

Analysis of Refugee Vulnerability in Uganda

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OFFICE OF THE PRIME MINISTER



**DEVELOPMENT
PATHWAYS**

Acknowledgements

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Executive Summary

Introduction

Uganda hosts more refugees than any other country in Africa, with figures in 2017 almost at 1.4 million (Table ES1 sets out the reported numbers of refugees in each settlement in October 2017). The large influx is a strain on the resources of the humanitarian system, in particular the provision of food assistance by WFP. There has been a hopeful expectation that all refugees – apart from those classified as ‘Extremely Vulnerable Individuals/Households’ (EVI/H) – will eventually become self-reliant and gradually move off the programme. It has become evident however, that many of those receiving lower rations or who have stopped receiving food assistance are still far from self-reliant, and are finding it difficult to subsist without support. There is, hence, a need to critically re-think the current system of beneficiary selection for food assistance.

Table ES1: Number of refugees in each district and settlement (October 2. 2017)¹

Region	District	Settlement	Population
West Nile	Arua	Rhino Camp	223,100
		Imvepi	
	Koboko	Lobule	285,014
	Yumbe	Bidibidi	
	Adjumani	Various	239,335
	Moyo	Palorinya	184,701
	Lamwo	Palabek	35,535
Mid-West	Kiryandongo	Kiryandongo	56,855
	Hoima	Kyangwali	48,543
South Western	Kamwenge	Rwamwanja	74,451
		Kyegegwa	Kyaka II
	Isingiro	Nakivale	100,560 ²
		Oruchinga	5,787
Kampala	Kampala	-	99,962
Total			1,380,467

Development Pathways was commissioned to undertake a comprehensive study to develop a well-rounded understanding of vulnerability among the refugee population in Uganda. The overarching aim of the study was to review the current beneficiary selection

¹ Source: OPM RIMS per October 2. 2017, includes asylum seekers and the population in transit and reception centres. There is no data on the number of refugees living outside settlements, except for those in Kampala.

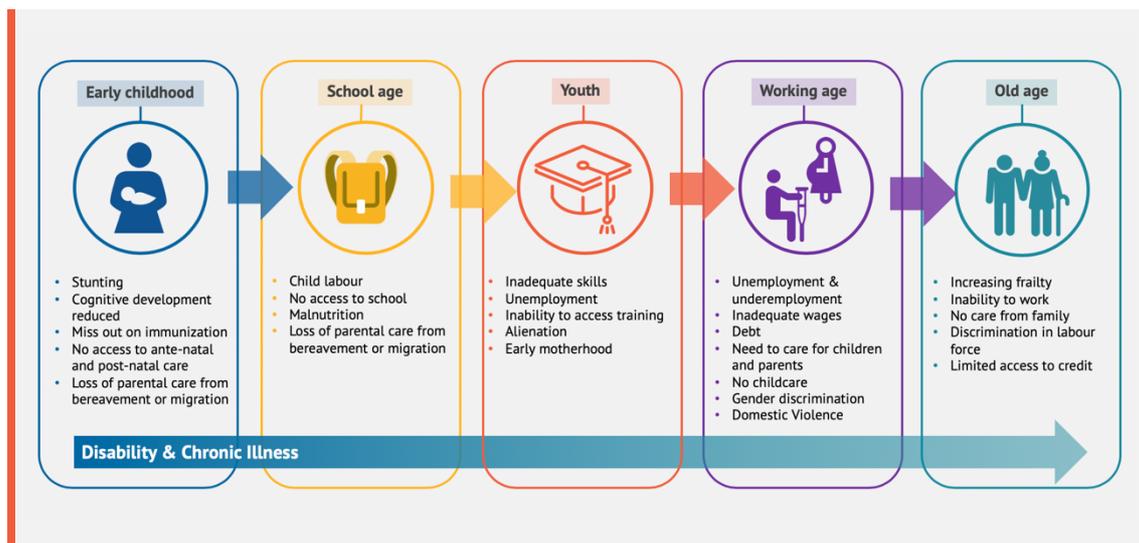
² According to the publicly available data from the OPM RIMS, the population of Nakivale was 124,842 until the re-verification in May 2017, after which the number dropped to 95,576.

criteria for food assistance. The final outcome is an in-depth report based on mixed-methods research, incorporating findings from a review of the relevant literature, qualitative field work in six settlements and the Ugandan Refugee Vulnerability Survey (URVS) of around 5,000 households in ten settlements. This report presents the in-depth vulnerability study.

Challenges faced across the lifecycle

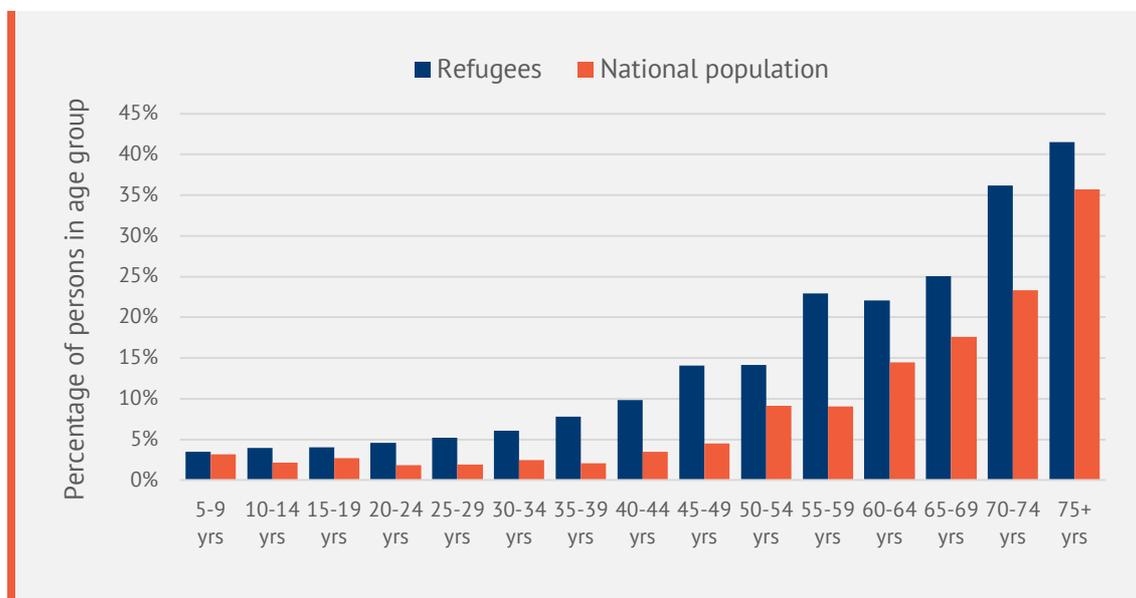
The various stages of the lifecycle pose specific challenges and risks to a person. In the context of refugees in Uganda, the differences in consumption and food insecurity are not very significant across the lifecycle, as the vast majority are living in extreme poverty and experiencing hunger. Nonetheless, children and older persons were found to be slightly worse off in comparison to other age groups. Figure ES1 summarises the risks faced by refugees across the lifecycle.

Figure ES1: Risks experienced by refugees at different points across the lifecycle



Furthermore, disability is a challenge faced by all age groups, and around 6 per cent of the refugee population has a severe disability in comparison to 4 per cent of the Ugandan population. Overall, 17 per cent of refugee households have a member with a severe disability while 54 per cent of households include a member with at least some form of disability (see Figure ES2 for age breakdown). Households typically incur additional costs related to the disability which are not taken into account when assessing the level of food assistance that they require. Disability is, therefore, an important consideration for understanding refugee vulnerability.

Figure ES2: Severe disability by age group among the refugee and national population in Uganda



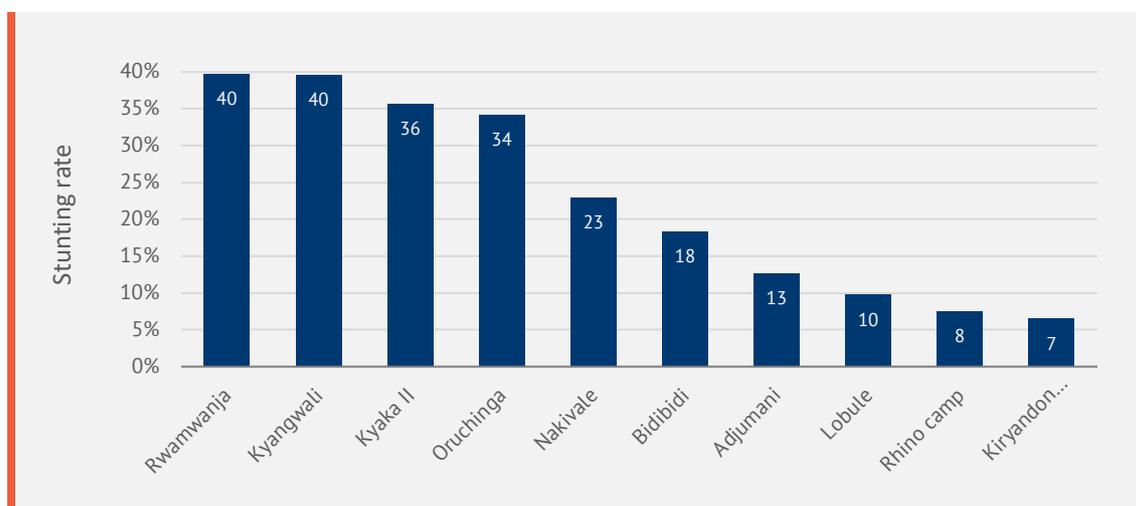
A brief overview of the risks across the age-groups is set out below.

Children (0-17 years)

Less than half of the refugee children live with both parents, while many live with only their mother or other relatives. The level of per capita expenditure is lower for households with higher numbers of children. While the majority of school age children are able to attend school, the proportion falls among those aged 15 to 19 years. Children with severe disabilities account for approximately 4 per cent of all children and, according to the URVS, most of them are not identified by the PSN or EVI assessments.

Malnutrition and poor health are significant risks faced by young children, in particular by those living in large households receiving reduced or no food assistance, or where not all household members have been able to register for food assistance. Figure ES3 shows the stunting rates among children aged 6-59 months across settlements, demonstrating that stunting rates are lower among refugee children in the 0-4 age group in some settlements.

Figure ES3: Stunting rates across settlements among children aged 5-59 months³



Young people (18-25 years)

The capacity of younger persons to engage in the labour market and become self-reliant depends, in part, on their level of education. Around 69 per cent of young refugees have only reached the level of primary education and the proportion is higher among young women, at 77 per cent. Only around 26 per cent of young persons are engaged in some form of economic activity, including working on their own plots of land.

Young women tend to marry earlier than men – often as teenagers – and, by age 25 years, 51 per cent of women are married, 11 per cent divorced or separated and 3 per cent already widowed. In contrast, 72 per cent of young men below the age of 25 years have never been married. There is a clear tendency for single young women (either divorced, separated or widowed) to take care of more children than those who are married, which impacts on their food security as there are fewer ‘breadwinners’ in the household.

Working age (26–59 years)

The majority of working age men and women are married or living together, although around 30 per cent of women are either divorced, separated or widowed. 82 per cent have not received secondary school education while only 2 per cent have an education level above that of secondary school. In fact, 45 per cent of working age refugees have never even entered primary school, rising to 52 per cent among women.

A key determinant of well-being is the number of children in a household. Approximately 32 per cent of households are single-headed carers of children and this category, along

³ Source: FSNA (2017)

with single pregnant women, were highlighted during the qualitative research as particularly vulnerable. The URVS found that working age single-headed households are struggling when measured against their levels of daily consumption and most single-headed households with children are living in extreme poverty with high rates of food insecurity.

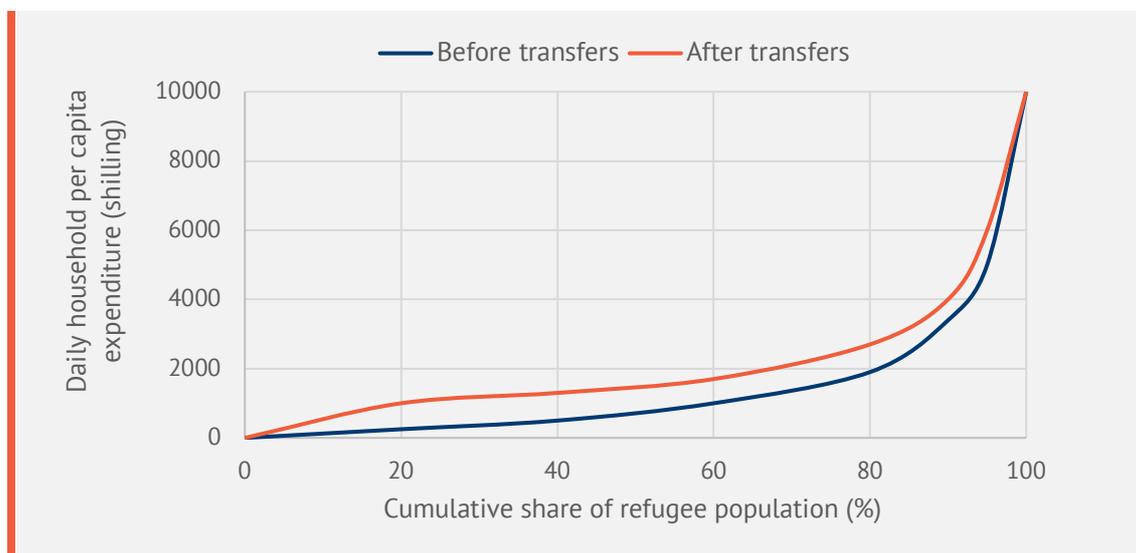
Older persons (60 years and above)

Older persons comprise four per cent of the refugee population and are found in 13 per cent of households. They are a very vulnerable category of refugees, disproportionately affected by poverty and homelessness as a result of a lack of support networks, poor health and disability. Many older persons, especially women, arrive in the settlements with young grandchildren whose parents are missing or deceased (27 per cent of older people live in skipped-generation households). The challenges are particularly severe for those that have not been classified as EVIs and are receiving reduced food assistance. Around 26 per cent of older persons reported being unable to work due to disability or chronic illness. For those living alone, the situation is dire with a high risk of food insecurity if they are taken off the food assistance.

