.3 Income Sources

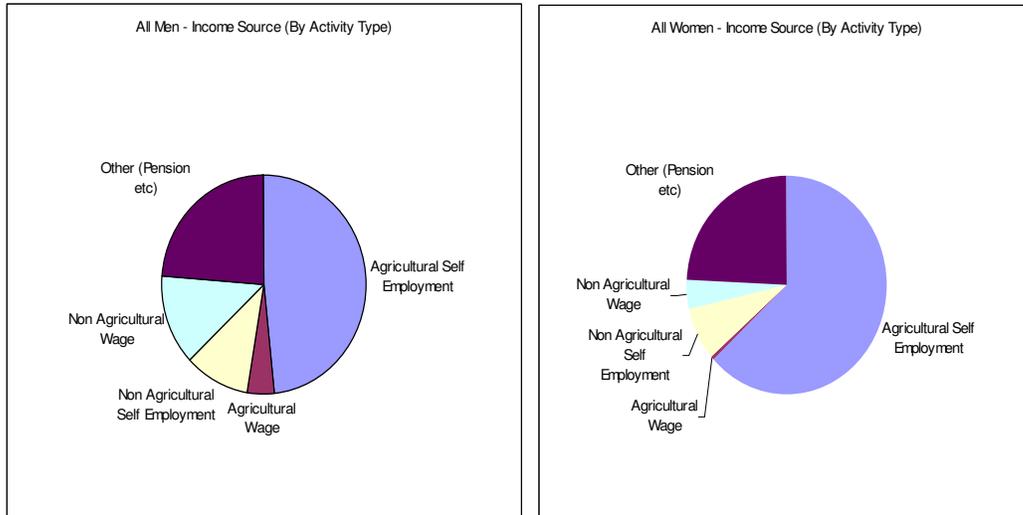
In light of the limited diversification of livelihoods, for women, sources of incomes were also reviewed.

Figure 7, below, shows the composition of income sources of men and women within the households. As might be expected, given the findings from the occupation and

¹⁴ The unemployment rate is derived by dividing the total number of unemployed persons by the total number of economically active persons. The result is multiplied by 100.

activity section, women generally have a much larger dependence on farm agricultural self employment and less diversification to non agricultural wage employment and the formal sector.

Figure 7: Men and Women’s Income Sources



Source: UNHS 1999

Similar patterns of income diversification arise from looking at the household heads. There is a particular dependence upon agricultural employment, although one stark difference between men and women household heads is that over one third of income received by women heads is in the form of transfers or other income (20% for men’s income). Male household heads generally have a much broader range of income sources in all regions of Uganda (see Annex Table 5).

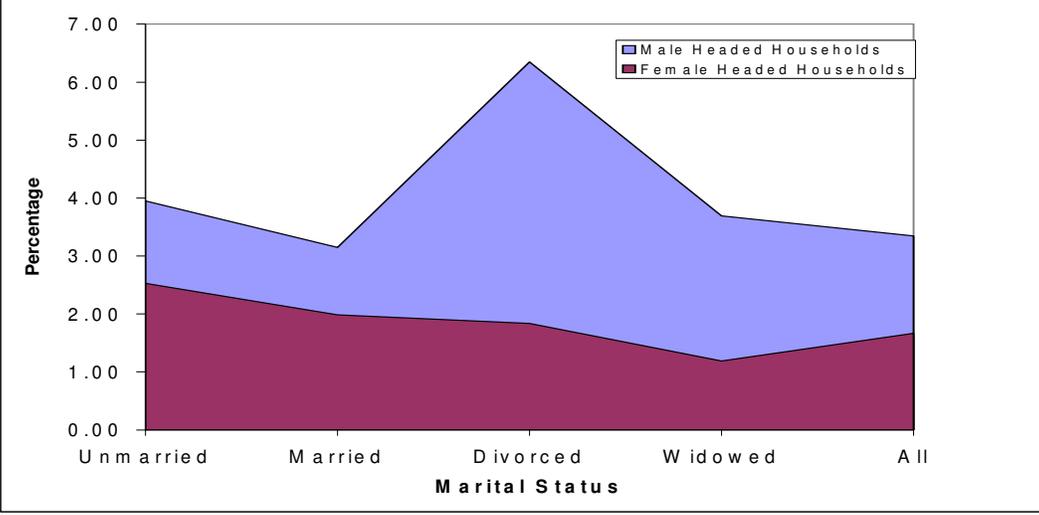
2.3.4 Consumption Patterns

Consumption patterns on food are not very different between households with differing heads (see Annex Table 6). However, across men and women headed households there are some distinct differences regarding the expenditure shares spent on alcohol (and tobacco) and school fees.

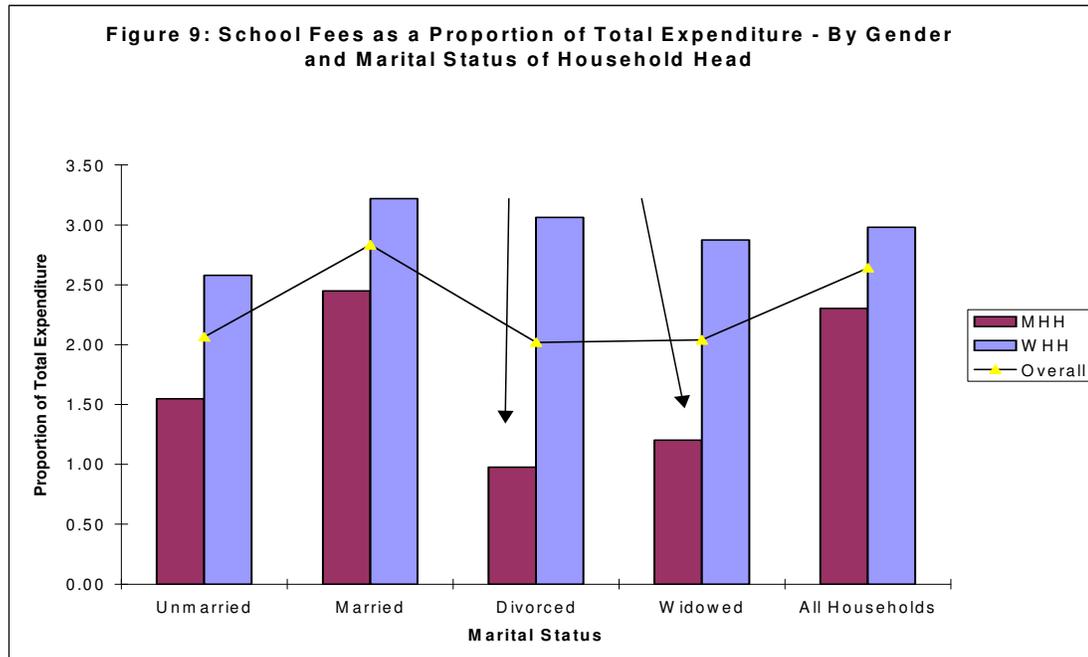
In particular, and as can be seen in Figure 8 below, alcohol expenditure as a proportion of total expenditure peaks in divorced male heads of households - with over 6% of total expenditure spent on alcohol. This compares with less than 2% for divorced women headed households.

Across income quartiles (Annex Table 7), it is noted that male heads of households spend higher proportions of expenditure on alcohol as incomes increase. In contrast, the increase in alcohol expenditure in women headed households suddenly doubles for those in the highest income quartile only.

Figure 8: Alcohol Expenditure as a Proportion of Total Expenditure - By Gender of Household Head



Analysing health expenditure across types of households, it is greater for male heads (4.1%) than for female heads (3.7%), although not statistically greater. For expenditure on school fees (figure 9), female heads appear to spend proportionately more than their male counterparts. These findings re-affirm¹⁵ the fact that women spend most of their incomes on improving the welfare of their household members.



Source: UNHS 1999

2.3.5 Access to financial services

Financial services are essential at all stages in order to optimise the rate at which efficient operations and adoption of appropriate technologies can take place. Unfortunately, the current financial products do not favour agriculture the main employer of women. The domestic credit to the entire agricultural sector stood at 10 percent in 2004.

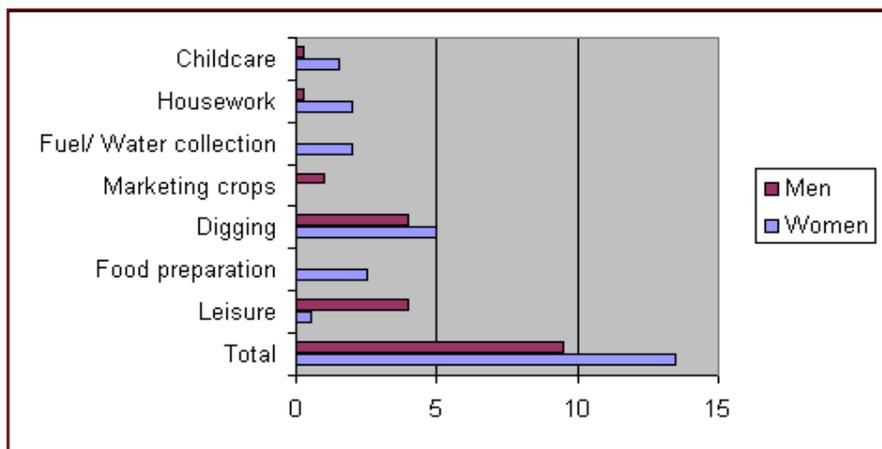
Most women accessing credit are in the services sector. However, only 20% of overall micro-finance activities are rural based. On the other hand the urban women who are benefiting from micro lending do receive small amounts (on average US\$ 87). Micro-finance institutions lend at over 40 percent interest rate per annum and the repayment periods are quite short ranging from two weeks!

¹⁵ Gender studies have proven this, in Mukasa et al (2004) “Uganda: Poverty and Gender Assessment – Strengthening Linkages between poverty and gender analysis in Uganda” Danish Cooperation.

2.3.6 Time Use/ Burden

The UPPAP 2 highlighted the problem of women's "over-burden" and identified the strong imbalance in the gender division of labour as one of the main contributors to poverty. A comparison of time use for women and men in rural Uganda, reveals that poor women work between 12 and 18 hours per day, with a mean average of 15 hours, compared with an average male working day of approximately 8-10 hours (World Bank 1993).

Figure10: Time allocation for men and women in Katebe, Rakai (Hours/Day)



The main source of discrepancy is women's heavier commitment to their reproductive roles (child rearing/ care of family members) and the additional responsibility for the family food security as illustrated in the example of figure 10 above. As was noted under employment, women contribute substantially towards food production. This is coupled with the requirements for water and energy provisioning.

The task of provisioning the household with its energy, for example, has women who have to fetch wood/fuel from increasingly more distant sources. This is extremely time-consuming, energy-intensive and exhausting, as well as highly inefficient. It is one of the direct contributors to women being "overburdened." The problem of energy provisioning assumes greater importance when, as is the case in Uganda, more than 90 percent of total energy consumed is comprised of "traditional" fuels: fuel wood, charcoal, residues while electricity comprises 1 percent of total energy consumption. The coverage of rural electrification is around 5 percent. At the same time, more than 90 percent of total energy investment is related to the power sector. Around 0.05 percent of the sector's investment program is for "renewable and energy efficient technology".

The importance of addressing domestic energy issues has even greater relevance and urgency if one takes into account some of their wider (environmental) health implications. Using fuel wood for cooking exposes people (again, predominantly women and very young children) to pollutants and toxins, and contributes to high levels of acute respiratory infections (ARI) and other ailments, in turn fuelling high

morbidity and mortality. The 2000/01 UDHS data indicate that children aged 6-11 months experience a prevalence rate of symptoms of ARI of 33 percent. This makes ARI the third most important health problem for children in Uganda after malaria and diarrhoea, and a significant issue for Uganda's efforts to reduce both maternal and child mortality in line with achieving the MDGs (Blackden 2004).

2.4 Empowerment

The section will review issues of decision making in both the public sphere and the households.

2.4.1 Representation in Government.

Women's representation within the legislature, national and local governments is expected to facilitate integration of their concerns into the various laws and policies/programmes. The government adopted affirmative action for women as a strategy for gender balanced representation at both the national and local levels. A third of all local council seats are reserved for women at all levels of the LC structure including other related bodies such as the District Service Commission and Tender Board.

The most evident achievement has been the tremendous increase in the number of women aspiring for parliamentary positions as well as those entering the national assembly. Prior to affirmative action, the number of women in parliament ranged from 0-2. In 1989, the number rose to 41 of which 34 were for the reserved seats for women constituting 17% of the total. The percentage steadily increased to 24.4% in the seventh parliament (2001-2006).

At the policy level, Uganda has made extraordinary progress in affirmatively enabling women to have more of a voice in public affairs (see Annex Table 8). A study of affirmative action in Ugandan politics showed that the increased presence of women in decision making has indeed shaped policy and met women's gender needs.¹⁶ As a result of their participation in decision-making, a gender-sensitive Constitution was formulated, and gender has been increasingly and more systematically recognized as central to poverty eradication.

2.4.2 Decision making at household level

For real empowerment, it is the decision making at this level that counts most. In many cases men make the decisions because they are the breadwinners. However, UPPAP 2 evidence found, in a lot of cases, that women who earned incomes had to spend it all on domestic expenditure, in order that they did not become economically active and increase their level of independence (table 9).

¹⁶ Tanzam Nite, 2003. "Affirmative Action in Ugandan Politics," in Women's Political Space: The Experience of Affirmative Action in Eritrea, Tanzania and Uganda. British Council/DFID.

Table 9: Decision on Use of Women's Cash Earnings and Contribution to Household Expenditure %

	Person Who Decides How Earnings are Used			All of Household Expenditure Met By Earnings
	Women Only	Wife and Husband	Someone Else	
Age				
15-19	52.2	20.7	27.1	12.4
20-24	53.9	26.9	19.2	20.4
25-29	57.0	28.7	14.3	23.0
30-34	65.3	22.6	12.1	26.3
35-39	62.0	23.8	13.9	29.2
40-44	66.8	22.6	10.7	28.4
45-49	66.3	25.1	7.8	30.8
Marital Status				
Never Married	75.3	9.0	15.7	13.2
Married/cohabiting	49.6	31.9	18.4	23.9
Divorced,	94.5	3.7	1.8	30.3
Location				
Rural	86.5	9.4	4.0	17.4
Urban	53.6	28.4	27.9	25.3
Central	83.1	11.4	5.4	12.2
Eastern	48.8	25.8	25.5	30.0
Northern	57.7	33.5	8.8	36.0
Western	46.0	36.7	17.2	28.3
Education				
No Education	54.7	28.0	17.1	28.9
Primary	55.8	26.4	17.8	24.2
Secondary +	77.4	16.9	5.7	17.0
Total	59.6	24.9	15.4	23.8

Source: DHS (2000)

2.4.3 Ownership of Assets

The section will be confined to ownership of land and livestock.

(a) Land

Land assets are particularly, important for the majority of Ugandans, in income generation activities. Women's land rights are limited in Uganda both by the inequitable legal structure and by traditional practice. Data show that female-headed households have less land than male-headed households, even when corrected for household size, if the head is married, divorced or single (see Annex Tables 9 and 10). Women own only 7% of the registered land in Uganda. Gender inequality in ownership of land is a fundamental determinant of women's poverty and social disadvantage- it affects the stability of marriages and contributes to continuing high fertility rates.

To ensure security of occupancy, the Land Act provides for spousal consent with respect to disposal of registered land on which the family depends for its livelihood. The effectiveness of this provision is diminished in two important respects. One is that, as indicated, land registration is not common. The second is that spousal consent is problematic in a context in which consent assumes equal rights of spouses and balanced power relations within marriage, which is largely non-existent in many households in Uganda.

From the survey findings, women headed households (WHHs) consistently reported less cultivatable land among their assets (tables 10 and 12).

Table 10 : Cultivated Land Assets acres– Disaggregated by Marital Status and Gender of Household Head

	MHH					WHH					<i>All</i> (11)		
	Unmarried (1)	Married/ Cohabiting		Divorced (3)	Widowed (4)	<i>All</i> (5)	Unmarried (6)	Married/ Cohabiting		Divorced (8)		Widowed (9)	<i>All</i> (10)
		(2)	(3)					(7)	(8)				
1992	1.75	2.82	2.4	2.23	2.73	1.4	2.22	2.02	2.48	2.21	2.59		
1999	2.03	3.67	2.57	3.09	3.51	0.89	2.40	1.57	2.93	2.33	3.20		
2003	2.09	3.69	3.55	4.8	3.55	0.36	1.84	2.15	3.47	2.15	3.16		

Source: UNHS1999 (for 1992&1999 data) and UNHS 2002

It is interesting to compare land ownership with contributions to agricultural production (table 11). It is a clear reverse with the most “ active “ farmers- the women hardly owning any land.

Table 11: Contributions to Production in Relation to Shares of Population and Land Ownership

Indicator	F	M
	%	
Population	51	49
Food production	80	20
Planting	60	40
Weeding	70	30
Harvesting	60	40
Processing/preparation	90	10
Access to/ownership of land and related means of production	8	92

(b) Livestock

Table 12, outlines the number of assets per household for some livestock types as at 1992 and 1999 and the level of change between the two years. Comparing actual and percentage land and chicken numbers increase over the two periods

It is also noted that households which are **chronically poor** and **moving into poverty** experience lower increases than **non poor/moving out of poverty**. This is particularly the case for WHHs. For example, the average increase in land area for WHHs who are the chronically/descending poor is –0.31 and –0.75 acres, respectively, compared with increases of 0.77 and 0.16 acres for MHHs.

Table 12: Poverty Dynamics and Assets Levels at 1992 and Asset Changes (1992-1999)

ASSETS	Chronic Poor		Moving Out of Poverty		Moving Into Poverty		Never In Poverty		<i>All</i>
	MHH	WHH	MHH	WHH	MHH	WHH	MHH	WHH	

Asset Quantities – All Households									
Number of chickens at 1992	1.93	1.82	1.73	1.26	1.57	1.07	1.75	1.42	1.69
Number of cows 1992	0.94	0.45	1.05	0.71	1.01	1.03	1.05	0.88	0.98
Number of pigs 1992	0.79	0.30	0.87	0.53	0.64	1.00	0.72	0.76	0.74
Number of goats 1992	1.84	1.58	1.55	1.37	1.55	0.63	1.73	1.01	1.58
Asset Changes - All Areas									
% Increase in Land Area	27.1	-14.3	85.8	46.3	6.3	-33.3	124.3	-3.7	69.1
Average Land Area Increases	0.77	-0.31	2.41	1.17	0.16	-0.75	3.53	-0.09	1.88
% Increase in Chicken Numbers	71.5	27.5	194.9	228.9	8.4	52.2	111.4	376.1	136.8
Average Increase in Number of Chickens	1.38	0.50	3.38	2.88	0.13	0.56	1.95	5.34	2.31
Average increase in Number of Cows	-0.08	-0.30	-0.04	0.04	-0.17	-0.25	0.69	-0.02	0.16

Calculations based on IHS/UNHS 1992/99 Panel

NOTE:- Gender of household head based on 1992 IHS

Asset depletion appears far more common in WHHs than in MHHs irrespective of location (see Annex Table 11).