Household expenditures

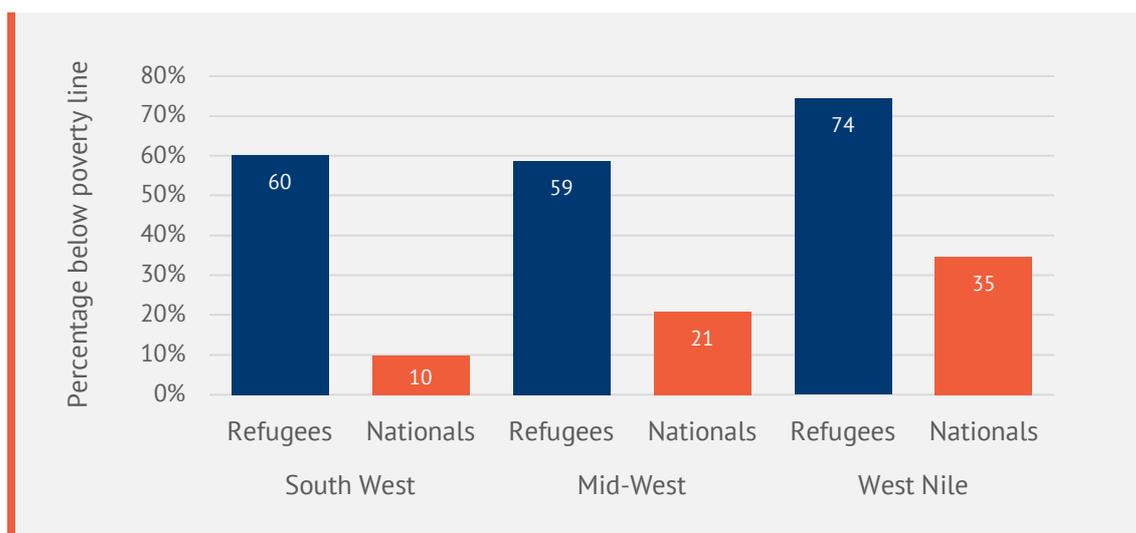
Most refugees are living in extreme poverty when wellbeing is measured by per capita expenditures. This finding was reflected in refugees' explanation of their own wellbeing during interviews. As shown by Figure ES4, more than 25 per cent of refugees live on less than UGX1,000 per day per person and 69 per cent on less than UGX2,000 per day per person. This corresponds to around US\$1.68 per day in Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) terms (US\$0.56 per day in actual dollars), which is below the internationally recognised extreme poverty line. A small number of refugees have household per capita expenditures above UGX5,000, which may indicate some form of 'self-reliance'. However, these expenditure figures take into account the food assistance transfer. When food assistance is discounted, the figures increase to 60 per cent of refugees living in households with daily per capita expenditures below UGX1,000 while 80 per cent of refugees live on less than UGX2,000 a day. The case of Nakivale is of particular concern when gauging the viability of the 'self-reliance' agenda, since there is a high prevalence of refugees living on very low incomes despite many having resided in Uganda for a long period of time.

Figure ES4: Distribution of household per capita expenditure among refugees in Uganda, after and before transfers⁴



In fact, refugees are much more likely to be living in poverty than the host populations even though they receive food assistance. Figure ES5 shows that close to 70 per cent of refugees overall are living below the national poverty line compared to 25 per cent of rural Ugandans. There are large variations in the levels of poverty among refugees across the three regions, ranging from 59 per cent in the Mid-West and 74 per cent in West Nile.

Figure ES5: Comparison of poverty status of refugee and national populations



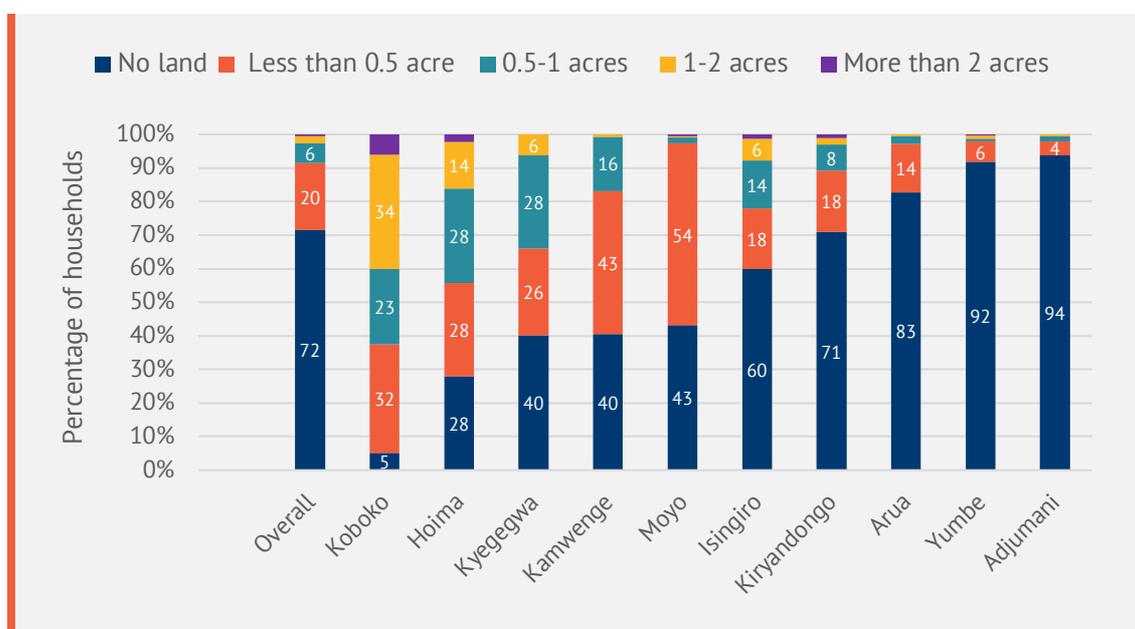
⁴ This assumes that all households consume all of the rations received. Caution needs to be taken with this result since many households did not know or refused to provide the amount of ration received. For households that received rations and did not give the total amount received we assumed the ration per member in the food or cash assistance card to be the same as the average in the primary sampling unit. The food ration is converted into Uganda shillings using the following conversion factor: 12kg = UGX 31,000.

Livelihoods and income sources

Agriculture

The scope for agriculture to be a viable livelihood option is limited, mainly due to the small proportion of refugees possessing sufficient land for cultivation. During the URVS, around 70 per cent of refugees reported not having sufficient land for cultivation, with only 9 per cent of refugee households reporting possession of more than half an acre and only 3 per cent more than one acre (Figure ES6). These findings are broadly in line with the latest FSNA survey (2017) and UNHCR’s 2016/17 livelihoods survey.

Figure ES6: Refugees’ access to cultivable land across settlements



The viability of agriculture varies significantly across settlements, with the majority of refugees in Lobule, Moyo, Kyangwali, Rwamwanja and Kyaka II settlements having access to at least some land for cultivation. On the contrary, more than 90 per cent of refugees in Bidibidi and Adjumani reported having no land for cultivation. Moreover, while some refugees have access to land, they do not have secure land use rights. Refugees also often find that the land they receive is not of adequate quality. Very few refugees have animals, even poultry. Only around a quarter of households who cultivate their land are able to sell some of their produce.

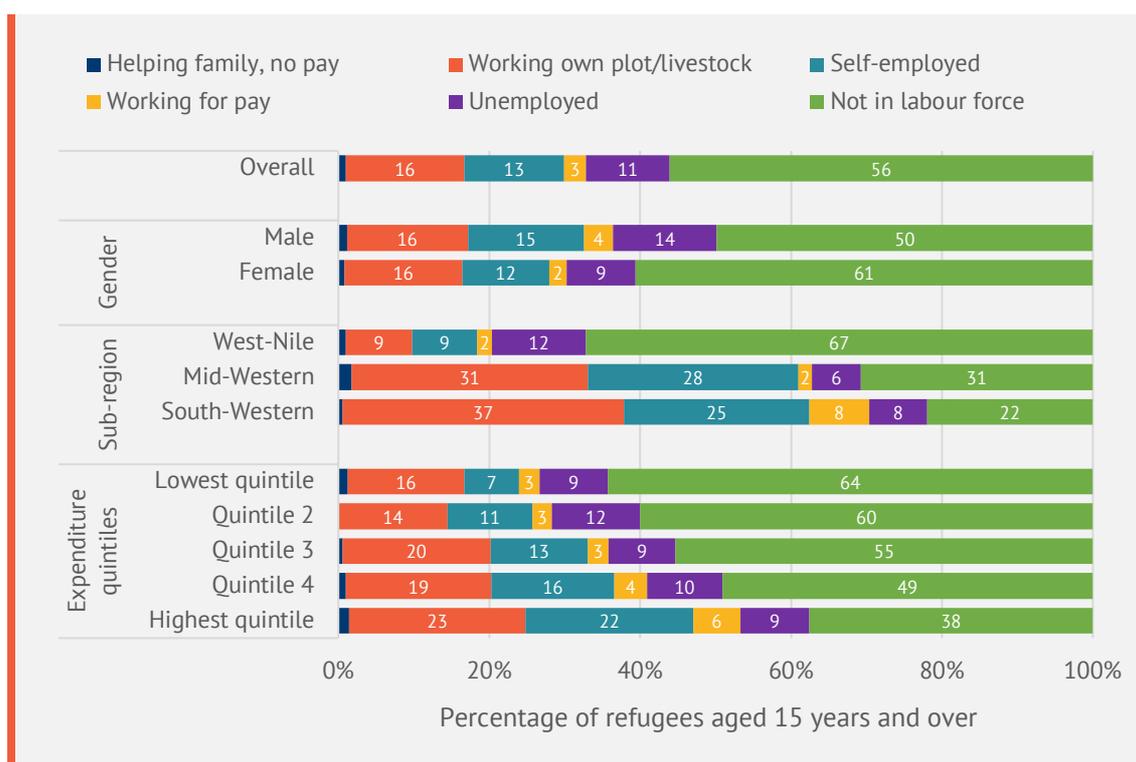
Both host communities and refugees are vulnerable to covariate shocks in the form of adverse weather events and crop diseases. Refugees with fertile cultivable land have faced problems in recent years due to prolonged drought and pests. Since the food assistance has not been designed to respond to shocks that refugees may face while in a

protracted situation in a host country, the transfer amounts and schedule remain the same irrespective of whether there is a subsequent emergency or not.

Other livelihood options

While agriculture is precarious, non-farm livelihood options are few. When attempting to earn an income from wage or self-employment, refugees face social, economic and procedural barriers (for example, a lack of documentation showing education and skills; language, social stigma). Figure ES7 shows that only three per cent of refugees in settlements have managed to obtain salaried employment. Instead, most engage in informal work on low wages. Overall, 13 per cent of refugees aged 15+ years are classified as self-employed and one in five households (20 per cent) have at least one household member engaged in informal trade and services.

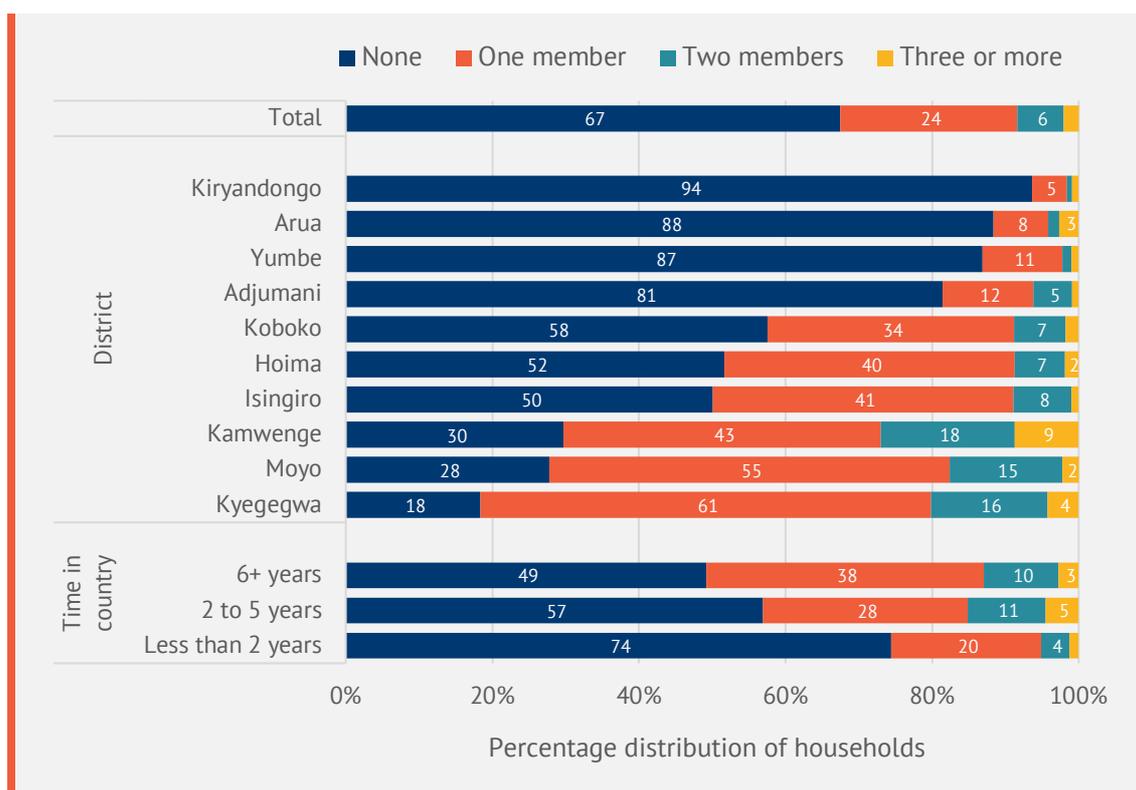
Figure ES7: Percentage of refugees of 15+ years across employment status and types of employment



Approximately 25 per cent of all refugee households stated that the sale of food assistance is their main source of income, although this is mainly in West Nile. In the Mid-Western region, the main sources of income are agricultural wage labour or the sale of crops while financial support from humanitarian agencies (mainly cash assistance from WFP), agricultural and other irregular wage labour are the main sources in the South-Western region. Overall, as Figure ES8 shows, two-thirds of refugee household had no

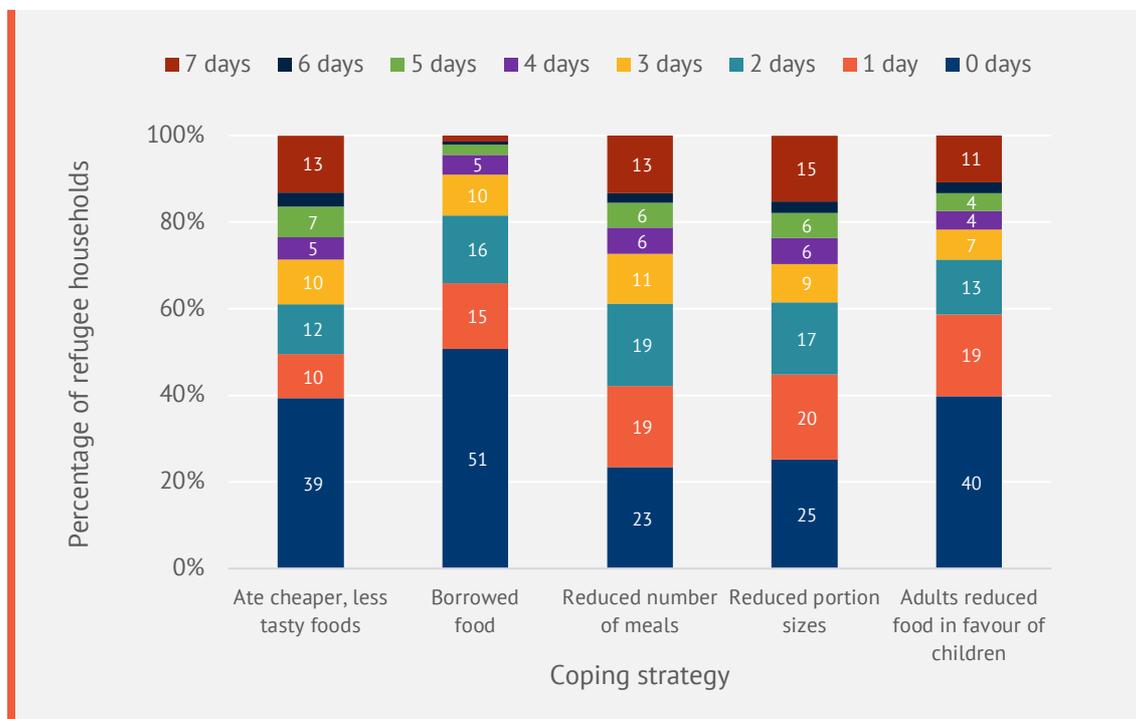
members earning cash income, a quarter (24 per cent) had one cash earner, and 5 per cent had two or more cash earners.