2.4.4 Access to Justice

Lack of access to justice is a defining attribute of poverty and an impediment to poverty eradication. A well functioning justice system therefore is a precondition to spur economic growth. A people with effective access to justice are indeed empowered. There are various strands of justice but this section shall focus on criminal justice in general and the issue of domestic violence in particular.

A report by Human Rights Watch offers an extensive discussion of this issue and some insights into the implications for women, and for Ugandan society, of the combined effects of gender inequality, HIV, and violence.¹⁷ The report notes that in many communities wife battery that does not result in serious injury is tolerated and considered a normal part of marriage. Because domestic violence is under-reported, and official statistics are largely absent, domestic violence rates are difficult to measure with any accuracy. There is, however, general agreement that domestic violence rates are high in Uganda. The report cites UN data suggesting that more than 40 percent of Ugandan women have suffered domestic violence. A study of domestic violence among women attending the pre-natal clinic in Mulago hospital found that a similar percentage (40.7 percent) of women reported physical assaults in the year before conceiving. Human Rights Watch was informed that complaints of domestic violence rose from 495 in 2001 to 1,009 in 2002, an increase attributable in part to training on women's rights but also to increased levels of as a result of poverty.¹⁸

There is differentiated access to justice between men and women. For example, for gender based violence that remains a big issue today, reporting of cases differs as shown in Table 13.

¹⁷ See: *Just Die Quietly: Domestic Violence and Women's Vulnerability to HIV in Uganda*, Human Rights Watch, August 2003. This report, and others, accessible at: www.hrw.org.

¹⁸ Human Rights Watch, 2003a, p. 17.

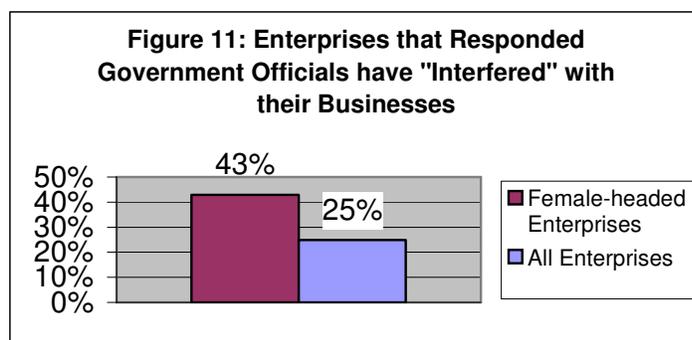
Table 13: Action Taken by Victims of Gender Violence

Action taken	Male		Female		Both sexes	
	N	%	n	%	n	%
No action	168	24.8	314	33.3	482	29.8
Reported to LC	85	12.5	106	11.3	191	11.8
Reported to clan	87	12.8	125	13.3	212	13.1
Reported to police	47	6.9	30	3.2	77	4.8
Sought Legal assistance	18	2.7	19	2.0	37	2.3
Left home	6	0.9	22	2.3	28	1.7
Reported to religious leaders	7	1.0	11	1.2	18	1.1
Reported to probation & welfare officer	7	1.0	4	0.4	11	0.7
Total	425	100	631	100	1056	100
Reasons for No action						
Offender was partner	320	47.2	660	70.1	980	59.3
Opted for it as a way to discipline	56	8.3	65	6.8	121	7.2
There was no one to report to	153	22.6	109	11.6	262	18.7
Offender was a relative	146	21.4	25	2.7	171	11.9
Other	3	0.5	83	8.8	86	2.9
Total	678	100	942	100	1620	100

Source: POPSEC/MFPED-2002

It was surprising to note that many women (70%) have accepted domestic violence and cannot report because the offenders are their partners. This is a sign of disempowerment.

This marginalization is also evident in business operations. A gender and growth assessment in Uganda established that women headed enterprises were much more likely to be subject to harassment and to pay bribes than male headed ones; i.e. women are seen as “soft targets (see Fig. 11)¹⁹.



Source: Uganda Regulatory Cost Survey Report, 2004.

¹⁹ Source: Consultations with private sector, women’s advocacy groups and business associations hosted by PSFU, 17 November 2004.

Chapter 3: The Causes of Gender Inequality in Uganda

The causes of gender inequalities are many and reinforcing.

3.1 Unequal access to and control of resources

The “lack of control” of resources, and the associated lack of decision-making power, is by far the most important, and most complex, of the issues raised in the UPPAP. As is apparent from the UPPAP findings, the issue of lack of control by women concerns economic matters and choices related to earning or disposing of income or assets. It is also concerned with “when and how often to have children.” It is associated in the UPPAP with “excessive fertility,” discussed in Chapter 4.

The economic dependence of women—their lack of control over productive resources and assets—is at the root of the problems women face. At the household level, women’s limited decision-making is associated with their insecurity of access to productive resources, especially land, and to their being predominantly engaged in the unpaid care economy. While women perform most of the agricultural work, they do not make decisions of what enterprises to get involved in or how the benefits accruing from them are distributed. This leaves women in unfavorable bargaining positions as well as poor fallback positions in cases of marriage break-ups.

Differences in decision-making power within the household is one of the factors contributing to poor health outcomes in Uganda, including the high levels of maternal and child mortality. The combination of heavy workload, resource dependency, and limited decision-making may also help to explain why 44 percent of pregnant women delay their first visit to a health facility to the last trimester of their pregnancy.

The issue of women’s lack of control applies to the use of their own time. UPPAP discussions revealed that men also control women’s time, with implications for economic, social, and political activity as well as mobility more generally.

There is a dark side to the issue of women’s lack of control of productive resources: powerlessness in the face of sexual and other forms of violence against women, which is exacerbated by the linkage between violence and the spread of HIV/AIDS.

3.2 Cultural Subordination

Limited control over productive assets, is a systemic issue, where inequity in marital status and in property ownership intersect with cultural attitudes and beliefs to create formidable obstacles to change. Payment of bride price has a control imperative, which is interpreted as husbands' "owning" their wives and controlling virtually every aspect of their lives, including, especially, men’s “absolute dominion” over sexual relations with their spouses. The imperative to control women—embodied in the question raised by informants in the Human Rights Watch study on gender-based violence, “how can property own property?”—is itself underpinned by some curious logic. Men fear that women will become promiscuous and indulge in extra-marital

affairs if they are allowed to work, and that women will become “uncontrollable,” “unmanageable,” “unruly,” or disrespect men if they gain economic independence. Just as unfortunate is that women are themselves often driven by the same cultural imperatives, and by the pressures of their upbringing and socialization, to support and uphold these views. These phenomena, though often perceived as outside the frame of reference notably the attitudes and beliefs which continue to prevent many women, in many spheres of life, from having any effective control over productive resources, including their sexuality and fertility, and that continue to prevent many men from contributing more fully and more effectively to the well-being of their households and families.

The complex web of gender and cultural links to poverty are illustrated in tables 14 and 15 below.

Table 14: Gender and Culture: Links with Poverty Issues

Culturally defined Gendered Practices	Prevalence/significance of Issue (where data exist)	Influence on gender dimensions of poverty
Payment of bride wealth		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Women’s time and labor are considered part of the value received by the men and their extended families. ◆ Predisposes girls to early marriage, which negatively affects their education opportunities and compromises their health and ultimately their employment.
Domestic violence	40-45% of women have experienced domestic violence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Affects women’s health and productivity, at times results in death ◆ Disempowers women
Widow inheritance		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Disempowers women and may entail dispossession of property (and children, especially girls). Predisposes to HIV/AIDS either way, thereby dwindling the scope for protection of children
Polygamy	% of HH in polygamous unions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Inability to provide for the needs of the family. Women in the relationship end up as family heads with limited resources, sharing of scarce resources across many ‘households’, fragmentation of land and impetus for higher fertility rates amongst women in polygamous families (competing for male heirs)
Female Genital Mutilation		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Health hazards/maternal mortality. Non preservation of women’s dignity, trauma, school drop out once they complete the ‘passage into womanhood’.
Inheritance practices		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Perpetuate landlessness of women and low value attached to women (rootless and visitors in their ‘homes’). Compromise potential productivity of women.

Source: Based on Mukasa et al. 2004.

Many of the issues of power and control over assets highlighted in this report have cultural roots. Some of these linkages are outlined in Table 15 below.