Figure ES8: Distribution of refugee households by number of household members earning cash income in month preceding the survey



In the context of income insecurity within which they are living, refugees use a range of other strategies to cover their requirements (see Figure ES9). One in three households reported receiving food from neighbours, relatives or friends when in need, while 20 per cent were supporting others with food or cash at the time of the interview. Overall, 24 per cent of households have debt or credit to repay. When rations run out, some older women resort to begging while there are examples of young women resorting to survival sex. Other refugees have to sell their assets, including Non-Food Items (NFIs) that are provided when refugees first arrive. Many refugees have left the settlements to find work while others receive remittances from relatives, including from their home countries.

Figure ES9: Distribution of refugee households by number of days that consumption-based coping strategies were used in the seven days preceding the survey



Food security outcomes

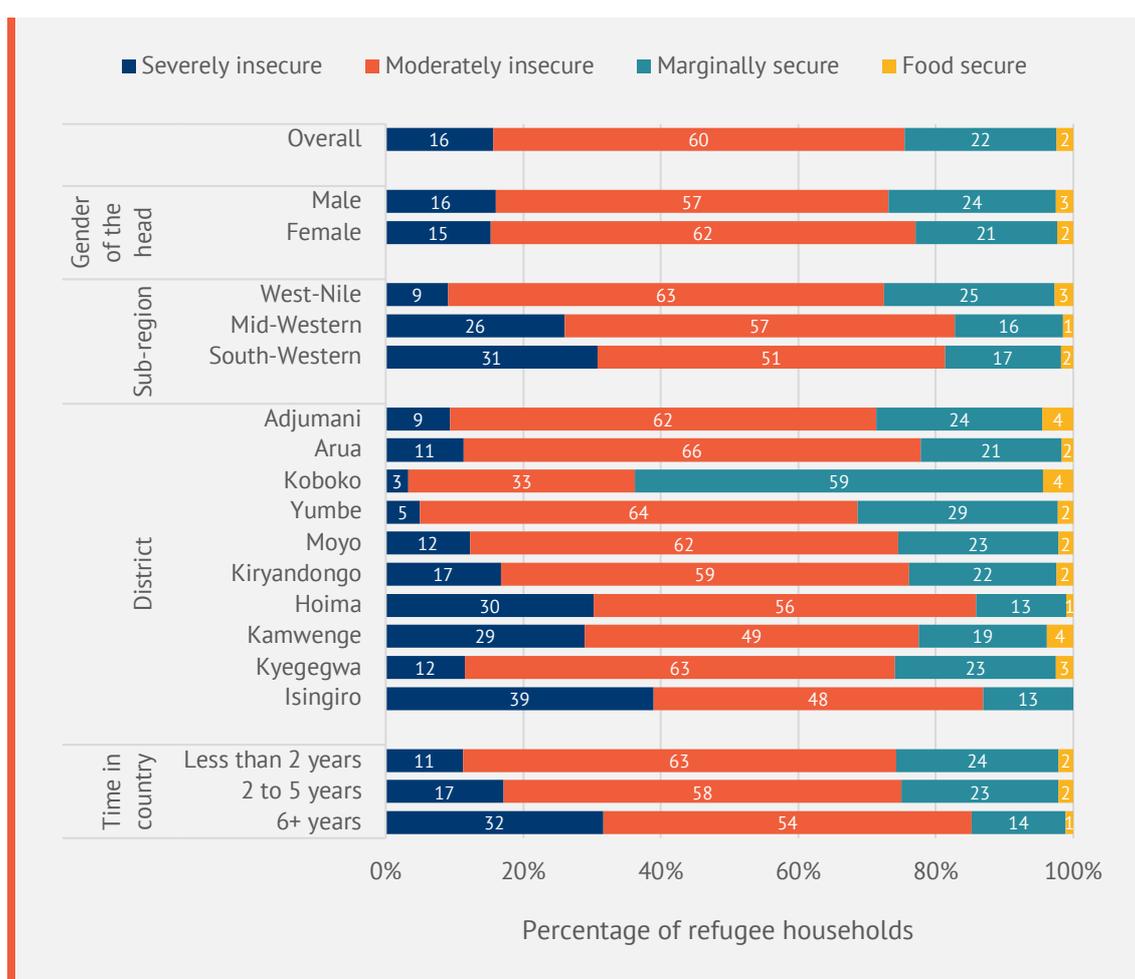
Description of food security

WFP uses the definition of food security which was developed at the World Food Summit in 1996, as: “Food security exists when all people, at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs, and food preferences for an active and healthy life.” This definition integrates the four main dimensions of food security – availability, access, utilisation, and stability. In this regard, WFP has developed a standardised approach for assessing and reporting on household food insecurity, using multiple indicators to capture different aspects of food security.

The URVS data has been collected on a range of complementary metrics to determine food security. Refugee households are explicitly classified into four groups – food secure, marginally food secure, and moderately and severely food insecure – by combining information about households’ *current consumption*, based on their food consumption score, with households’ *potential for sustaining that consumption into the future*, based on the food expenditure share and coping strategies index. This approach is broadly consistent with WFP’s Consolidated Approach to Reporting Indicators of Food Security (CARI) and the IPC Acute Food Insecurity Phase Classification.

As indicated by Figure ES10, 2 per cent of refugee households are classified as food secure, 22 per cent are marginally food secure, 60 per cent are moderately insecure while 16 per cent are severely insecure. There is significant geographical variation in the food security classification of households. For example, the prevalence of severe food insecurity ranges from 3 per cent in Koboko to 39 per cent in Nakivale (Isingiro). To a large extent, the overall patterns are driven by the higher-than-average levels of severe insecurity in three settlements – Kyangwali, Rwamwanja, Nakivale – at the time of the survey. This may have been due to the drought, the relatively low coverage of food assistance – in particular in Kyangwali – as well as reductions in the size of food assistance and operational pipeline challenges in the weeks and months leading up to the survey.

Figure ES10: Distribution of refugee households across food security classifications



Nearly nine in 10 households classified as being severely food insecure indicated that they recently contracted new debt or credit to repay. And, over 71 per cent (see Table ES2) of severely insecure households reported new debt in order to buy food. On the

other hand, households classified as food secure tend to obtain debt to pay for education-related costs and to cover health expenses.

Table ES2: Reasons for taking debt across food security classifications

Reason for contracting new debt	Food security classification			
	Food secure	Marginally secure	Moderately insecure	Severely insecure
To buy food	6.4	42.9	55.8	71.2
To cover health expenses	36.9	24.3	29.5	14.8
To pay school, education costs	40.6	18.6	7.1	4.3
To buy agricultural inputs (seeds, tools)	6.2	0.3	1.2	3.1
To buy clothes, shoes	0.0	4.5	0.6	1.1
To buy animals	0.0	2.8	1.2	0.6
Other reasons	9.9	6.6	4.6	4.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Reporting of debt only in the last six months prior to the survey

Factors affecting food security outcomes

Demographic factors and household composition play an important role in shaping the risk of food insecurity. Households with more children and older persons have significantly higher odds of being severely food insecure and lower odds of being classified as food secure. Disability and food security are also interlinked: the odds of being food insecure are 3.2 times larger for a household with a profoundly disabled member than the odds for a household without a disabled member. Gender has an influence on households' food security status, although the statistical significance is not very strong.

Other important factors influencing food security outcomes include the educational attainment of the head of the household and economic well-being, measured by households' level of expenditure before receiving the food assistance (pre-transfer). The access to agricultural land is also related to food security outcomes, although the plot needs to be large to have a sizeable influence. There are indications to suggest that employment status of the head and the main source of cash income play a role in determining food security outcomes, although the statistical significance weakens after controlling for the influence of other variables.

Households that have been the longest in the country are not necessarily performing better in terms of food security outcomes, thereby indicating that the passage of time is not a determining factor for refugees becoming more food secure or 'self-reliant.' In fact, the prevalence of severe food insecurity is three times higher among refugee households who have been in Uganda for 6 or more years compared to those who arrived in the last two years, although the effect largely disappears when controlling for the influence of

other factors. This finding has important implications for the appropriateness of the targeted food assistance mechanism that was being used in 2017, in which the amount of food assistance received is in inverse proportion to the length of time the refugee household has spent in the host country.

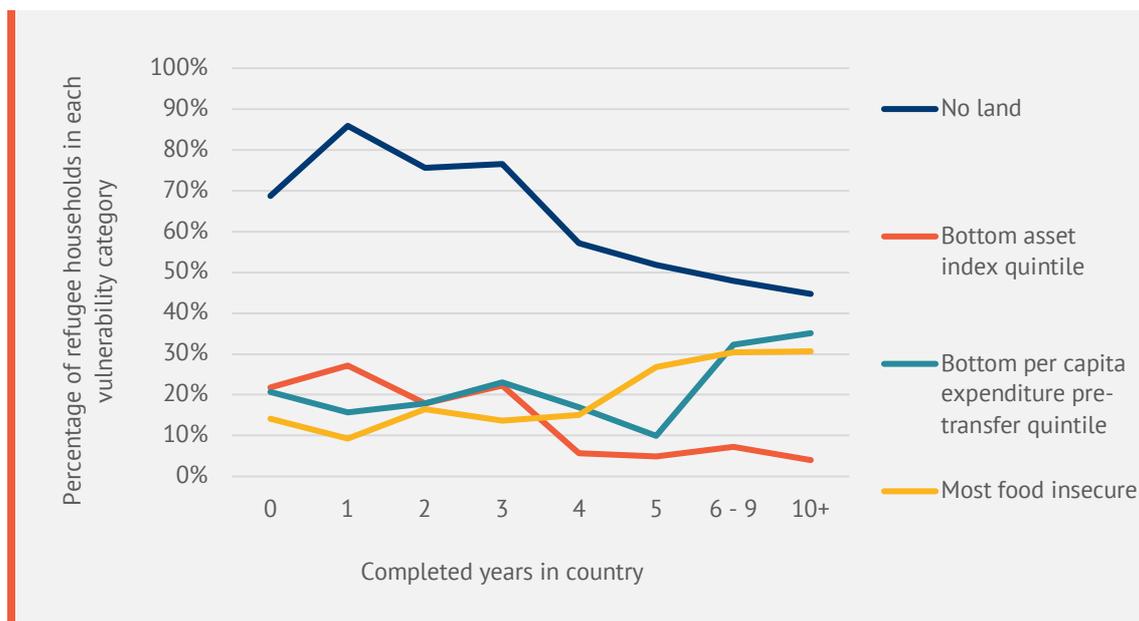
The qualitative research findings provide support for the findings on food security from the URVS data. Refugees consistently claim that their primary challenge is the lack of access to sufficient food, with many reporting having to reduce meals by the end of the month, or face hunger. Indeed, many refugees receiving full rations reported regularly experiencing hunger while many of those receiving reduced rations or no assistance were found to be severely food insecure.

Performance of the current targeting mechanism for food assistance

Effectiveness of targeted food assistance by date of arrival

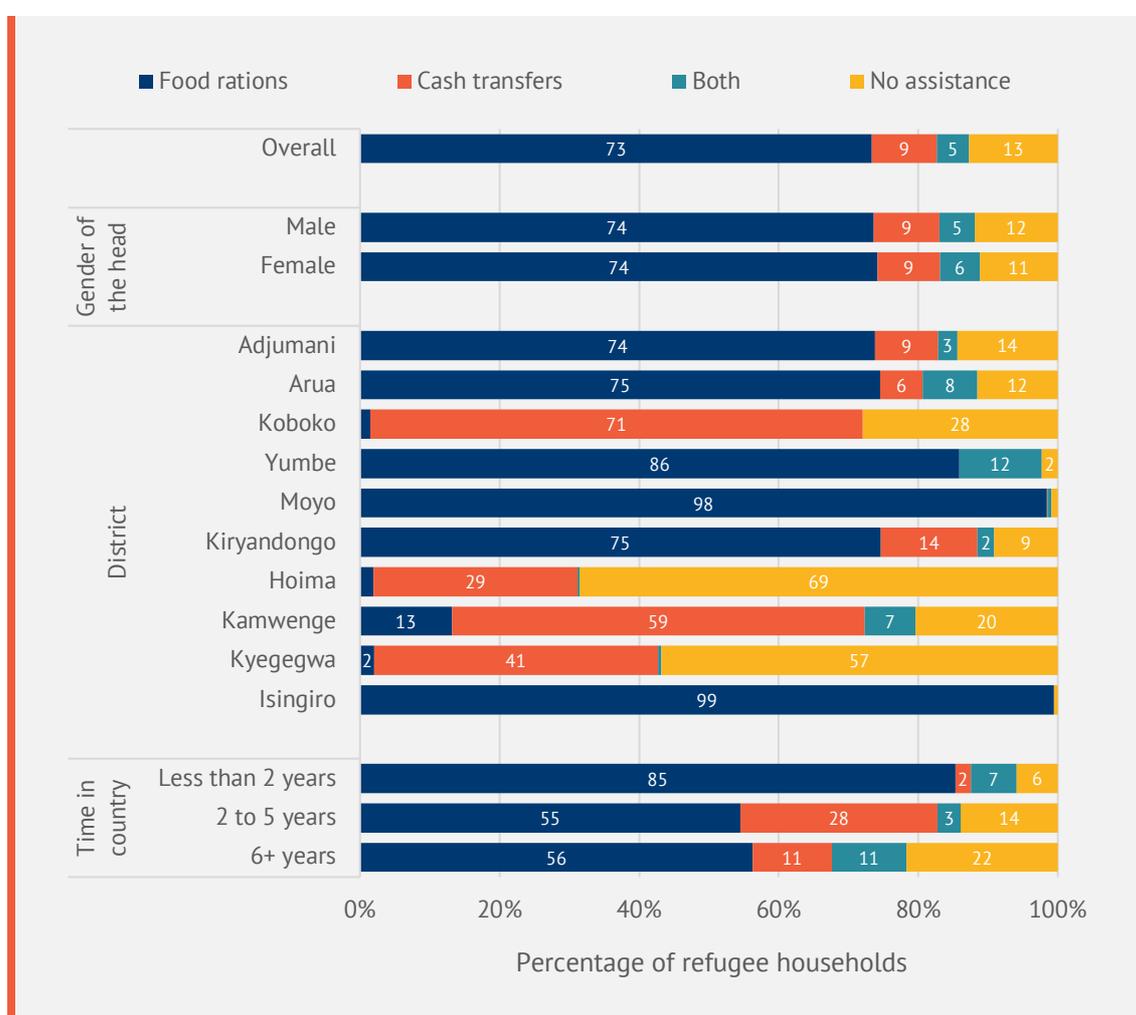
At the time of the study in 2017, all refugees entering Uganda were expected to receive full food assistance for a period of approximately three years. After three years, WFP targeted food assistance based on a mix of criteria linked to time spent in the host country, and vulnerability. As indicated earlier, there are no systematic trends in vulnerability depending on date of arrival in Uganda to justify the targeted food assistance system used in 2017 (see Figure ES11).

Figure ES11: Vulnerability indicators by years in country



Almost 90 per cent of refugee households were receiving some form of food assistance in 2017, with in-kind transfers most common (Figure ES12). At the time of the survey, 73 per cent were benefiting from in-kind food assistance, while 9 and 5 per cent were benefiting respectively from cash only and both cash and food. However, the proportion of households receiving assistance varied significantly across the settlements. Among those not receiving food assistance, 28 per cent had only recently arrived in Uganda and it is possible that some were still waiting to receive their first ration. Around 25 per cent of households not receiving any assistance had arrived more than 6 years ago.

Figure ES12: Distribution of refugee households across type of food assistance



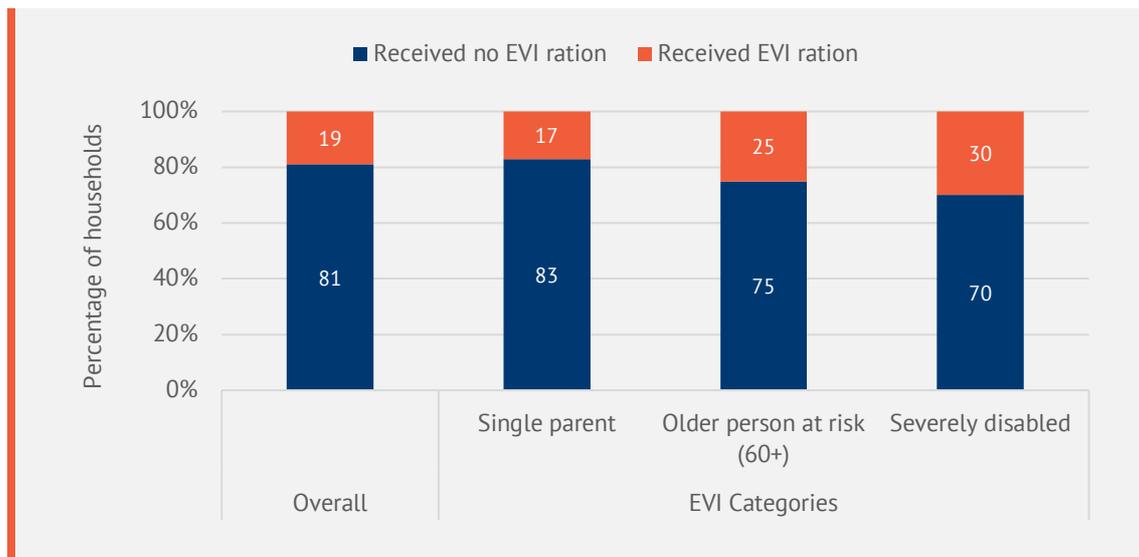
Yet, there were many refugees that had arrived in the previous two years who claimed to not be receiving full rations: approximately 30 per cent reported receiving less than 70 per cent of the full ration, while only about 40 per cent of refugees in the survey reported receiving a full ration. Refugees that have been in Uganda for more than 5 years, on average, received a lower amount of food assistance (either food or cash) than those who

had been the country for less than 5 years. Overall, 34 per cent of refugee households who had been in Uganda for more than 6 years reported receiving rations.

The criteria of extreme vulnerability

To a large extent, targeting based on the criteria of ‘Extreme Vulnerability’ is relatively arbitrary. This seems to be supported by WFP administrative data, which showed that the proportion of refugees receiving EVI/H rations varied from just 2 per cent in Nakivale to 25 per cent in Adjumani. Analysis of the UVRS dataset indicated that 71 per cent of refugees receiving the EVI/H rations did not meet the EVI/H criteria while only 19 per cent of refugees meeting the EVI/H criteria received an EVI/H ration in practice. Therefore, the exclusion error with the EVI/H targeted food assistance mechanism was as high as 81 per cent (Figure ES13).

Figure ES13: Percentage of eligible EVI/H households correctly and incorrectly targeted for EVI/H rations

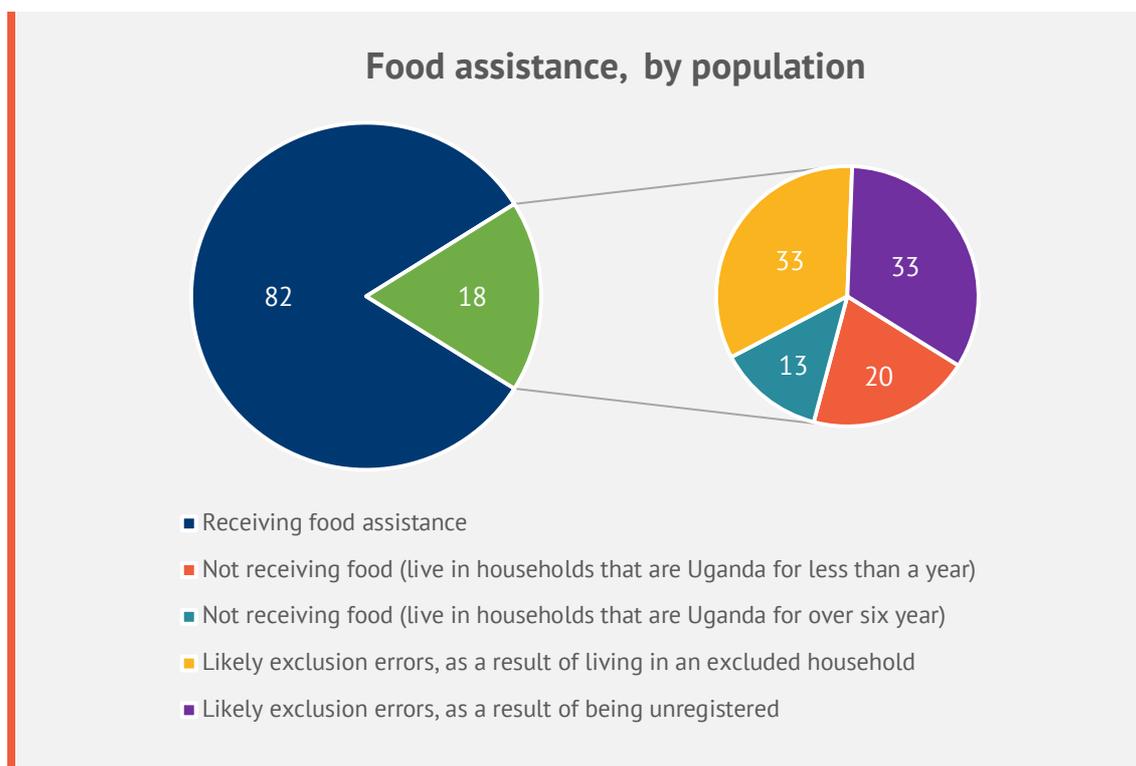


Refugee registration issues

The exclusion errors in refugee selection for food assistance appear to be, very often, due to challenges with the refugee registration process. As Figure ES14 shows, around 18 per cent of households had members who were not registered and, therefore, were excluded from food assistance. The proportion of households with unregistered members varied widely between settlements: from only 5 per cent in Kiryandongo to 38 per cent in Kyangwali. Overall, it is estimated that while 18 per cent of refugees were not receiving food assistance, 6 per cent may have been excluded either because they had recently arrived and were waiting to be registered or receive their first ration, or because they had been in Uganda for long enough to have been excluded in line with WFP’s selection

criteria. However, the remaining 12 per cent of refugees were likely to have been erroneously excluded from food assistance.

Figure ES14: Individuals excluded from food assistance



Additional approaches to delivery of food assistance

There are further issues linked to the selection and design of food assistance that should be examined. This includes the need to provide additional support to **foster parents**. Another important issue to consider is whether to make the food assistance system **shock-responsive**. This would entail, in response to covariate shocks such as droughts, being able to either increase benefit levels to existing beneficiaries (vertical expansion) or expand the number of beneficiaries (horizontal expansion). Finally, **school feeding** should be considered as an option for delivering food assistance to school-age children.

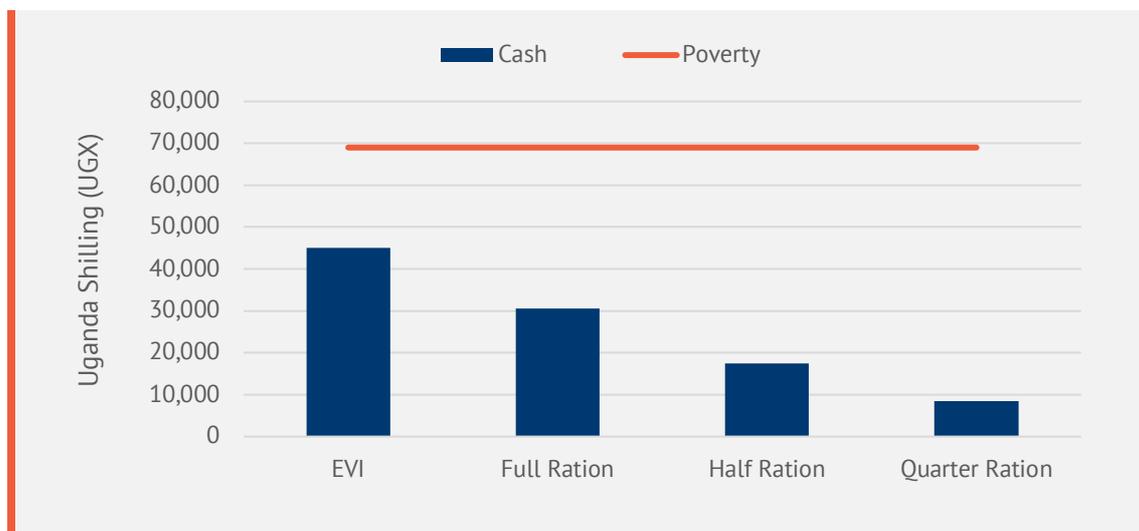
Adequacy, value and purpose of food assistance transfers

Most respondents, including those receiving full rations, stated during the qualitative research that the food assistance was insufficient to meet their basic needs. In the quantitative survey, around 36 per cent of households in country for less than 2 years reported that the food provided by WFP lasted for only up to two weeks, while only a little more than 10 per cent reported that the food lasted the whole month (30 days and

over). So, for 90 per cent of households, the food assistance amount must be considered inadequate.

This inadequacy is partly due to refugees having basic needs to address other than food. The importance of addressing these needs is seen in the extensive sale of food assistance which enable refugees to purchase other goods (including more nutritious food while also covering the cost of milling grains received from WFP). Among refugees that had been in Uganda for less than 2 years and received full rations, approximately 34 per cent of total expenditure was on non-food items and much must have been derived from the sale of food assistance. Therefore, the capacity of the food assistance to offer food security is effectively reduced when these additional non-food needs of refugees are not addressed. In fact, the transfers values (Figure ES15) – in cash equivalents – are well below the international extreme poverty line of USD 1.90 per day. In the absence of other sources of cash income for the majority of refugees, and limited in-kind support, this is an important indication of the unmet needs of most refugees.

Figure ES15: Cash transfer values compared with the international extreme poverty line



One option for addressing this challenge is for WFP, UNHCR and partners to re-think the purpose of the food assistance transfers so that they become a transfer covering both food security and additional basic needs. This would require increasing the value of the transfers. However, even if the value of the transfers is not increased, food assistance offered in the first three years should include, at a minimum, a cash component.

The future of refugees in Uganda and the goal of self-reliance

Given the challenges facing the self-reliance agenda in Uganda resulting from limited access to cultivable land and income opportunities for refugees, there is a need to re-think the current approaches to supporting refugees. The provision of food assistance –

which is only available to those in settlements – discourages refugees from moving out of settlements, thereby undermining the self-reliance agenda. The approach to food assistance should be reviewed with the aim of designing a system that better supports access to employment and income generation, including stimulating the development of local markets and encouraging refugees to leave the settlements. Refugees will need more support from the international community to access land, skills development and employment opportunities, with food assistance understood as a key tool for enabling refugees to engage more effectively in the labour market. Finally, assistance to refugees that have been in Uganda for longer periods needs to eventually be incorporated within an expanded national social protection system (which, at present, does not exist).

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Acronyms

AAH	Action Africa Help International
AFOD	Action for Development
AIRD	African Initiatives for Relief and Development
AHA	African Humanitarian Aid
ARC	American Refugee Council
ARV	Anti-retro Viral
BTVET	Business, Technical and Vocational Education and Training
CAO	Chief Administrative Officer
CDO	Community Development Office
CDP	Cash Distribution Point
CMC	Cash Management Committee
CTA	Community Technology Access
DCA	Danish Church Aid
DR Congo	Democratic Republic of Congo
DRC	Danish Refugee Council
ECD	Early Child Development
ECS	Electronic Cash Transfer
EMCTC	Elimination of Mother to Child Transmission
EPI	Expanded Programme for Immunization
EVI	Extremely Vulnerable Individual
EVH	Extremely Vulnerable Household
FDP	Food Distribution Point
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FMC	Food Management Committee
GDP	General Distribution Point
GoU	Government of Uganda
HIJRA	Humanitarian Initiative Just Relief Aid
IP	Implementing Partner
IRC	International Rescue Committee
KII	Key Informant Interview
LWF	Lutheran World Federation
MSF	Médecins Sans Frontières
OPM	Office of the Prime Minister
OT	Operating Theatre
PRS	Protracted Refugee Situation
PSN	Person with Special Needs

Acronyms

PTSD	Post-traumatic Stress Disorder
REC	Refugee Eligibility Committee
ReHOPE	Refugee and Host Population Empowerment
RIMS	Refugee Information Management System
RWC	Refugee Welfare Council
SGBV	Sexual and Gender-Based Violence
SP	Samaritan's Purse
SSI	Semi –structured Interview
STI	Sexually Transmitted Infections
UAM	Unaccompanied Minors
UGX	Ugandan Shilling
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UPE	Universal Primary Education
URVS	Uganda Refugee Vulnerability Survey
VAWG	Violence Against Women and Girls
VSLA	Voluntary Savings and Lending Groups
WASH	Water, Sanitation and Hygiene
WFP	World Food Programme
WV	World Vision

Glossary

Asylum seeker	An asylum-seeker is someone whose request for sanctuary has yet to be processed.
Cash-based interventions (CBIs)	All interventions in which cash or vouchers for goods or services are provided to refugees and other persons of concern on an individual or community basis. It does not include cash or vouchers provided to governments or other state actors or payments to humanitarian workers or service providers. The term can be used interchangeably with Cash Based Transfers and Cash Transfer Programming.
Development Assistance for Refugee-Hosting Areas (DAR)	In 2004, the Government of Uganda's Self-Reliance Strategy (SRS) was replaced by the Development Assistance for Refugee-Hosting Areas (DAR) programme which largely maintained the focus of the SRS.
Encampment	Encampment can be defined as any refugee set-up that entails a definitive area for administration by humanitarian agencies, and the existence of a physical or symbolic boundary around an area settled by refugees.
Extremely Vulnerable Individuals/Households (EVI/H)	Category of vulnerable individuals/households employed by WFP to identify people for preferential access to food assistance. Includes the categories of: unaccompanied or separated children; people with disabilities; older persons at risk; people suffering from important medical conditions; and, single parents.
Food Transfers	Food, usually a basket of different basic food items, provided either to individuals, families or households.
Food Assistance	Aid provided with the purpose of ensuring access to food, either in the form of Food Transfers or Cash-based interventions.
Internally Displaced People (IDPs)	Refugees who have not crossed international borders.

Migrant	Migrants are people who choose to move not because of a direct threat of persecution or death, but mainly to improve their lives.
Multi-purpose grants (MPGs)	Regular or one-off cash transfers to a household to cover, fully or partially, a set of basic and/or recovery needs that span across different sectors (for instance shelter, food, education and livelihoods) and support protection and solutions outcomes.
Non-Food Items (NFI)	Items other than food.
Persons with Special Needs (PSN)	UNHCR category of vulnerability, utilizing a broad range of categories of vulnerability including: children at risk; unaccompanied or separated children; women at risk; older persons at risk; single parents or caregivers; people with disabilities; people with serious medical conditions; people separated from their families; people in need of specific legal and physical protection needs; people who have been subjected to torture; and, people who have been subjected to sexual or gender based violence.
Prima facie refugees	National asylum systems are in place to determine who qualifies for international protection. However, during mass movements of refugees, usually as a result of conflict or violence, it is not always possible or necessary to conduct individual interviews with every asylum seeker who crosses a border to determine their refugee status. These groups are often called 'prima facie' refugees. In Uganda many refugees from South Sudan are now being accepted as prima facie refugees.
Protracted Refugee Situation (PRS)	A protracted refugee situation is one in which refugees find themselves in a long-standing and intractable state of limbo. Their lives may not be at risk, but their basic rights and essential economic, social and psychological needs remain unfulfilled after years in exile.
Refugee	A refugee is a displaced person who has been forced to cross national boundaries and who cannot return home safely and has been granted refugee status by a state or the UNHCR.