Table 15: Culture and Gender disparities within poverty determinants

Key Poverty Determinants	Gender disparities		Influence of culture
	Women	Men	
Ownership of registered land	7%	93%	Women are economically dependent on men. Land inheritance is mainly patrilineal.
Formal labor force participation	12%	88%	Women are domesticated and have limited opportunities, nor is emphasis placed on preparing them for the public space. Training is often skewed toward culturally appropriate fields regardless of their income-earning potential.
Wages of <40,000 USh/month	51%	44%	Less value placed on women's work (globally).
Literacy rates for population aged 10 yrs and above	63%	77%	Still reflects the low value placed on women's role outside the home. Grooming of women for marriage is a factor in limiting schooling and therefore literacy. Gender allocation of roles also affects girls progression in formal education, the main channel for literacy.
Shares of total enrolment at tertiary level	38%	62%	As above. Poverty interacts with negative attitudes about girls' education. For many, investment in girls' education is investing to benefit a different family or clan (the man's) Early marriages are also a factor.
Maternal mortality ratio (per 100,000 live births)	506		No control over sexuality and resources, limited access to information, harmful practices and taboos against women and children, early marriage.
Distribution of credit	9%	91%	Implications of women's economic independence for men and for gender relations.
People living with HIV/AIDS	51%	49%	Women have no control over their sexuality and their bodies.
Likelihood of adults being sick within households	31.8%	24.3%	Workload, exposure to hazardous conditions.
Members of Parliament and limited participation in governance and development structures	24.4%	75.6%	Leadership is a preserve of men; also negative socialization for the role, limited skills, and low value of women.
Men and women chairpersons of district land boards.	3.6%	96.4%	Limited participation in governance structures; land as male preserve; public life as a preserve of men.
Applications for processing land certificate titles	6%	94%	Lack of exposure to land issues; limited opportunity to inherit; land grabbing from widows; limited knowledge of land rights and information on procedures; high costs.

Source: Mukasa et al. 2004.

3.3 Unequal legal status

There are important gender differences in men's and women's legal status and in the rights and protections afforded by law. Key gender-related barriers to access to justice have been identified as: (i) substantive law issues, relating to gender biased laws (notably concerning divorce, adultery, and defilement) and differences in

evidentiary (burden-of-proof) requirements; (ii) administration of law issues, including physical access, training and orientation of staff, and delays in delivery of justice; and (iii) barriers which exist in the community where disputes occur, notably the role of culture, religion, and patriarchy in community management, power imbalances in the household, and community dispute resolution for a which are not necessarily gender-inclusive or gender-responsive.

There are important gender differences in men's and women's legal status and in the rights and protections afforded by law. Uganda ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) in 1995, without reservations. The Constitution of 1995 enshrines gender equality in many of its provisions.²⁰ The JLOS aims to "enable all people in Uganda to live in a just and safe society." The "reality", however, is that many people in Uganda, particularly the poor and marginalized groups like women, the disabled, and children, have very little access to justice and little protection from the justice system to ensure their safety and security political activity, as well as for mobility more generally. Some men for example, forbid their wives from participating in politics or in social groups.

²⁰ An excellent discussion of gender issues in access to justice is in *Justice, Law and Order Sector, A Desk Review of Gender and Access to Justice in Uganda*, March 2002. Unless otherwise indicated, the review is the principal source of information for this section.

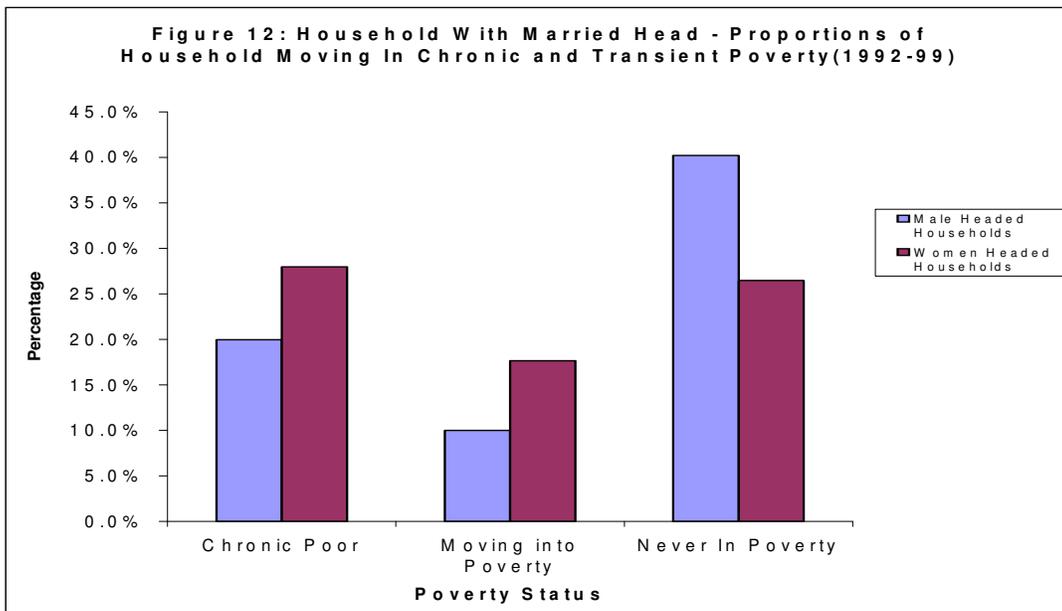
Chapter 4: The Effects of Gender inequality.

4.1 Poverty

4.1.1 Income poverty

Trends in reducing income poverty in Uganda (1990-2000) show that Uganda managed to reduce the proportion of the population below the poverty line (living on less than US\$ 1 per day) from 56% in 1992 to 35% in 2000; but in 2003, poverty levels reversed to 38%. However, the Gender Analysis of Uganda Household Survey Data 1992-2003 (MFPED 2003) shows that female-headed households (FHH) were more disproportionately represented among the chronically poor, and the households moving into poverty. It also shows that a smaller proportion of women have never been in poverty (see figure 12 and Annex Tables 12 and 13).

Analysis of household survey data based on the sex of the household head has important limitations, notably that it does not say much about the poverty status of men and women in different types of households. Nonetheless, some insights into the gender dimensions of poverty can be drawn from headship-based analysis. For example, it appears that divorced, widowed and married female-headed households (FHH) are particularly prone to being poor at one point in time, with divorced FHH in particular more likely to move into poverty and married FHH more likely to be



Source: UNHS 1992,1999.

chronically poor. This should not be interpreted to suggest that the poverty status of women in male-headed households (MHH) is necessarily any better, in the absence of more detailed intra-household analysis.

The 1999 poverty incidence figures show that WHHs are generally poorer than MHHs. As we can also see in Table 16, more WHHs are below the poverty line (38.9%) than MHHs (32.8%) - evidence which is directly supportive of the recent qualitative evidence for Uganda (Goetz, Maxwell and Manyire 1994) which suggests WHHs to be a poor and potentially vulnerable group.²¹

Table 16: Poverty Figures – Disaggregated by Marital Status and Gender of Household Head

	MHH					FHH					All
	Un-married	Married	Divorced	Wid-owed	All	Un-married	Married	Divorced	Wid-owed	All	
1992	44.6%	57.2%	48.0%	49.2%	56.5%	39.6%	53.3%	54.6%	62.6%	56.2%	56.4%
1999	17.4%	33.1%	19.9%	26.6%	32.5%	17.9%	43.6%	27.7%	40.4%	38.5%	34.1%
2003 Total	18.4%	38.0%	34.9%	38.7%	37.6%	12.4%	41.1%	32.1%	41.9%	38.1%	38.8%
2003 Rural	25.9%	41.2%	37.9%	44.3%	41.0%	19.1%	46.2%	38.7%	48.0%	44.6%	
2003 Urban	5.3%	12.2%	11.8%	7.3%	11.6%	4.5%	11.1%	16.4%	15.2%	13.3%	

Source: Based on Lawson 2003 and Christensen 2004.

The unequal sharing of roles and responsibilities as well as power relations is given as part of the reasons for moving into poverty.

4.1.2 Welfare

The poverty effects were further explored by examining welfare²² indicators. Two specific indicators, use of soap and having a radio are used for illustration.

(i) Use of soap for bathing

Personal hygiene is a must for a healthy living. All households (100%) should have access to bathing soap. The smaller the percentage of households having all their members bathing with soap, the less income a household is assumed to have.

Basing on the 2002 Population and housing census, 90% of the population used soap for bathing, with 97% for urban and 89% for rural. Except for the children headed households, soap use was lower among female-headed households compared to their male counterparts (see table 17).

²¹ Appleton (1996), p1814.

²² A study²² on poverty indicators in Uganda conducted in 2001, established some poverty characteristics of Uganda and identified the good poverty indicators that correlated strongly with the poverty levels. The good poverty indicators were classified under various themes namely:

- ❑ Household demographic characteristics in terms of size, number of children, and dependency ratio.
- ❑ Education level of household head, with poor households having heads whose educational attainment did not exceed primary level.
- ❑ Household main source of livelihood with poor households characterised by crop farming enterprises.
- ❑ Household consumption of some specific food items (sugar, meat, cooking oil bread); non-food items (soap, toothpaste), with low levels for the poor.
- ❑ Ownership of clothing, footwear, blankets, means of transport, and a radio
- ❑ Dwelling characteristics in terms of members per room, cooking and lighting fuel used, source of drinking water, and toilet facility.

Table17: Households using soap for bathing by age, sex and main source of livelihood of head (%).

Sex	National average	Child-head	Adult-head	Elderly head	Subsistence farming	Employment income	Business enterprise
Male	91.0	92.2	91.7	86.4	89.9	97.0	97.8
Female	88.3	92.0	89.7	84.2	87.0	96.6	97.2
Total	90.3	92.1	91.2	85.5	89.2	97.0	97.6

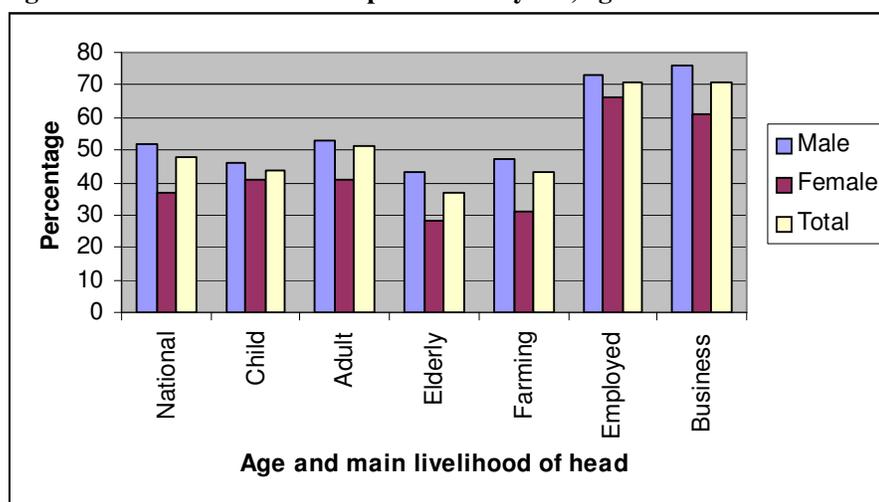
Source: Population and Housing Census, 2002

(ii) Ownership of Radios

Ease of communications greatly influences the effectiveness of social capital²³ assets of households. In addition it eases access to information, which is a key ingredient for any meaningful development efforts

Forty eight percent of households owned radios, with 52% for male-headed households and 37% for those headed by females. Radio ownership was lowest among the subsistence farming households particularly those with female heads. For all ages and livelihood categories of household heads, ownership of radios was lower for female heads than that of their male counterparts (see figure 13). With a lower literacy rate in the country, women's low ownership of radios makes them a marginalized group in terms of any media based communication efforts geared towards development.

Figure 13: Household ownership of radios by sex, age and main livelihood of head (%).



Source: Population and Housing Census, 2002

²³ Social capital includes networks, groups, trust, and access to wider institutions.

4.2 Reduced Economic Growth

There is a strong connection between gender inequality and growth performance. Cross-country growth regressions in SSA assessed the impact of gender differences in education and employment on growth over the 1960-92 period. They suggest that these differences served to reduce annual *per capita* growth by 0.8 percentage points over this period (Klasen 1998, in Blackden and Bhanu 1999). This is significant, as a boost of 0.8 percentage points per year would have in effect doubled *per capita* economic growth over the last 30 years. If these results were to apply in Uganda, it would suggest that Uganda could stand to gain up to 2 percentage points of GDP growth per year through addressing structural gender-based inequalities in education and in formal sector employment.

For instance, it has been estimated that the gender gap in education between 1960 and 2000, accounts for up to 1.3 percentage points of the annual per capita economic growth difference between Uganda and Botswana (the most gender equal and prosperous country in Sub-Saharan Africa). Since the narrowing of the gap following the introduction of UPE, and affirmative action for girls at the University, the growth difference with Botswana has now reduced to 0.65 percentage points.

Men and women face entirely different incentives as economic producers, depending on who controls the resulting income. For example in Uganda, gender inequality has affected the implementation of the Uganda's Strategic Exports Initiative. The Poverty and Social Impact Assessment (PSIA) of the initiative noted that supply response sought under the strategy was limited by gender inequality, as the strategy failed to recognize that one of the principal determinants of response is the way incentives are mediated, at household and community levels, by negotiated relationships of cooperation and conflict between men and women. Differing incentives in turn affect household income and how it is distributed. The PSIA points out that both incentive issues and intra-household distributional issues center on the monopolization of major income streams by men.²⁴

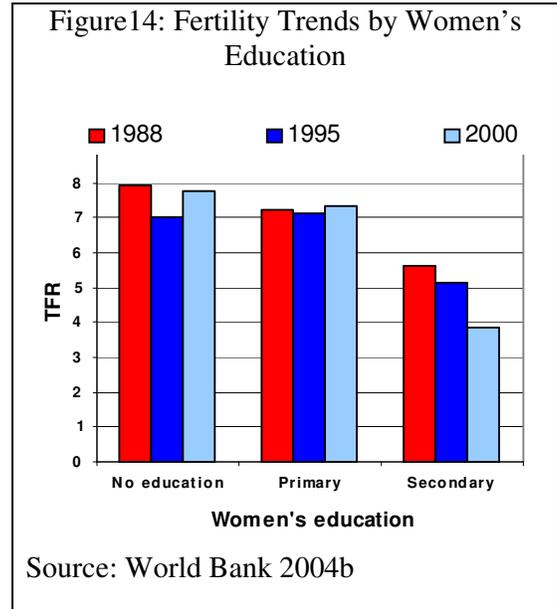
4.3 High Fertility Rate

The well-established link between education and fertility is confirmed in Uganda. Women with no education have a TFR of 7.8, those with some primary education 7.3. Women with more than primary education have shown TFR dropping dramatically from above five in 1988 to 3.9 in 2000—a difference of nearly four children between women without education and those with secondary education. Uganda's total fertility rate (TFR) is 6.9, considerably higher than the SSA average of 5.2.

²⁴

See Booth et al. 2003.

High fertility coupled with poverty, illiteracy, and the low status of women are key obstacles to safe motherhood. Maternal mortality is one of the most important causes of loss of healthy life years in Uganda, and places surviving children at great risk, as the death of the mother has been found in a variety of settings to be an important predictor of school dropout and child mortality. The majority of maternal deaths occur outside the hospitals, indicating that delay in seeking care and delay in reaching care are critical. Of the deaths that occur in the hospital, many of the women arrived at the hospital moribund. In one study, 86.1 percent of maternal deaths in 74 facilities occurred within an hour of arrival. Although in-patient management certainly needs to be improved, these data point more to lack of recognition of warning signs and lack of timely transport (World Bank 2004b). They also suggest, strongly, that women lack the resources and decision-making power over when and how to seek care, and that their “overburden” is a contributing factor in delaying efforts to seek care.

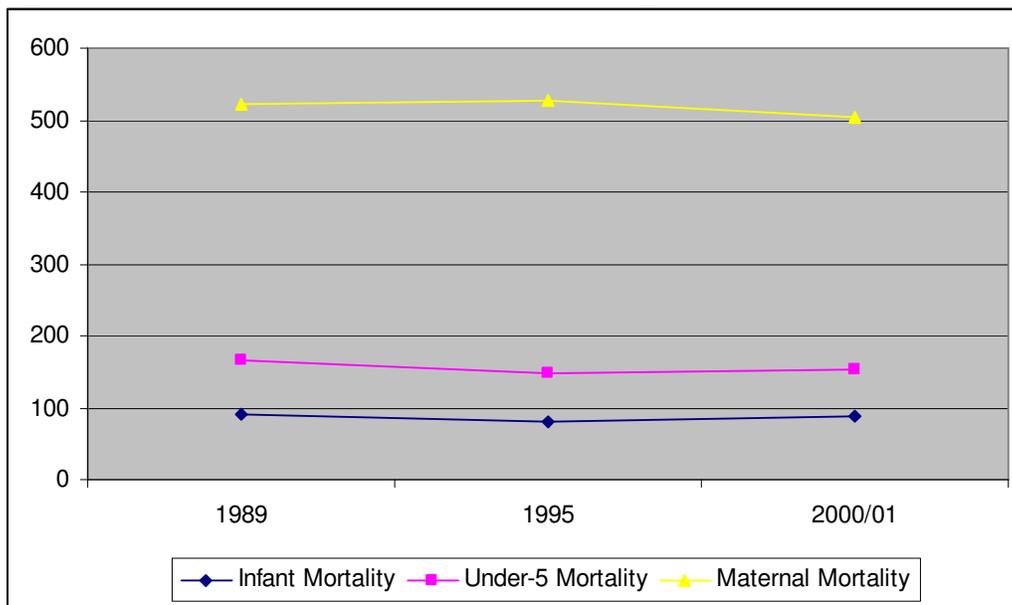


Although both men and women believed that large families led to poverty, women reported not being able to use family planning because of a negative attitude by their husbands. Payment of bride price, domestic violence and illiteracy were all perceived to be important factors in perpetuating unequal gender relations.

4.4 High infant and maternal mortality

The infant and maternal mortality have persistently remained high. For example, between 1995 and 2000, infant mortality increased from 81 to 88 deaths per 1,000 births. During the same period, under-five mortality increased from 147 to 152 deaths per 1,000 births, while maternal mortality fell only marginally from 527 to 505 per 100,000 live births (see **Fig. 15**). In addition to their negative impact on the quality of life, high mortality contributes to perpetuation of poverty, and hinders economic development. The fact that infant and maternal mortality persisted despite the reduction in income poverty, points to the distributional issues within households that are dependent on decision-making powers.

Figure 15: Infant, Under-5, and Maternal Mortality



Source: UDHS 1995, 2000/01.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusions

Although Uganda has embraced gender mainstreaming, it is evident that gender inequalities are still persistent. Uganda ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) in 1995, without reservations. The Constitution of 1995 enshrines gender equality in many of its provisions. The Constitution also prescribes temporary affirmative action in favour of women, among other disadvantaged groups for purposes of redressing imbalances created by history, tradition and other factors.