Refugee camp	A temporary settlement built to receive asylum seekers, refugees and people in refugee-like situations. In Uganda, the term refugee camp is generally not used.
Refugee settlement	In Uganda the preferred term for a refugee camp is refugee settlement, since refugees are not confined to the camps/settlements but are allowed to move outside. Most settlements in Uganda are administratively divided into Zones, with the settlements in Adjumani district a notable exception.
Self-reliance	UNHCR defines self-reliance as ‘the social and economic ability of an individual, a household or a community to meet essential needs (including protection, food, water, shelter, personal safety, health and education) in a sustainable manner and with dignity.’ Self-reliance as a programme approach refers to developing and strengthening the livelihoods of persons of concern, and reducing their vulnerability and long-term reliance on humanitarian/external assistance (UNHCR Handbook on Self-Reliance, Geneva, 2006)
Self-Reliance Strategy	The Government of Uganda’s 1999 Self-Reliance Strategy (SRS) aimed to move support for refugees from a strategy based on relief to a long-term development strategy. It implied that refugees would receive, upon arrival, a set of non-food items, a plot of land as well as seeds and food rations for two to four seasons, after which people were supposed to be self-reliant, in other words, not relying on food assistance.
Self-settlement	Self-settlement refers to refugees who choose to settle in the host country outside of the national asylum system and any encampment system.
Settlement Transformative Agenda (STA)	The STA is a refugee-specific strategy included in the Government of Uganda’s National Development Plan II. The STA is led by the OPM’s Refugee Department and aims to foster sustainable livelihoods for refugees and host communities.
Sexual and Gender Based Violence (SGBV)	Any act of violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to persons on the basis of their sex or gender, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty whether occurring in public or private life.

Social Protection (SP)	Refers to a regular transfer, in cash or in-kind, to provide income security. Includes lifecycle schemes, household transfers (unconditional and conditional) and workfare programmes.
Uganda Refugee Vulnerability Survey (URVS)	The household survey carried out as part of the present research project by Development Pathways on behalf of WFP.

1 Introduction

Uganda has a long history of hosting refugee populations. In 2017, Uganda was hosting about 1.38 million refugees with almost 1 million having arrived from South Sudan.⁵ At the time of this study, the situation was developing rapidly: a total of 282,046 refugees from South Sudan arrived in Uganda between the 1st January and 7th June 2017.⁶ The number of refugees found in each district and settlement is outlined in Table 1.

Table 1: Number of refugees in each district and settlement (October 2, 2017)⁷

Region	District	Settlement	Population
West Nile	Arua	Rhino Camp	223,100
		Imvepi	
	Koboko	Lobule	285,014
	Yumbe	Bidibidi	
	Adjumani	Various	239,335
	Moyo	Palorinya	184,701
	Lamwo	Palabek	35,535
Mid-West	Kiryandongo	Kiryandongo	56,855
	Hoima	Kyangwali	48,543
South Western	Kamwenge	Rwamwanja	74,451
		Kyegegwa	Kyaka II
	Isingiro	Nakivale	100,560 ⁸
		Oruchinga	5,787
Kampala	Kampala	-	99,962
Total			1,380,467

Uganda has a progressive refugee policy (see Annex 2 for more detail and information on its evolution). Refugees are placed in settlements rather than camps, with the right to move in and out. As a result of the Refugee Act of 2006, they have the right to work and own a business, travel around the country, integrate into host communities and have equal access to social services, such as primary school education and health care (Center for Global Development, 2017). This means that refugees can benefit from the services provided by local authorities while host communities can also benefit from services for refugees funded by humanitarian aid.

⁵ Data from <https://ugandarefugees.org/>, valid as of September 17, 2017.

⁶ Inter-Agency Operational Update on the South Sudan response, June 2017.

⁷ Source: OPM RIMS per October 2, 2017, includes asylum seekers and population in transit and reception centres. There is no data on the number of refugees living outside settlements, except for those in Kampala.

⁸ According to the publicly available data from the OPM RIMS, the population of Nakivale was 124,842 until the re-verification in May 2017, after which the number dropped to 95,576.

Land should be allocated to each refugee household to facilitate their economic independence through agriculture (Omata & Kaplan, 2013; Center for Global Development, 2017). They also receive seeds, a set of non-food items (including cooking utensils, housing materials and basic agricultural implements) and food assistance. All refugees receive food assistance upon arrival but, in some settlements, they are later transferred to cash, either automatically or by choice.

The system for selecting refugees for food assistance that was in existence at the time of the study in 2017 is outlined in Table 2, alongside the amounts that people should have received. Food assistance had been reduced on two occasions, in 2012 and 2015, both times in line with the time of arrival of refugees in Uganda. In addition to these reductions, in August 2016, a lack of resources meant that WFP was obliged to reduce the rations of people arriving before July 2015 by 50 per cent. The only people exempted from these reductions were those classified as Extremely Vulnerable Individuals (EVIs) within EVH households.

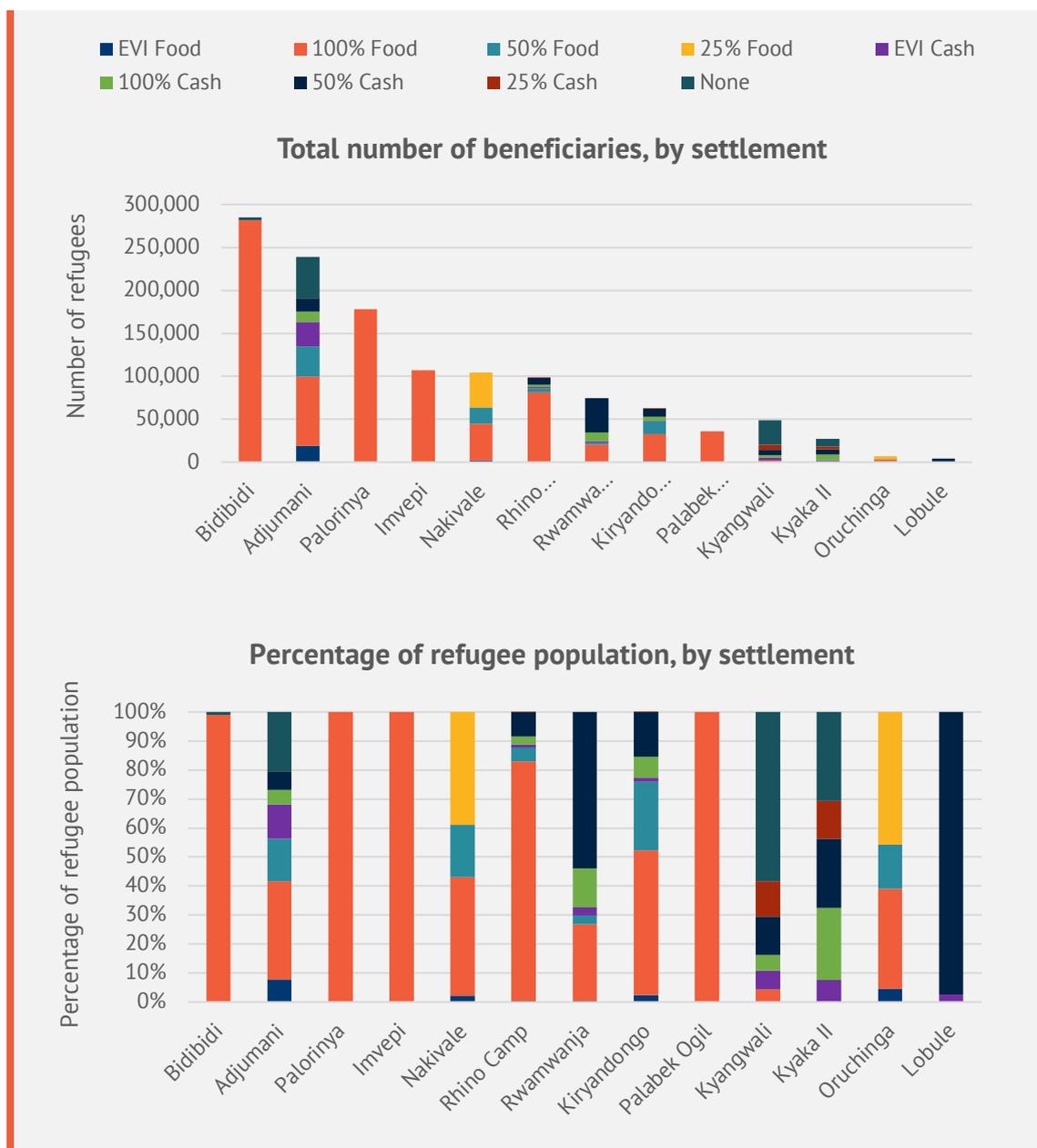
Table 2: Food rations and cash amounts for different categories of refugee⁹

Target group	Eligibility criteria	Food	kg	Cash (UGX)
EVI	Vulnerability assessment (see Section 4)	Cereal (in flour)	11.7	45,000
		Pulses/MG	2.4	
		Pulses/MM	2.1	
		Veg Oil	0.9	
		CSB (Corn-Soy Blend)	1.5	
		Salt	0.15	
Asylum seekers (100% food assistance)	Registered as asylum seeker	Cereal	12	N/A
		Pulses/MG	2.4	
		Pulses/MM	2.1	
		Veg Oil	0.9	
		CSB (Corn-Soy Blend)	1.5	
New Case New (100%)	Registered with arrival date after July 2015	Cereal	12	31,000
		Pulses/MG	2.4	
		Pulses/MM	2.1	
		Veg Oil	0.9	
		CSB (Corn-Soy Blend)	1.5	
New Case Old (50%)	Registered with arrival date between July 2012 and June 2015	Cereal	6	17,000
		Pulses/MG	1.2	
		Veg Oil	0.45	
		CSB (Corn-Soy Blend)	1.5	
Old Case (25%)	Registered with arrival date before June 2012	Cereal	3	8,500
		Pulses/MG	0.6	
		Veg Oil	0.45	
		CSB (Corn-Soy Blend)	0.75	
No entitlement	Registered with arrival date before June 2012			

⁹Source: Information from WFP and implementing partners.

The number of recipients of different types of food assistance is outlined in Figure 1. Overall, according to the administrative data of 2017, 75.7 per cent of refugees in settlements were on full rations (including EVIs), 13.1 per cent on half rations and 4.2 per cent on quarter rations. Within the settlements, 7 per cent of refugees received no support. In addition, there were 99,962 refugees in Kampala not receiving any support.¹⁰

Figure 1: Type of food assistance received across each settlement (Cycle 8, 2017)



¹⁰ These percentages have been calculated on the basis of the total number of WFP beneficiaries plus those not receiving support, so that it sums to 100 per cent. In some settlements there are more WFP beneficiaries than the official population according to OPM, so the figures would be slightly different if the OPM population figures were used as the basis for the percentages.

The large influx of refugees into Uganda is straining the resources of the humanitarian system and it has been challenging for WFP to obtain sufficient support from donors to cover all food assistance needs. Furthermore, while there is a policy that all refugees – apart from EVI/Hs – should become self-reliant and gradually move off food assistance, it has become evident that many of those on reduced amounts of food assistance – or none – are still far from self-reliant.

Box 1: Uganda Comprehensive Refugee Response Plan 2017

The Uganda Comprehensive Refugee Response Plan 2017 predicted a total number of refugees in the country of almost 1.5 million by the end of 2017, with an expected influx in 2017 of 520,000. The total required funds for 2017 have been estimated at US\$960.17 million. Food Assistance is the sector with the largest funding needs across the refugee population, with a total estimated need for 2017 of US\$187.6 million. The need for Food Assistance is predicted to be especially large among the South Sudanese refugee population (21.4 per cent of funding needs), while it makes up a minor part of the funding needs of Burundian refugees (9 per cent) and those from the DRC (16.4 per cent).¹¹ The Resource Situation report by WFP from 6th July 2017 puts the total operational requirements for food assistance between 1st January 2016 and 31st December 2018 at US\$380.41 million. The total value of needs that are funded was US\$209.9 million as per 6th July 2017 (55.2%), leaving a funding shortfall of US\$ 170.49 million.¹²

There is, therefore, a need to re-think the current selection mechanisms for food assistance. This, of course, needs to be linked to considerations on the long-term future of refugees in Uganda and the viability of the policy of self-reliance. Nonetheless, WFP believes that, in a context of limited resources, it is imperative that selection mechanisms for food assistance ensure that those most in need – or the most vulnerable – are prioritised.

As a result, Development Pathways was commissioned to carry out research to build an understanding of vulnerability among the refugee population in Uganda. The specific objective of the study were: *‘to fill knowledge gaps regarding the level, nature and differences of vulnerability to food insecurity that are found in all the refugee settlements in Mid-West, West Nile and South-Western Uganda.’* The full terms of reference for the assignment are set out in Annex 1 and the specific questions that were to be answered by the study are outlined in Box 2.

¹¹ UNHCR: Uganda Comprehensive Refugee Response Plan 2017 – Humanitarian Needs and Requirements.

¹² http://one.wfp.org/operations/current_operations/ResUpdates/200852.pdf?_ga=2.160303997.11662640.1499509123-1961204911.1491823428

Box 2: Specific questions to be answered by the study

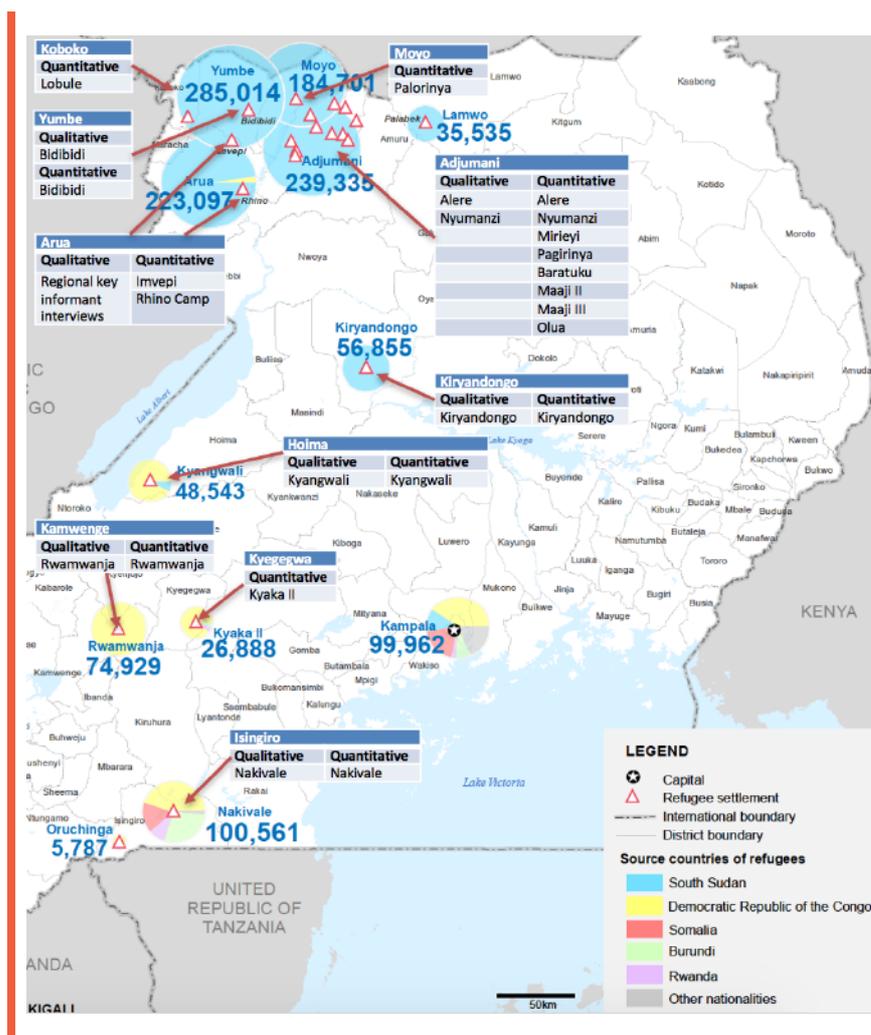
- How do refugees define 'vulnerability' and how applicable is their understanding of vulnerability to food assistance targeting?
- What type and proportion of households are currently partly supporting themselves?
- What type of livelihood activities are refugee households engaging in and which of those are sustainable?
- What additional services are available to people which can help address food insecurity and undernutrition?
- What are the gender and diversity (disability, age, widows etc.) dynamics of the households and communities and how are these diversities positively or negatively affecting livelihoods?
- Are there seasonal aspects around the livelihood activities and vulnerability in Mid-West, West Nile and South-Western Uganda?
- What type and proportion of humanitarian assistance could some households cover from their own resources?
- How effective is the current targeting mechanism for food assistance?