Over the last two decades, government of Uganda has actively promoted women's empowerment and gender equality in both legal and policy arenas. For example at every political level²⁵, women have 30 percent of seats reserved for them. In the area of Education, there is the Universal Primary education, as well as affirmative action at the National Universities.²⁶

The Government's National Gender Policy, launched in 1997 and revised in 2005, underscores and addresses the cross-cutting manifestations of gender inequalities.

The pervasive gender inequalities despite these noble efforts also indicate the need for effective economic empowerment of women as a prerequisite for their effective emancipation.

5.2 Key Recommendations

(1) Revising and Enacting the Domestic Relations Bill

A study which examined why the Domestic Relations Bill (DRB) is important for poverty reduction in Uganda showed that most of the gender inequalities in access to resources manifest themselves at the household level.²⁷ This implies, strongly, that the most important aspects of empowerment are those that pertain in the domestic sphere, and therefore, the family. These inequalities perpetuate women's—as well as national—poverty. Enactment of the DRB into law has the potential to address gender-based inequalities such as land rights, decision-making, and the invisibility of women's work, all of which, as we have seen, are core gender dimensions of poverty in Uganda. This reinforces the case for urgent enactment of a revised²⁸ DRB and its effective enforcement.

(2) Establish the Equal Opportunities Commission

²⁵ Political levels include the district governments (LCI-LCV), and the national levels.

²⁶ At Makerere and Mbarara Universities females are given an extra 1.5 points to boost their admission aggregates

²⁷ See Tanzarn 2004. *The Link between the Domestic Relations Bill (DRB) and the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP)*, prepared for UWONET.

²⁸ There is need to review the contentious sections that are holding up the whole process of enactment

This commission which is provided for in the Constitution, would ensure that equity issues are addresses in all development processes in the country.

(3) Focus on economic empowerment of women

This would necessitate effective implementation of existing interventions, as well as prioritizing critical new ones.

(a) Enhancing existing interventions.

- ◆ Address gender-based obstacles to growth and productivity explicitly in policy and programs, including in the revision of the Medium-Term Competitiveness Strategy (MTCS) aimed at developing entrepreneurship, and in other initiatives aimed at expanding and diversifying trade, such as the strategic exports initiative.
- ◆ Monitor the effective implementation of the NAADS provisions relating to the access by both men and women farmers to agricultural services provided under the PMA.
- ◆ Implement the poverty reduction support credit (PRSC4-5) provisions relating to women’s access to land, including development of a management tool under the Land Strategic Sector Plan to provide a baseline for determining awareness among stakeholders of women’s land rights, and continuation of information campaigns relating to women’s land rights. Deepen the analysis of cultural dimensions of land rights, and monitor the effective implementation of the “security of occupancy” provisions of the Land Act.
- ◆ Ensure provision of agricultural financing at reasonable interest rates and pay back periods.

(b) Priority new interventions

- Prioritize investment in the energy sector, focusing on energy for the poor. Emphasize traditional energy sources (woodlots and energy-efficient technology), with a particular focus on energy requirements for domestic purposes (e.g., cooking fuels).

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Annexes: Detailed Descriptive Tables

Annex Table 1: Enrolment into Primary education by level and sex, 1997-2003.

		P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
1997	Male	1,102,346	435,147	391,659	308,802	251,141	195,093	148,284
	Female	1,057,304	385,398	334,127	256,436	198,140	144,955	94,532
	Total	2,159,850	820,545	725,786	565,238	449,281	340,048	242,816
1998	Male	848,973	671,945	455,744	376,226	293,697	239,590	175,547
	Female	806,153	640,648	407,404	327,937	251,454	188,974	122,093
	Total	1,655,126	1,312,593	863,148	704,163	545,151	428,564	297,460
1999	Male	813,991	630,235	584,412	428,974	352,445	282,599	209,232
	Female	796,017	575,112	543,804	384,346	302,506	231,957	152,609
	Total	1,610,008	1,205,347	1,128,216	813,320	654,951	514,556	361,841
2000	Male	828,345	589,184	572,070	495,954	381,107	308,451	220,443
	Female	809,306	568,363	553,215	466,908	342,025	260,492	163,960
	Total	1,637,651	1,157,547	1,125,285	962,052	723,132	568,943	384,403
2001	Male	855,571	586,537	569,712	515,412	429,142	332,320	239,341
	Female	849,195	571,445	559,058	503,950	403,713	296,857	188,663
	Total	1,704,766	1,157,982	1,128,770	1,019,362	832,855	629,177	428,004
2002	Male	920,053	606,611	582,406	535,935	460,098	363,918	252,114
	Female	927,127	597,372	577,465	534,184	450,592	338,283	207,995
	Total	1,847,180	1,203,983	1,159,871	1,070,119	910,690	702,201	460,109
2003*	Male	960,342	626,755	595,916	548,729	483,218	391,311	265,115
	Female	954,011	617,690	582,602	540,850	474,953	369,151	220,409
	Total	1,914,353	1,244,445	1,178,518	1,089,579	958,171	760,462	485,524

*The 2003 figures are provisional: Source: Ministry of Education Statistical Abstract: Web-site

Annex Table 2: Survival Rate to P7 by sex, 2000-2003.

SEX\ Rate	2000	2001	2002	2003
Male	74	67	61	24
Female	61	59.2	55	21
Total	68	64	58	22

Source: Ministry of Education Statistical Abstract: Web Sit

Annex Table3: Reasons for dropping out by sex

Reason for dropping out	1999/00			2002/03		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Cost	61	49	56	65	62	63
Sickness or calamity in family	7	12	10	8	4	6
Completed a desired level	5	0	3	4	4	4
Domestic work	4	4	4	2	2	2
Needed to work	2	4	3	4	1	3
Transport	2	2	2	0	0	0
Pregnancy	-	10	5	-	9	5
Other reasons	18	18	18	11	10	10
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Uganda Bureau of Statistics

Annex Table 4: Occupation Type by sex and, Region

	Region			
	Central	Western	Northern	Eastern
Men				
Professional	4.9%	5.1%	4.7%	4.9%
Admin	0.7%	0.1%	0.7%	0.7%
Clerical	0.5%	0.4%	0.4%	0.4%
Sales	5.6%	5.8%	5.4%	5.4%
Service	2.9%	2.9%	2.9%	2.9%
Crop	50.6%	50.5%	50.5%	50.2%
Livestock	3.2%	3.0%	3.9%	3.2%
Poultry	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Forestry	0.9%	0.8%	0.9%	0.8%
Transport	4.3%	4.0%	3.9%	4.1%
Unskilled	3.7%	4.6%	4.6%	4.8%
Other	22.6%	22.7%	22.2%	22.5%
Women				
Professional	1.8%	1.9%	1.5%	1.7%
Admin	0.2%	0.2%	0.2%	0.2%
Clerical	0.4%	0.4%	0.3%	0.3%
Sales	5.3%	4.7%	3.8%	5.1%
Service	0.5%	0.1%	1.1%	1.3%
Crop	61.8%	63.3%	63.9%	61.3%
Livestock	0.3%	0.0%	0.4%	0.2%
Poultry	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Forestry	0.1%	0.1%	0.1%	0.1%
Transport	1.6%	1.7%	1.7%	1.6%
Unskilled	1.3%	1.1%	1.2%	1.3%
Other	26.7%	26.4%	25.7%	26.8%

Annex Table 5: Proportion of Household Income from Enterprise and Type of Employment –by sex of Household Head and Region

Variable	Region/Rural or Urban					
	Central	Western	Northern	Eastern	Rural	Urban
MHH						
Income from Household Enterprises						
Crop Farming	38.1%	49.9%	40.4%	36.4%	50.0%	8.7%
Other Agricultural enterprises	3.0%	3.6%	3.6%	2.7%	3.7%	1.2%
Non -Agricultural enterprises	17.3%	12.0%	17.0%	18.6%	11.8%	32.5%
Other Enterprise income (Property Income/Current transfers.....)	19.5%	19.9%	21.8%	23.8%	22.1%	17.3%
....of which remittances =)	8.4%	10.3%	9.5%	11.1%	11.1%	5.2%
.....of which inheritance/alimony/other =)	5.1%	2.6%	5.1%	6.3%	4.6%	5.0%
Employment' Income						
Agricultural subsistence/employer	2.7%	3.2%	4.3%	3.7%	4.0%	1.0%
Agricultural - wage	3.9%	1.6%	0.8%	1.5%	2.2%	1.7%
Non Agricultural subsistence/employer	0.4%	0.3%	0.4%	0.4%	0.2%	1.2%
Non Agricultural - wage	14.5%	9.1%	11.2%	12.3%	5.7%	35.1%
Other (i.e. Unemployment/Disabled)	0.6%	0.3%	0.4%	0.5%	0.3%	1.3%
WHH						
Income from Household Enterprises						
Crop Farming	36.1%	45.2%	29.1%	29.8%	44.1%	9.8%
Other Agricultural enterprises	1.7%	1.9%	2.9%	1.7%	2.4%	0.7%
Non - Agricultural enterprises	15.5%	13.1%	18.1%	15.4%	9.9%	31.8%
Other Enterprise income (Property Income/Current transfers.....)	33.8%	27.8%	41.4%	43.4%	37.2%	33.5%
....of which remittances =)	8.7%	12.0%	15.9%	13.0%	14.1%	5.6%
.....of which inheritance/alimony/other =)	16.7%	8.6%	16.9%	22.5%	15.1%	19.7%
Employment' Income						
Agricultural subsistence/employer	1.4%	1.6%	1.5%	1.5%	1.9%	0.3%
Agricultural - wage	1.8%	1.7%	0.2%	0.3%	1.0%	1.3%
Non Agricultural – subsistence/employer	0.2%	0.1%	0.6%	0.2%	0.1%	0.6%
Non Agricultural - wage	9.1%	8.5%	5.5%	7.0%	3.0%	21.1%
Other (i.e. Unemployment/Disabled)	0.5%	0.1%	0.6%	0.6%	0.3%	0.8%

Source UNHS 2002/3

Annex Table 6: Expenditure (on selected goods) as a Proportion of Total Expenditure – By sex of Household head -1999

Product	MHH					WHH					All
	Married/		Divorced	Widowed	All	Married/		Divorced	Widowed	All	
	Unmarried	Cohabiting				Unmarried	Cohabiting				
Food, Beverage and Tobacco (all)											
Matooke	4.89	6.71	5.17	6.96	6.54	6.69	5.43	6.79	7.70	6.77	6.60
Sweet Potatoes	3.72	5.91	5.01	5.27	5.72	3.64	5.46	6.93	7.18	6.28	5.87
Cassava	4.05	6.50	5.81	7.51	6.35	3.32	5.89	5.67	7.74	6.40	6.36
Irish Potatoes	0.76	1.19	0.39	1.22	1.13	0.59	1.18	0.76	1.34	1.12	1.13
Rice	1.18	0.84	0.76	0.74	0.86	1.64	0.99	1.20	0.63	0.94	0.88
Maize	4.46	3.89	4.65	3.84	3.95	3.08	4.70	3.98	4.31	4.25	4.03
Bread	0.57	0.32	0.14	0.23	0.32	0.58	0.35	0.38	0.18	0.30	0.32
Millet	0.34	1.58	0.82	0.90	1.45	0.80	1.20	1.11	1.60	1.32	1.42
Sorghum	0.28	0.67	0.26	0.51	0.63	0.46	1.81	0.57	1.38	1.28	0.80
Meat	2.64	4.25	4.19	2.68	4.11	3.63	4.42	3.33	2.75	3.43	3.93
Sugar	2.91	3.12	2.82	2.90	3.09	3.93	3.43	3.82	3.05	3.38	3.17
Salt	0.90	0.76	1.14	1.28	0.79	0.85	0.90	0.94	1.18	1.02	0.86
Soda	0.66	0.36	0.30	0.33	0.37	1.16	0.33	0.36	0.15	0.34	0.36
Beer	1.20	0.83	0.78	0.50	0.85	2.24	0.60	0.86	0.19	0.63	0.79
Other Alcohol	2.75	2.32	5.56	3.19	2.50	0.29	1.39	0.98	1.00	1.04	2.11
Cigarettes	1.56	0.62	1.65	1.00	0.73	0.04	0.18	0.23	0.16	0.17	0.58
Other Tobacco	0.35	0.22	0.52	0.70	0.25	0.18	0.27	0.11	0.19	0.20	0.24
Restaurant	10.92	1.16	4.95	3.62	1.96	3.45	0.81	1.24	0.59	1.05	1.72
Other	2.45	0.93	3.36	2.38	1.16	1.11	1.18	1.15	1.28	1.21	1.17
Ground Nuts	1.06	1.09	1.10	1.00	1.09	1.46	1.10	1.44	1.29	1.27	1.14
Fish	2.77	3.06	3.55	3.38	3.07	2.57	2.92	3.08	2.39	2.69	2.97
Eggs and Milk	1.37	2.16	1.47	1.51	2.07	2.94	2.22	1.50	1.52	1.86	2.02
Infant Formula	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.01
Foods											
Cooking/marg	1.00	1.26	1.00	0.75	1.22	1.48	1.47	1.34	0.91	1.21	1.22
Fruit	0.48	0.67	0.54	0.40	0.65	0.73	0.76	0.73	0.57	0.67	0.66
Veg	2.70	3.18	3.23	3.70	3.17	3.74	4.16	3.74	4.16	4.05	3.40
Beans	3.02	4.50	4.43	5.08	4.42	3.51	4.80	4.40	5.71	5.00	4.57
Non-Durable Goods (selection)											
Kerosene	1.70	1.31	1.49	1.81	1.36	1.63	1.42	1.75	1.37	1.48	1.39
Charcoal	0.87	0.60	0.54	0.35	0.61	1.95	0.85	1.37	0.53	0.91	0.69
Firewood	6.82	8.20	9.34	9.73	8.20	5.32	9.30	8.96	11.33	9.73	8.60
Matches	0.30	0.23	0.33	0.33	0.24	0.21	0.25	0.27	0.26	0.25	0.25
Washing Soap	1.36	1.45	1.50	1.58	1.45	1.45	1.63	1.73	1.58	1.60	1.49
Bathing Soap	0.27	0.25	0.13	0.15	0.25	0.42	0.27	0.28	0.15	0.23	0.24
Toothpaste	0.31	0.17	0.12	0.09	0.18	0.39	0.18	0.21	0.11	0.18	0.18
Batteries	0.87	0.72	0.63	0.67	0.73	0.56	0.46	0.50	0.35	0.43	0.65
Petrol/Diesel	0.17	0.24	0.07	0.16	0.23	0.27	0.11	0.03	0.04	0.08	0.19
Bus/Taxi	2.16	1.64	1.37	1.07	1.65	2.98	1.37	1.69	0.84	1.36	1.57
Health Fees	2.49	4.20	3.33	3.78	4.05	3.43	3.27	3.11	4.30	3.70	3.96
Health Costs- Traditional Medicine	0.08	0.18	0.17	0.19	0.17	0.04	0.19	0.03	0.09	0.11	0.15
Semi-Durable and Durable (Selection)											
Clothes and Footwear	3.57	4.39	2.52	2.53	4.22	4.50	4.08	3.65	2.88	3.53	4.04
School fees	1.55	2.45	0.98	1.20	2.30	2.58	3.22	3.06	2.87	2.98	2.48
School Board and Lodgings	0.05	0.37	0.06	0.30	0.34	0.25	0.38	0.39	0.45	0.39	0.35
School Uniform	0.13	0.38	0.16	0.27	0.35	0.27	0.42	0.39	0.36	0.37	0.36
School - other	0.10	0.26	0.11	0.16	0.24	0.21	0.26	0.32	0.29	0.28	0.25
School Books	0.18	0.33	0.15	0.21	0.31	0.32	0.36	0.36	0.36	0.35	0.32

Annex Table 7: Proportion of Alcohol and Education Expenditure by Income Quartiles

	MHH				WHH			
	Lowest (1)	(2)	(3)	Highest(4)	Lowest (1)	(2)	(3)	Highest(4)
Beer	0.08	0.23	0.86	2.26	0.04	0.11	0.36	1.86
Other Alcohol	2.83	2.65	2.63	1.84	1.30	1.16	0.92	0.80
Total Alcohol	2.91	2.88	3.50	4.11	1.34	1.27	1.28	2.66
School fees	1.40	1.91	2.64	3.27	1.24	3.13	3.46	4.05
School Board and Lodgings	0.10	0.18	0.46	0.60	0.17	0.20	0.49	0.68
School Uniform	0.48	0.37	0.31	0.23	0.44	0.42	0.39	0.25
School - Other	0.29	0.27	0.19	0.20	0.29	0.30	0.25	0.25
School Books	0.36	0.32	0.28	0.26	0.34	0.40	0.34	0.33

Source: UNHS 1999/00

Annex Table 8: Gender Representation in Decision Making

Position in Public Life		Sex	1996	%	2003	%
Members of Parliament		M	225	81.2	230	75.4
		F	52	18.8	75	24.6
Members of the Executive	President	M	01	100.0	01	100.0
		F	00	0.0	00	0.0
	Vice President	M	00	0.0	01	100.0
		F	01	100.0	00	0.0
	Cabinet Ministers	M	21	91.3	18	85.7
		F	02	8.7	03	14.3
	Ministers of State	M	18	90.0	33	73.3
		F	02	10.0	12	26.7
Chairpersons of District Local Governments		M	45	100.0	55	98.2
		F	00	0.0	01	1.8
Councilors in District Local Councils		M	908	57.6	571	61.1
		F	668	42.4	364	38.9
Sub-County Chairpersons		M	851	98.4	673	97.7
		F	14	1.6	16	2.3
Councilors at Sub-county level		M	6,177	51.5	6,224	55.4
		F	5,821	48.5	5,007	44.6
Civil Servants at the highest scale (U1) [excluding teachers]		M	-	-	814	82.6
		F	-	-	171	17.4
Chief Administrative Officers [Technical Heads of Districts]		M	-	-	53	94.6
		F	-	-	3	5.4

Source: Tanzarn 2003. 1996 data from *Africa Gender and Development Index (Uganda)*.