This report is the outcome of a comprehensive study incorporating a review of the relevant literature, qualitative research in six settlements and a household survey of 5,000 households in ten settlements. It was carried out between April and December 2017. The qualitative research was undertaken in July 2017 and the quantitative survey between the end of September and the beginning of October 2017.

2 Methodology

The methodology for the research comprised a number of approaches: a literature review; analysis of secondary data; qualitative research in refugee communities; and, a comprehensive household survey. During the research, quantitative data was collected in a total of 18 settlements across ten districts, with qualitative research carried out in six of these settlements across six districts. Figure 2 shows the settlements visited for each component of the research. Overall, the study attempted to build a representative picture of the refugee population across Uganda, examining a range of settlements incorporating differences such as location, nationality and length of time in Uganda. The following sections discuss each component of the methodology in more detail.

Figure 2: Locations of qualitative and quantitative research sites¹³



¹³ Source: Refugees and Asylum Seekers in Uganda as of October 1st 2017, UNHCR and OPM, <https://ugandarefugees.org>

2.1 Literature review

As an initial step, a comprehensive literature review was undertaken. This included building an understanding of:

- a) Vulnerability in refugee areas in Uganda;
- b) The situation and context of refugees in Uganda;
- c) Government and development partner policies and processes; and,
- d) International experiences with the targeting of refugees for humanitarian assistance.

The literature review included both quantitative and qualitative studies, reviewing both academic studies as well as grey literature. In total, 71 documents were reviewed of which 40 documents contributed valuable information to the literature review.

2.2 Analysis of secondary data

During the inception period, existing data on refugees and their host communities was compiled to complement the literature and document review. The main data sources included: the *Refugees Information Management System (RIMS)* on the refugee population in Uganda by settlement, age and gender; *WFP beneficiary data* by food distribution points, beneficiary category and type of benefits; and, data from *WFP Food Security Nutrition Assessments (FSNA) 2017 and 2016* as well as UNHCR's *Livelihoods Socio-Economic Assessment in the Refugee Hosting Districts (LSEA) 2016*. Analysis on expenditures and disability in Uganda was carried out using the *Uganda National Household Survey 2009-10*.

Box 3: Assessment of the FSNA 2017 and the LSEA 2016

In order to compare our survey with other recent surveys of refugees and to study trends, the FSNA 2017 and the LSEA 2016 were analysed using primary data. Unfortunately, differences in the tools used and the sampling methodologies adopted made comparisons across different indicators a little problematic.

Nonetheless, most general trends were aligned across the surveys. However, some point estimates were significantly different, often in specific sub-populations. This was particularly surprising in the case of the FSNA 2017 since the data was collected practically at the same time as our survey.

Part of the difference can simply be chance: depending on the households selected randomly for a survey, their response might be different than their neighbours. However, it was not possible to ascertain the sampling strategy for either the FSNA 2017 or the LSEA 2016. In the survey for this study, the enumerators went to different sites within the camps, as it was assumed that people living very close to the entrance are more likely to have lived in Uganda for a longer period of time and hence might have different characteristics (for further information, see *Section 2.4 on Quantitative Research*).

When delving deeper into the data some patterns were found that seem to suggest that the samples in the FSNA and LSEA might be biased. In the UNHCR data set, there were some instances of strange population patterns. In Kiryandongo, there were 21 Kenyan households, which made up nearly 18 per cent of all refugee respondents in that district yet the actual share of Kenyans was only around 2 per cent, according to RIMS data). This suggests that several enumerators – or one enumerator for several days – only went to one spot in the Kiryandongo camp, which would have reduced the representativity of the sample. With the FSNA 2017, there were no immediate obvious similar problems. However, 17 per cent of refugees did not mention their nationality, in spite of that being one of the first questions asked. There were also no weights in either dataset. While that may be simply due to the weights not (yet) being added to the original data set, weights are crucial in producing estimates that are representative for the entire refugee population.

2.3 Qualitative research

For the qualitative research, three research teams consisting of two researchers each visited six settlements (see Table 3), spending 7-8 days in each. A fourth team, including the overall project Team Leader, conducted key informant interviews in the South-West and West Nile regions. The qualitative methodologies consisted of standard approaches: focus group discussions (FGDs), semi-structured interviews (SSIs), as well as key informant interviews (KIIs) for triangulation. To ensure accurate representations of refugee perspectives, participatory exercises were used, including problem and solution trees, Venn diagrams and a 'happiness' ladder exercise. Two settlements/districts were selected in each of the three main geographical areas of Uganda covered by the research (South-West, Mid-West and West Nile). Selection criteria included: nationality of refugees; date of establishment of settlement; and, type of intervention (including both food and cash assistance). Secondly, we also aimed to include settlements with varying degrees of market access and potential for agriculture as well as different refugee population sizes.

Table 3: Settlements visited for the qualitative research

Settlement	Population	Main nationalities	Year of establishment	Type of intervention
Nakivale	100,560	DR Congo, Rwanda, Burundi, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Somalia	1962	Food
Rwamwanja	74,451	DR Congo	2012 (previously 1964)	Food and cash
Kyangwali	48,543	DR Congo, South Sudan	1960	Cash and no assistance
Kiryandongo	56,855	South Sudan	1990	Food and cash
Bidibidi	285,014	South Sudan	2016	Food
Adjumani (Nyumanzi and Alere)	239,335 (Nyumanzi: 34,399; Alere: 11,222)	South Sudan	1987	Food, cash and no assistance

Respondents were identified using the snowballing method, a non-probability sampling methodology that relies on existing social networks as a sampling strategy. The refugee facilitators used their networks to identify respondents with appropriate profiles. Since the study focused on vulnerability, sampling by characteristics linked to vulnerability was undertaken: lifecycle stages (childhood, youth, adulthood and old age), gender and disability. The next layer of sampling was by targeting criteria: a) date of arrival and b) extreme vulnerability. Finally, we sampled a mix of food and cash assistance beneficiaries for the purpose of comparative analysis of benefits. In total 80 individual interviews, 46 Focus Group Discussions and 52 key informant interviews were carried out during the qualitative research, with a total of 383 participants. Table 4 shows the number of interviews, focus groups and key informant interviews carried out in each settlement.

Table 4: Interviews and focus group discussions carried out for the qualitative research

Settlement	Individual interviews		Number of FGDs	FGDs		KIIs
	Male	Female		Number of participants		
				Male	Female	
Nakivale	7	8	9	21	20	11
Rwamwanja	7	7	7	18	17	8
Kyangwali	5	7	8	27	18	5
Kiryandongo	6	9	8	16	4	9
Bidibidi	4	7	9	44	30	7
Adjumani	6	7	5	23	13	4
Regional						8
Total	35	45	46	149	102	52

2.4 Quantitative research

2.4.1 Survey design

The sample for the survey was designed to provide estimates of key indicators for three sub-regions (West Nile, Mid-West, and South West) and for ten districts (Adjumani, Arua, Koboko, Yumbe, Moyo, Kiryandongo, Hoima, Kamwenge, Kyegegwa, and Isingiro). A representative sample of 5,000 refugee households was selected for the survey. The sample was stratified by sub-region and district to maximise the heterogeneity of refugee households captured in the survey and the number of households interviewed in each analysis domain. The allocation of the total sample size by sub-region was undertaken using 'square root allocation': in other words, the number of interviews in each sub-region was proportionate to the square root of the total number of refugee households in each sub-region. The determination of the sample allocation across districts took into account considerations regarding design effects while ensuring a minimal number of households in each district. The sample was selected in three stages:

Stage 1: Within each stratum, primary sampling units (PSUs) were chosen using probability-proportional-to-estimated-size (PPES) with replacement. The PSUs are the smallest geographical region for which complete population estimates could be obtained, namely 'zones' within refugee settlements. The measure of size was the number of refugee households based on data obtained from the Office of the Prime Minister's RIMS database, WFP and UNHCR.

Stage 2: Within each PSU, a fixed number of small area segments was selected using map-based sampling. Two types of approaches were followed. First, in structured refugee settlements that have a relatively uniform, gridded layout with evenly spaced blocks of land, segments were randomly selected. Second, in more dispersed refugee settlements with complex layouts, further segmentation was carried out using maps provided by UNHCR and Google Earth satellite images. Segments were chosen with probability proportional to estimated size, based on any available low-level data on the number of refugee households as well as map-spotting of dwellings on recent satellite images.

Stage 3: Within each small area segment, a fixed number of households was selected using the EPI5 method, with fieldworkers interviewing every fifth household in a random direction. Research in Uganda by Bennet et al. (1994) has shown that this approach performs almost as well as simple random sampling.

2.4.2 Questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed to support the formulation of answers to the main research questions and capture a broad range of indicators, including: (1) socio-demographic characteristics of refugee households and their members, such as demographic characteristics (age, sex, disability, orphanhood, nationality, time in country, education), socio-economic status (based on household assets and consumption), and livelihoods (such as labour participation, occupation, and agricultural activities); (2) the food security status of refugee households, measured by indicators such as the food consumption score and the coping strategies index; and (3) access to external assistance and the current targeting performance of WFP's food assistance support. The questionnaire was developed through an iterative process, benefiting from feedback and comments from members of the Steering Committee and other stakeholders and was agreed by WFP. It was translated into the main languages used by refugees in the sampled sites. The questionnaire was scripted and administered electronically using smartphones.

2.4.3 Fieldwork

The fieldwork was implemented by 87 fieldworkers, including 66 interviewers, 11 supervisors and 10 quality controllers. The supervisors and quality controllers were trained in Kampala from the 11th to 15th of September 2017 on protocols for implementing the survey, administering the survey questionnaire, and conducting quality assurance. The enumerators were trained for five days from the 18th to the 22nd of September 2017 in the settlements where the survey was implemented. The training consisted of instructions regarding interviewing techniques and field procedures, a detailed review of the questions in the questionnaires, and pilot interviews.

Consent was obtained from the Office of the Prime Minister and local Settlement Commandants to collect data in the sampled sites in the refugee settlements. The fieldwork was implemented over a two-week period – from the 23rd of September until the 5th of October 2017 – by the survey firm IPSOS Uganda. Eleven data collection teams were formed, each comprising a supervisor, quality controller and six interviewers.

2.4.4 Data processing

Data collected with the smartphones was uploaded to a central server and field-check tables were generated regularly to monitor progress and team performance. After completion of the data collection in all sites, data was compiled and exported into a single database. Data processing and cleaning involved quality checks, reshaping person and household-level data, editing computer-identified errors, adding variable labels, and

coding open-ended questions. As the sample was not self-weighting, household weighting factors were added to the data file.

2.5 Limitations

There are a number of limitations to the research methodology that are worth highlighting. First, it is important to note that this research is not an impact evaluation of the food assistance provided to refugees. Under the current system, most households in the refugee settlements receive some form of assistance. It would be very difficult to establish comparable groups of refugees not receiving assistance that can serve as counterfactuals in a scientifically robust and ethically sound manner. Second, the analysis reflects the food security situation during the week or month before the survey was conducted. No longitudinal data exists on food security dynamics among the same group of refugees over longer periods of time. Moreover, food security data was collected at the household level. Issues of intra-household distribution of food among individual members fall beyond the scope of the quantitative research.

The study did not set out to duplicate the annual Food Security and Nutrition Assessment (FSNA) conducted jointly by WFP, UNICEF and UNHCR. Because of differences in the sampling and survey methodology, indicators reported in this study are not necessarily directly comparable with those reported in the FSNA. Comparisons of household expenditure and poverty between refugees and nationals also need to be interpreted with care as the methodology for collecting expenditures was different from the more comprehensive approach taken by UBOS in national surveys. Seasonality may impact households in a range of ways such as households' own agricultural production capacity, market prices of goods and services, and employment opportunities. Furthermore, in those settlements affected by drought, the total household expenditure would probably be below long-term averages.

Finally, as Table 5 shows, there is likely to be significant variation in the time between the quantitative survey and the last food assistance distribution. For example, in Imvepi, the food distribution was ongoing at the time of the survey. Some respondents may, therefore, have just received their ration while others may have been waiting for up a month since their last transfer. It is also important to note the dates of the data collection in relation to the seasonal harvests since this affects food security and income.

Table 5: Quantitative data collection and last food assistance distribution per district and settlement

District	Settlement	Data collection period	Last food assistance distribution before data collection
Adjumani	Various	Sept. 23 rd – Oct. 3 rd	Food, Cycle 8: Sept. 21 st – Oct. 10 th Cash, Cycle 8: Aug. 28 th – Sept. 5 th
Arua	Imvepi	Sept. 23 rd – Oct. 3 rd	Food, Cycle 8: Sept. 18 th – Oct. 9 th
	Rhino Camp	Sept. 23 rd – Oct. 3 rd	Food, Cycle 8: Sept. 15 th – Oct. 4 th Cash, Cycle 8: Aug. 29 ^h – Sep. 4 th
Koboko	Lobule	Sept. 23 rd – Sept. 30 th	Cash, Cycle 7: Sep. 5 th – Sep. 6 th
Moyo	Palorinya	Sept. 24 th – Oct. 5 th	Food, Cycle 7: Sept. 9 th – Oct. 21 st
Yumbe	Bidibidi	Sept. 23 rd – Oct. 5 th	Food, Cycle 8: Sept. 18 th – Oct. 9 th
Kiryandongo	Kiryandongo	Sept. 23 rd – Oct. 4 th	Food, Cycle 8: Sept. 21 st – Sept. 30 th Cash, Cycle 8: Aug. 29 th – Sept. 1 st
Hoima	Kyangwali	Sept. 23 rd – Oct. 4 th	Food, Cycle 7: Aug. 25 th – Aug. 25 th Cash, Cycle 8: Aug. 28 ^h – Sep. 1 st
Isingiro	Nakivale	Sept. 23 rd – Oct. 4 th	Food, Cycle 7: Aug. 28 th – Sep. 5 th Food, Cycle 8: Sept. 29 th – Oct. 8 th
Kamwenge	Rwamwanja	Sept. 23 rd – Oct. 3 rd	Food, Cycle 7: Aug. 21 st – Aug. 25 th Food, Cycle 8: Sept. 29 th – Oct. 4 th Cash, Cycle 8: Aug. 28 ^h – Sep. 2 nd
Kyegegwa	Kyaka II	Sept. 23 rd – Sept. 30 th	Food, Cycle 7: Sep. 7 th – Sep. 7 th Cash, Cycle 8: Aug. 28 ^h – Sep. 2 nd

Source: WFP Field Office

3 Socio-Economic and Demographic Characteristics of the Refugee Population

This chapter describes the key findings from the qualitative and quantitative research regarding the demographics of the refugee population. It also describes challenges that refugees face across the lifecycle.