Annex Table 9: Assets – Disaggregated by Gender and Marital Status of Household Head

Variable	MHH					WHH		
	Unmarried	Married/ Cohabiting	Divorced	Widowed	All	Unmarried	Married/ Cohabiting	Di
Number of cows 1999	0.32	1.34	0.25	0.36	1.21	0.09	0.81	
Number of chickens at 1999	0.82	3.65	1.08	1.09	3.31	0.75	3.06	
Number of goats 1999	0.34	1.59	0.52	0.50	1.45	0.27	1.47	
Enterprise Land 2002/3	0.06	0.18	0.17	0.58	0.17	0.01	0.19	
Agricultural Land Owned 2002/3	2.09	3.69	3.55	4.8	3.55	0.36	1.84	
Cultivated Land 2002/3	1.88	2.02	1.98	1.53	1.98	0.36	1.37	

Source UNHS 1999/00 & 2002/3

Annex Table 10: Assets – Disaggregated by Gender of Household Head and Region

Variable	Region/Rural or Urban					
	Central	Western	Northern	Eastern	Rural	Urban
MHH						
Amount of land at 1999	6.50	4.05	4.34	3.32	4.16	3.40
Number of cows 1999	1.44	1.41	1.17	0.78	1.48	1.03
Number of chickens at 1999	3.77	2.79	3.52	3.28	3.05	1.27
Number of goats 1999	0.59	1.63	3.22	1.08	1.74	1.00
Agricultural Land Owned 2002/3	3.59	4.42	3.71	2.60	4.26	2.41
Cultivated Land 2002/3	1.9	1.23	1.73	1.36	2.46	1.22
WHH						
Amount of land at 1999	1.93	3.13	2.62	2.43	3.6	1.58
Number of cows 1999	0.37	0.90	0.69	0.38	0.97	0.74
Number of chickens at 1999	2.35	1.67	2.72	2.16	1.94	9.77
Agricultural Land Owned 2002/3	1.60	1.83	3.64	1.87	2.53	1.77
Cultivated Land 2002/3	0.87	1.25	1.19	1.36	1.64	0.67

Source UNHS 1999/00 & 2002/3

Annex Table 11:Poverty Dynamics and Assets Levels

ASSETS	Chronic Poor		Moving Out of Poverty		Moving Into Poverty		Never In Poverty		All
	MHH	WHH	MHH	WHH	MHH	WHH	MHH	WHH	
Asset Quantities - All Households									
Amount of Land at 1992	2.84	2.17	2.81	2.53	2.54	2.25	2.84	2.45	2.72
Number of chickens at 1992	1.93	1.82	1.73	1.26	1.57	1.07	1.75	1.42	1.69
Number of cows 1992	0.94	0.45	1.05	0.71	1.01	1.03	1.05	0.88	0.98
Number of pigs 1992	0.79	0.30	0.87	0.53	0.64	1.00	0.72	0.76	0.74
Number of goats 1992	1.84	1.58	1.55	1.37	1.55	0.63	1.73	1.01	1.58
Amount of Land at 1999	3.61	1.86	5.22	3.70	2.70	1.50	6.37	2.36	4.60
Number of chickens at 1999	3.31	2.32	5.11	4.14	1.70	1.63	3.70	6.76	3.99
Number of cows 1999	0.86	0.15	1.01	0.75	0.84	0.78	1.74	0.86	1.14
Number of pigs 1999	0.32	0.17	0.38	0.28	0.22	0.33	0.31	0.38	0.32
Number of goats 1999	2.05	1.85	1.10	1.42	1.35	0.37	1.47	0.83	1.39
Rural Households Only									
Amount of Land at 1992	2.87	2.18	2.94	2.70	2.54	2.13	3.03	1.45	2.86
Number of chickens at 1992	1.91	1.84	1.78	1.41	1.58	0.61	1.87	1.94	1.77
Number of cows 1992	0.92	0.54	1.15	0.80	1.07	0.96	1.04	1.28	1.03
Number of pigs 1992	0.81	0.18	0.85	0.61	0.61	1.17	0.84	1.14	0.81
Number of goats 1992	1.83	1.60	1.61	1.55	1.49	0.74	1.91	1.39	1.69
Amount of Land at 1999	3.69	2.06	5.70	3.99	2.58	1.59	5.89	3.18	4.66
Number of chickens at 1999	3.28	2.42	5.49	4.64	1.67	1.52	3.99	10.77	4.34
Number of cows 1999	0.87	0.18	1.14	0.85	0.89	0.83	1.45	1.35	1.12
Number of pigs 1999	0.33	0.03	0.38	0.31	0.22	0.39	0.36	0.48	0.34
Number of goats 1992	2.06	1.61	1.15	1.60	1.35	0.43	1.53	1.07	1.46
Urban Households Only									
Amount of Land at 1992	2.50	2.14	1.88	1.25	2.50	3.00	1.95	1.76	1.93
Number of chickens at 1992	2.20	1.71	1.38	0.13	1.50	3.75	1.14	0.68	1.20
Number of cows 1992	1.30	-	0.38	-	0.17	1.50	1.09	0.31	0.67
Number of pigs 1992	0.60	0.85	0.94	-	1.00	-	0.13	0.21	0.39
Number of goats 1992	2.00	1.42	1.16	-	2.33	-	0.85	0.47	0.91
Amount of Land at 1999	2.25	0.92	1.83	1.43	4.21	1.06	8.75	1.20	4.26
Number of chickens at 1999	3.60	1.85	2.46	0.38	2.17	2.25	2.24	1.05	1.99
Number of cows 1999	0.60	0.00	0.09	-	0.17	0.50	3.18	0.18	1.28
Number of pigs 1999	0.10	0.85	0.34	-	0.33	-	0.03	0.23	0.19
Number of goats 1992	1.90	3.00	0.72	-	1.50	-	1.14	0.47	0.96
Asset Changes - All Areas									
% Increase in Land Area	27.1%	-14.3%	85.8%	46.3%	6.3%	-33.3%	124.3%	-3.7%	69.1%
Average Land Area Increases	0.77	-0.31	2.41	1.17	0.16	-0.75	3.53	-0.09	1.88
% Increase in Chicken Numbers	71.5%	27.5%	194.9%	228.9%	8.4%	52.2%	111.4%	376.1%	136.8%
Average Increase in Number of Chickens	1.38	0.50	3.38	2.88	0.13	0.56	1.95	5.34	2.31
Average increase in Number of Cows	-0.08	-0.30	-0.04	0.04	-0.17	-0.25	0.69	-0.02	0.16

Calculations based on IHS/UNHS 1992/99 Panel

NOTE:- Gender of household head based on 1992 IHS

Urban household chronically poor figures are from small samples (MHH - 10, FHH - 7) + Urban FHH 'Moving Out of' (8 Households); Moving Into (MHH - 6, FHH 4);

Annex Table 12 : Poverty Status - By Household Types

Poverty Status	(1) Unmarried	(2) Married/ Cohabiting	MHH			(6) Unmarried	(7) Married/ Cohabiting	WHH		
			(3) Divorced	(4) Widowed	(5) All			(8) Divorced	(9) Widowed	(10) All
By column										
Chronic Poor	8.3%	20.0%	16.7%	16.7%	19.3%	10.5%	27.9%	10.6%	14.9%	17.5%
Moving out of Poverty	27.8%	29.8%	33.3%	16.7%	29.6%	21.1%	27.9%	19.1%	39.4%	30.3%
Moving into Poverty	13.9%	10.0%	6.7%	5.6%	9.9%	0.0%	17.6%	14.9%	8.5%	11.8%
Never In Poverty	50.0%	40.2%	43.3%	44.4%	41.1%	68.4%	26.5%	46.8%	37.2%	40.4%
By row										
Chronic Poor	1.4%	75.6%	2.4%	1.4%	80.9%	1.0%	9.1%	2.4%	6.7%	19.1%
Moving out of Poverty	3.0%	72.0%	3.0%	0.9%	79.0%	1.2%	5.8%	2.7%	11.2%	21.0%
Moving into Poverty	4.4%	69.3%	1.8%	0.9%	76.3%	0.0%	10.5%	6.1%	7.0%	23.7%
Never In Poverty	4.0%	70.4%	2.9%	2.4%	79.6%	2.9%	4.0%	5.8%	7.7%	20.4%
All	3.3%	71.7%	2.7%	1.6%	79.3%	1.7%	6.2%	4.3%	8.5%	20.7%

Calculations based on IHS/UNHS 1992/99 Panel

NOTE:- Gender of household head based on 1992 IHS

Annex Table 13 : Income Quartiles - By Household Types

Income Quartiles	Unmarried	Married/ Cohabiting	MHH			Unmarried	Married/ Cohabiting	WHH		
			Divorced	Widowed	All			Divorced	Widowed	All
By column										
Lowest(1)	9.6%	26.6%	13.2%	19.3%	24.9%	11.2%	28.8%	20.7%	28.0%	25.3%
(2)	14.0%	26.6%	21.9%	25.2%	25.6%	12.7%	24.5%	20.1%	26.3%	23.4%
(3)	22.7%	25.5%	25.4%	23.8%	25.3%	19.6%	22.2%	28.2%	25.1%	24.2%
Highest (4)	53.7%	21.3%	39.5%	31.7%	24.2%	56.5%	24.5%	31.1%	20.6%	27.1%
By row										
Lowest(1)	1.7%	68.6%	1.6%	1.5%	73.3%	1.2%	9.0%	3.7%	12.7%	26.7%
(2)	2.5%	68.4%	2.6%	1.9%	75.4%	1.3%	7.7%	3.6%	11.9%	24.6%
(3)	4.0%	65.7%	3.0%	1.8%	74.5%	2.0%	7.0%	5.1%	11.4%	25.4%
Highest (4)	9.5%	54.9%	4.7%	2.4%	71.4%	5.8%	7.7%	5.6%	9.4%	28.5%

Calculations based on UNHS 1999