3.1 Demographics of the refugee population

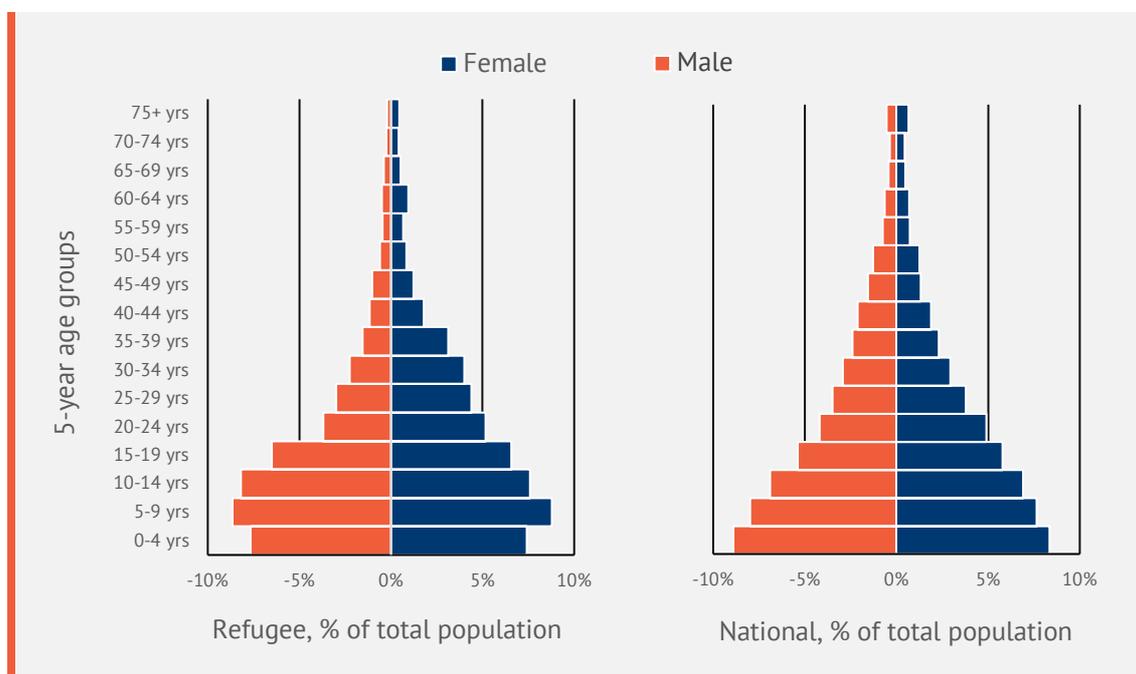
This section outlines some of the basic demographics across the refugee population based on the household survey. It examines the age structure, household structures, disability prevalence, and the length of time in Uganda of the refugee population.

3.1.1 Age structure of the refugee population

As Figure 3 shows, the refugee population is a young population: 61 per cent are aged under 20 years (compared to 58 per cent for the national population). Only 4 per cent are aged above 60 years (the same as in the national population). A key difference between the two groups is that, proportionately, there are fewer very young children in the refugee population compared to children aged 5-14 years, which is abnormal for a population in Africa.

Around 54 per cent of the refugee population is female and, as Figure 3 shows, while there are approximately equal numbers of males and females among children, there is a significant overrepresentation of women among the working age population above the age of 20 years, in particular when compared to the national Ugandan population. Among older persons, a majority of refugees are female, especially among those aged 60-64 years. However, the proportion of older persons aged 75 years and above is lower among refugees when compared to the national population.

Figure 3: Population pyramid of the refugee population and the national population¹⁴

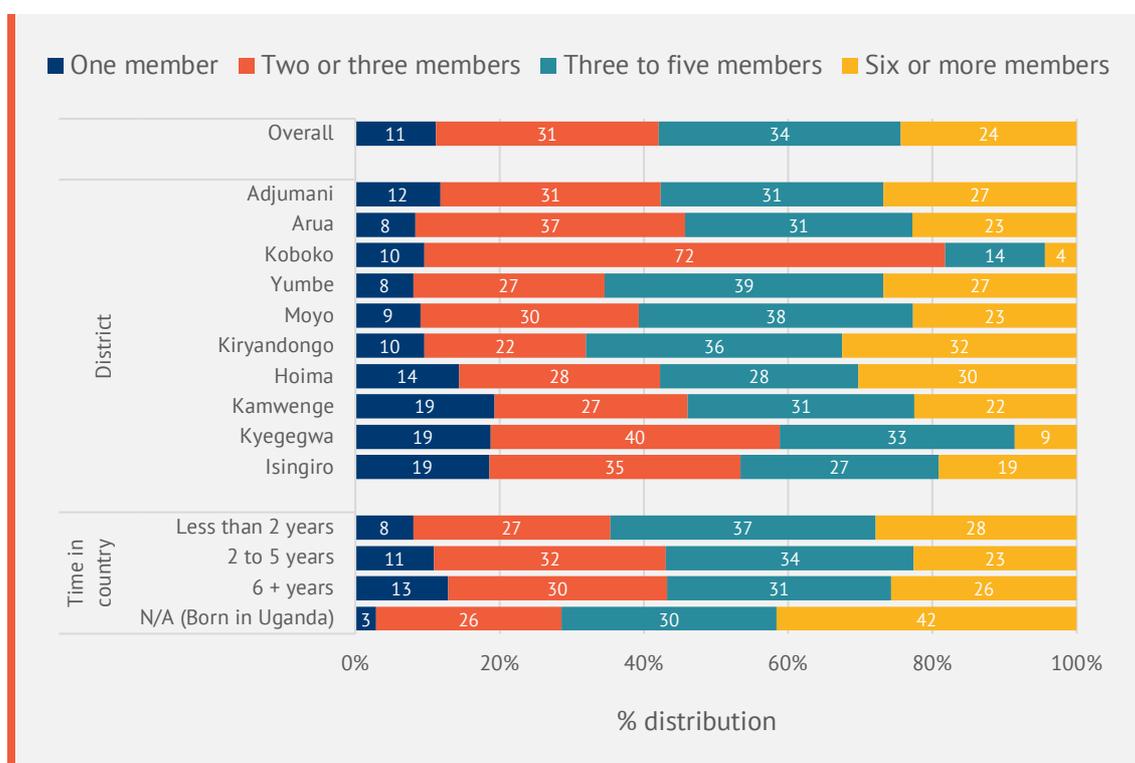


3.1.2 Household structures among the refugee population

The average household in the refugee settlements has 4 members, which is less than the national average for Uganda which is 4.7 members. The size of households varies considerably between districts (see Figure 4). As with other variables, the small Lobule settlement in Koboko district in West Nile is an outlier, with the vast majority of households having only 2-3 members. In the other settlements between 8 and 19 per cent of households have only one member, 22 to 40 per cent have two or three members, 27 to 39 per cent have three to five members, and 9 to 32 per cent have six or more members. In addition to Lobule, Kyaka II settlement in Kyegegwa district also has a much lower proportion of large households than the average. The qualitative research also found that refugees generally consider 'large' households to be those with 6-7 members or more. Those refugees that have been in Uganda for more than six years have a high proportion of one member and large households.

¹⁴The national population figures are taken from the 2014 national census.

Figure 4: Size of household by district and time in country



3.1.3 Disability among the refugee population

Disability affects a relatively high proportion of the refugee population. As shown by Table 6, 25 per cent of individuals report having at least ‘some difficulty’ in one functional domain or more, 6.4 per cent ‘a lot of difficulty’ in one functional domain or more, with 0.7 per cent reporting being ‘unable to do’ in one functional domain or more. There is no definitive definition of disability, but a suggested way of interpreting this data is that 25 per cent of refugees experience a mild disability, 6.4 per cent a severe disability and 0.7 per cent a profound disability. The threshold for measuring severe disability prevalence in this report is the proportion of people experiencing ‘a lot of difficulty’ or are ‘unable to do’ in at least one functional domain, therefore either severe or profound disability (see Box 4).¹⁵

¹⁵ See the Washington Group on Disability Statistics for more information: http://www.washingtongroup-disability.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/01/interpreting_disability.pdf

Box 4: Measuring disability

Identifying people with disabilities in surveys is not simple. International standards have been developed to produce useful, reliable and comparable data. The questionnaire applied the Washington Group on Disability Statistics recommended short set of questions. The questions are designed to identify those who are at greater risk than the general population of experiencing restrictions in performing daily activities or participating in social roles. The questions ask whether people have limitations and the degree of difficulty in six core functioning domains: walking, seeing, hearing, remembering, self-care and communication. For each domain, the response categories are: 'no, no difficulty', 'yes, some difficulty', 'yes, a lot of difficulty', and 'cannot do at all'. Difficulties in these domains have the potential to limit independent living or social integration if appropriate accommodation is not made. Due to the complexity of disability, the Washington Group Short Set of questions will identify most, but not all, people with disabilities. This report follows the usual approach in much of the literature on disability and defines a person with disability as someone who has answered to at least one of the questions either 'a lot of difficulty' or 'cannot do at all'.

Disability, however, indirectly affects a higher proportion of the population: for example, almost 17 per cent of households include a person with a severe disability. However, the quantitative research did not measure psycho-social disabilities due to ethical reasons, which will have resulted in a significant underestimation of the total population of persons with disabilities since the qualitative research showed that many people experience such challenges (see Box 5 for a further discussion). Furthermore, it is likely that the proportion of children with disabilities has been underestimated since the Washington Group's short set of questions are recognised to have limitations in measuring functional limitations among children.

Table 6: Proportion of refugee population with a disability and proportion of households that include at least one person with a disability

	No disability	At least 'some difficulty' in at least one domain ¹⁶	At least 'a lot of difficulty' in at least one domain ¹⁷	'Unable to do' in at least one domain
Proportion of individuals	75%	25%	6%	1%
Proportion of households	46%	54%	17%	2%

¹⁶ All respondents answering either 'some difficulty', 'a lot of difficulty' or 'unable to do' in at least one domain.

¹⁷ All respondents answering either 'a lot of difficulty' or 'unable to do' in at least one domain.

Box 5: The prevalence of trauma

Psycho-social disabilities were not quantitatively assessed among the refugee population due to ethical reasons. However, the findings from the qualitative research indicate that trauma is a critical disability that affects refugee populations and its impacts on the capacity of households to be food secure should not be underestimated. Existing literature on the prevalence of mental disability amongst refugees highlights that, while they experience trauma due to their exposure to war, post-traumatic stress disorder persists due to the conditions in which they live as refugees in host countries, such as poverty, overcrowding, unemployment, social isolation, gender-based violence etc.¹⁸ These conditions are medically referred to as current life stressors.

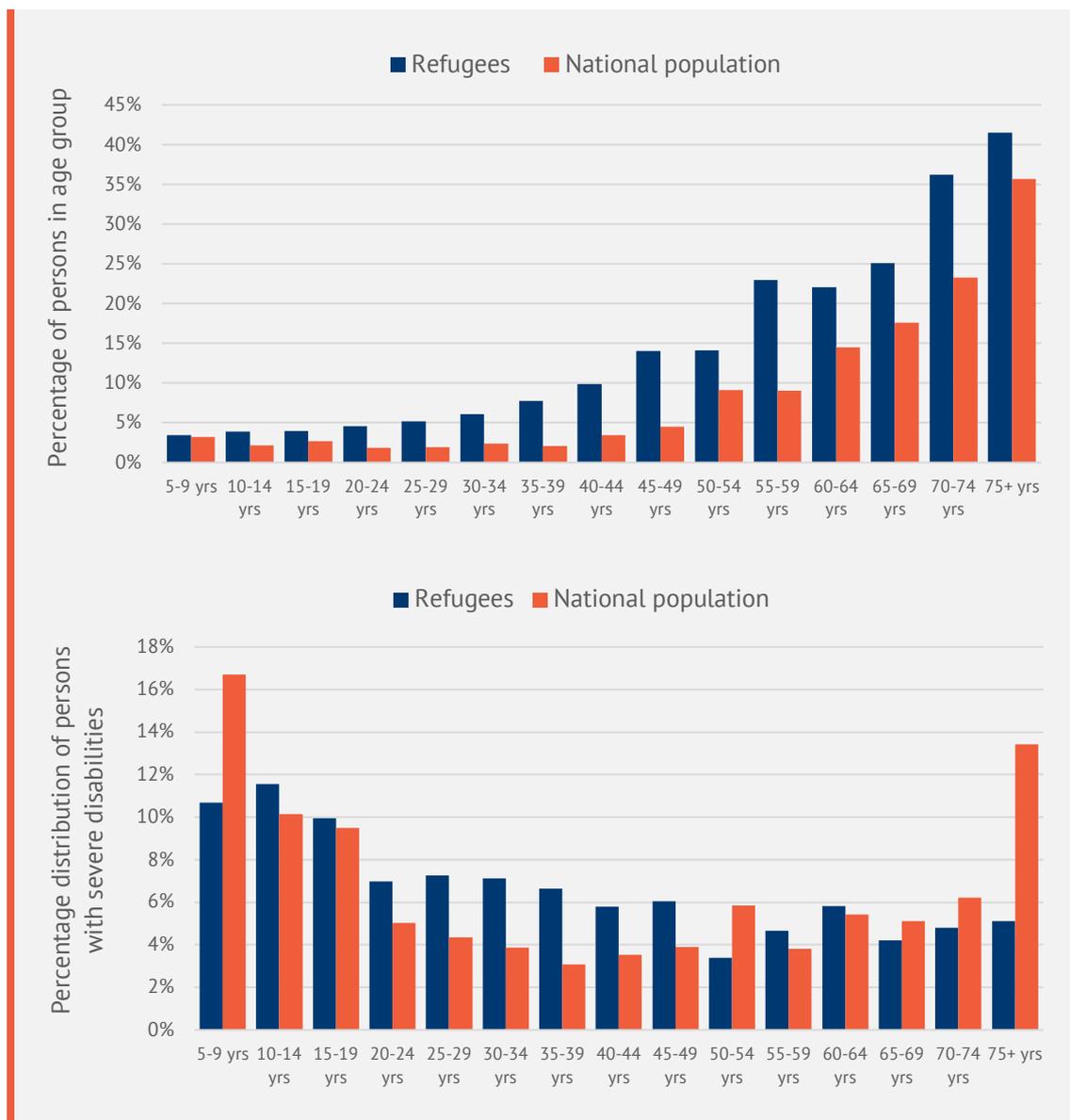
An example from the qualitative research highlighting how war exposure and current life stressors combine to inflict long-term trauma is that of Joanne. She is a 23-year-old woman who lives in Nakivale with her husband and two sons (from other fathers). In Congo, she witnessed her father's death at the hands of the rebels, who also sexually assaulted her. She became pregnant and eventually gave birth to a son. Out of fear for the life of her new-born child, she fled to Uganda along with her two remaining brothers.

In Uganda, poverty pushed her to engage in unprotected sex work and, as a result, she gave birth to another child. A year ago, she decided to marry a Congolese refugee at the settlement. They were both farmers back in Congo but are unable to cultivate in Nakivale as the land is too dry. Her husband attempted to find employment outside the settlement, but language was a barrier. Instead, he now makes and sells *Mandazis* (fried dough). Joanne shifted to fruit vending, but one evening she was attacked by 3 men from the settlement. This incident brought back memories of the sexual assault in Congo, and ever since she has been unable to work as she scared to go too far on her own. She has been persistently trying to seek justice on the matter, as well as counselling sessions but, so far, has not received any support.

As in all societies, the prevalence of disability increases as people age (see Figure 5). Among people aged 60 years and above, 29 per cent experience a severe disability, a high proportion. But, even among those aged between 30 and 50 years, 8 per cent report being severely disabled. Across the districts, there is significant variation in the number of disabled people ranging from almost 14 per cent of the population with a severe disability in Kamwenge (Rwamwanja settlement) to less than 4 per cent in Kyegegwa (Kyaka II settlement). Although the numbers with a profound disability are much smaller, they vary from 0.4 per cent in Kiryandongo to more than three times that rate in Koboko (1.3 per cent). The overall pattern in age groups is similar across the districts (see Annex 5 for more information). Women experience higher levels of disability than men.

¹⁸ Miller and Rasmussen (2017).

Figure 5: Prevalence of severe disability and percentage distribution of persons with severe disabilities by age group among both the refugee and national populations¹⁹



When examining the age groups containing the highest numbers of persons with disabilities, the pattern changes (as seen in Figure 5). The highest number of persons with a severe disability are among children and then among working age people. Older people comprise a relatively small proportion of the total population living with a severe disability, reflecting their overall limited number.

Compared to the national population, disability is more common among refugees. While 6.4 per cent of the refugee population have a severe disability, nationally the figure is

¹⁹ Data for the national population is taken from the Uganda National Household Survey of 2009.

only 3.9 per cent. And, as Figure 5 shows, this pattern occurs across all age groups. This higher level of disability among refugees may reflect the experiences of refugees coming from a conflict situation in their home countries.

When it comes to the nature of disability across the population, the most common types of severe disability are a severe physical disability (2.6 per cent of refugees have a lot of difficulty walking or cannot walk at all) and a severe visual disability (2.4 per cent). Across the total refugee population these prevalence rates correspond to approximately 35,874 people with a severe physical disability and 33,114 people with a severe visual disability.

Table 7: Disability prevalence rates across functional domains (in %)

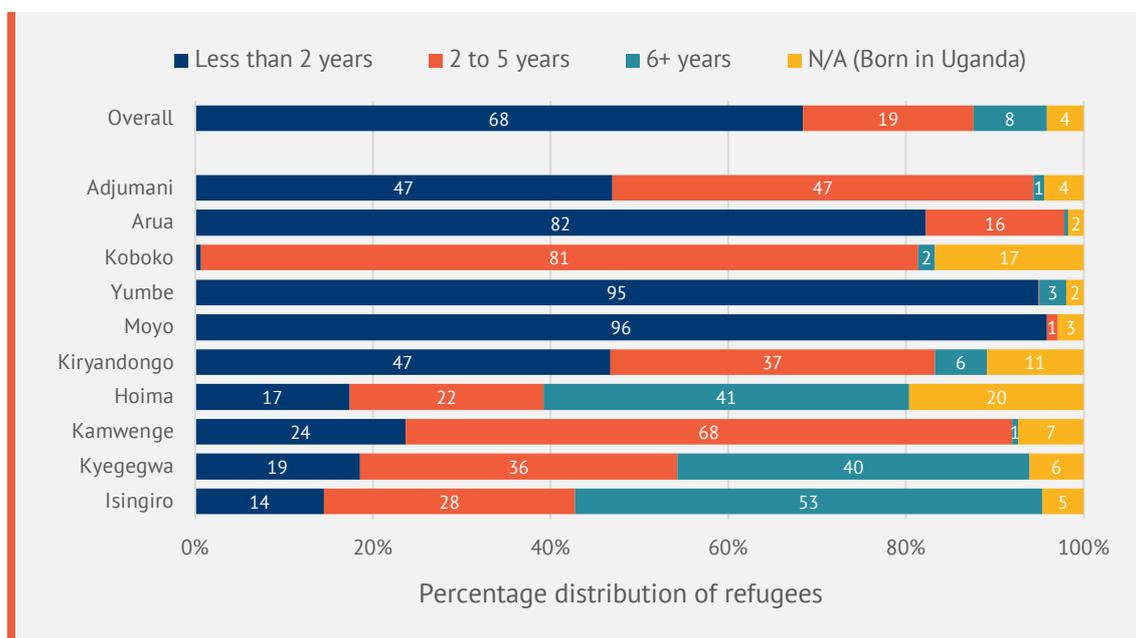
Type of difficulty	Severity of disability			
	Non - no difficulty	Yes - some difficulty	Yes - a lot of difficulty	Cannot do at all
Seeing	88.67	8.91	2.23	0.2
Hearing	92.39	6.11	1.4	0.1
Walking	90.7	6.71	2.31	0.28
Remembering	90.99	7.26	1.65	0.1
Self-care	94.58	4.26	0.96	0.2
Communicating	95.25	3.86	0.77	0.13

3.1.4 Length of time of the refugee population in Uganda

In general, the majority of refugees in Uganda are recent arrivals, reflecting the large influx of refugees from South Sudan in recent years. As shown in Figure 6, the majority of the refugee population in the URVS have been in the country for less than 2 years (68 per cent). Around a fifth of refugees have been in Uganda for more than 2 years but less than 6 completed years, and 12 per cent have been in Uganda for more than 6 years or were born there. However, the duration that people have stayed in Uganda varies significantly between settlements. In most of the large settlements in West Nile, including the settlements in Arua, Yumbe and Moyo, the vast majority of refugees have arrived within the past 2 years. The main exception is the small settlement of Lobule in Koboko district which hosts mainly refugees who arrived 2 to 5 years ago. The settlements in Adjumani also present a more mixed picture, with 47 per cent arriving within the last two years, and 47 per cent having been in Uganda for 2 to 5 years.

In the older Mid-West and South-Western settlements, a higher proportion of refugees have been in Uganda longer, in particular in Isingiro (Nakivale), Hoima and Kyegegwa, where 53, 41 and 40 per cent respectively have been in Uganda more than 6 years. In Kiryandongo and Kamwenge many refugees arrived 2 to 5 years ago, but these settlements also host significant numbers of new arrivals fleeing the ongoing conflicts.

Figure 6: Distribution of refugees by years in country and district²⁰

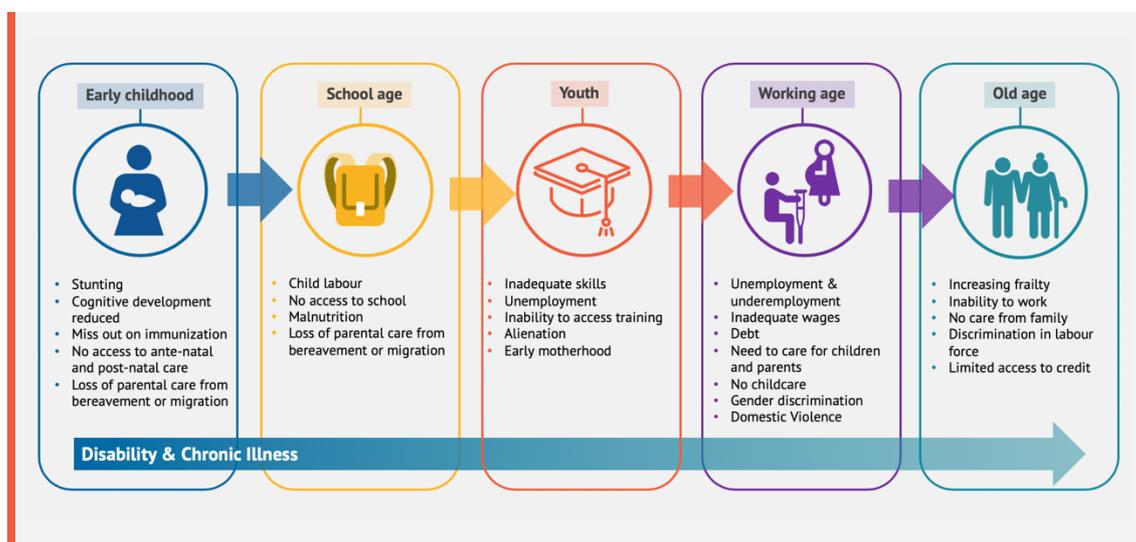


3.2 Challenges across the lifecycle

Refugees face different challenges depending on where they are in the lifecycle. Figure 7 summarizes the main risks and challenges that refugees in Uganda face across the lifecycle. Furthermore, ill-health and disability are risks that can affect people at any stage of the lifecycle although, as Section 3.1.3 described, disability becomes more of a risk as people age. This section provides the key findings on the challenges the refugee population in Uganda face across each stage of the lifecycle that impact on their wellbeing and food security. Further information on the livelihoods of refugees, in particular among the working age, can be found in Chapter 4.

²⁰ Source: URVS.

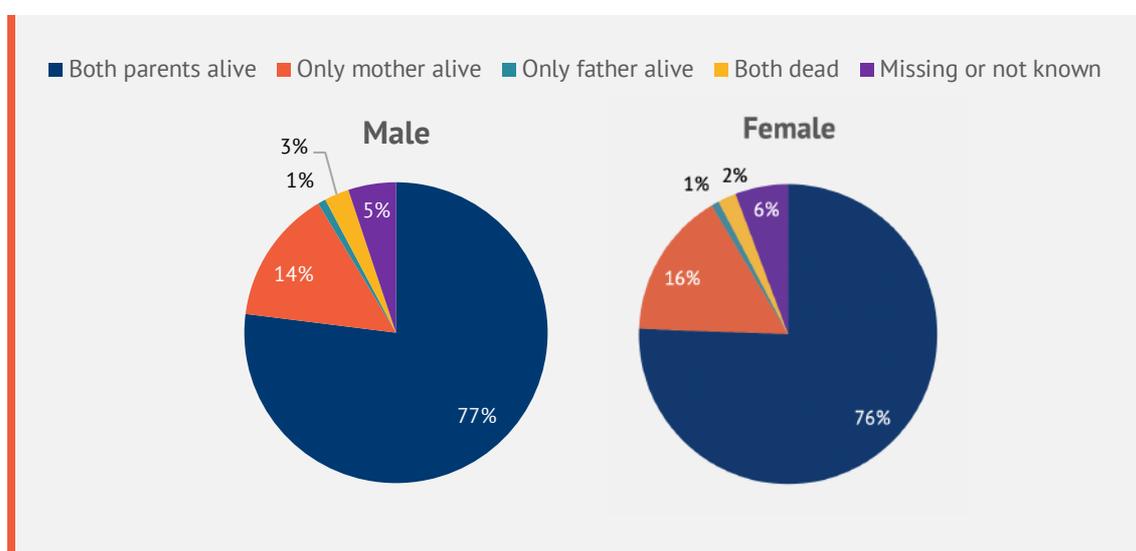
Figure 7: Summary of the main risks that refugees face across the lifecycle



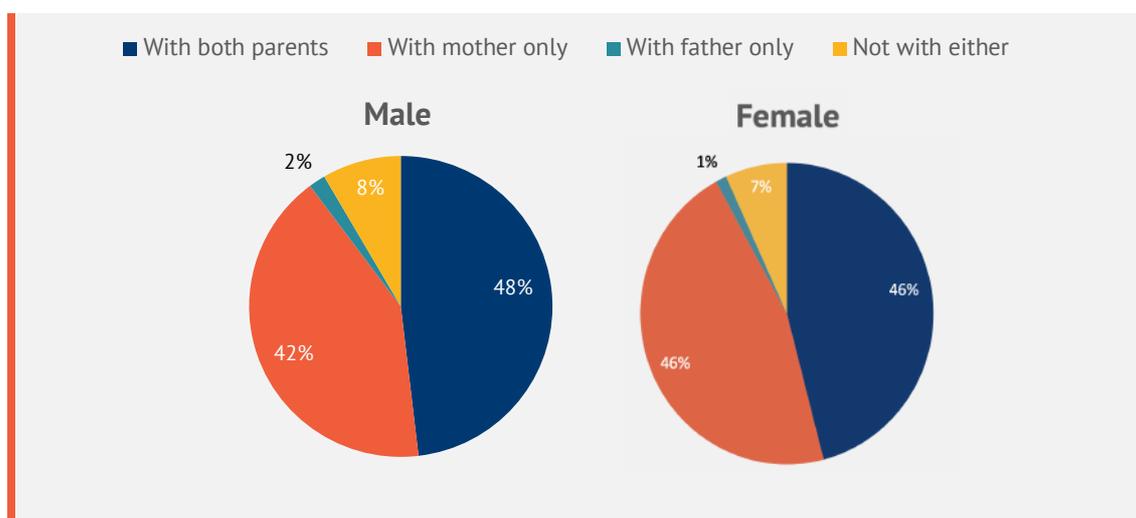
3.2.1 Young children (0-4 years)

As Figure 8 indicates, over 75 per cent of children aged 0-4 years have both parents alive. Among orphans, it is most common for the father to have passed away while only around 3 per cent of children are double orphans. However, living arrangements present a different pattern with only 47 per cent of children living with both parents. A similar proportion of children are cared for by their mothers only, while around 8 per cent of children are not cared for by either parent. Many of these live with other relatives, including grandparents.

Figure 8: Distribution of children under five by orphan-hood and living arrangements by gender

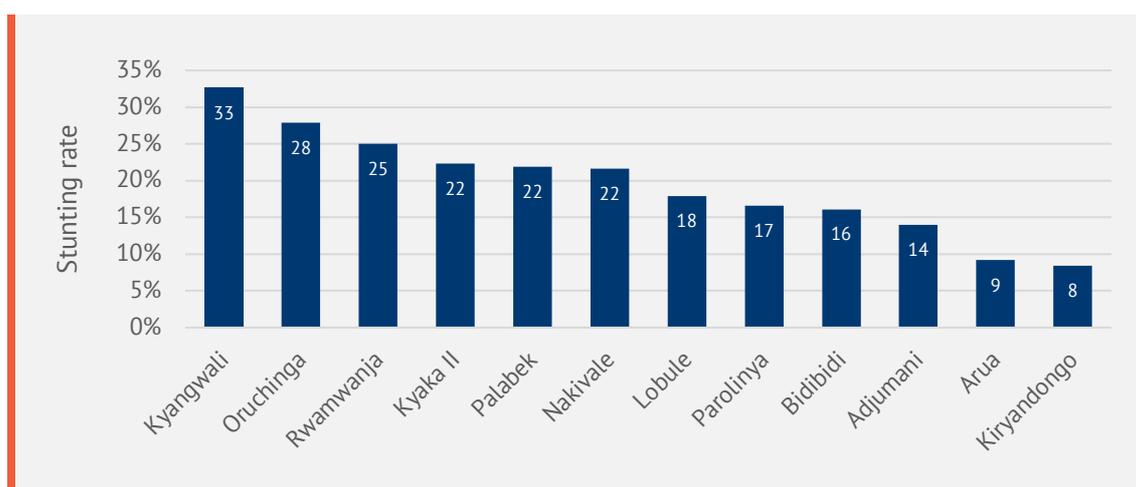


3 Socio-Economic and Demographic Characteristics of the Refugee Population



The qualitative research found that malnutrition and poor health are significant risks for young children, in particular for those in large households receiving reduced or no food assistance, or where not all household members have been able to register for food assistance. Figure 9 shows the stunting rates among children aged 6-59 months across settlements. It varies considerably across settlements and tends to be lower among those with a higher proportion of new arrivals, but levels are high in four of the older settlements. The results also suggest that, once in refugee settlements, the situation of young children worsens over time.

Figure 9: Stunting rates across settlements among children aged 5-59 months²¹



Moreover, parents in general – especially those who are receiving reduced rations or no food assistance at all – are often obliged to spend long hours away from their children to find income earning opportunities. Young children and infants of single carers – as well

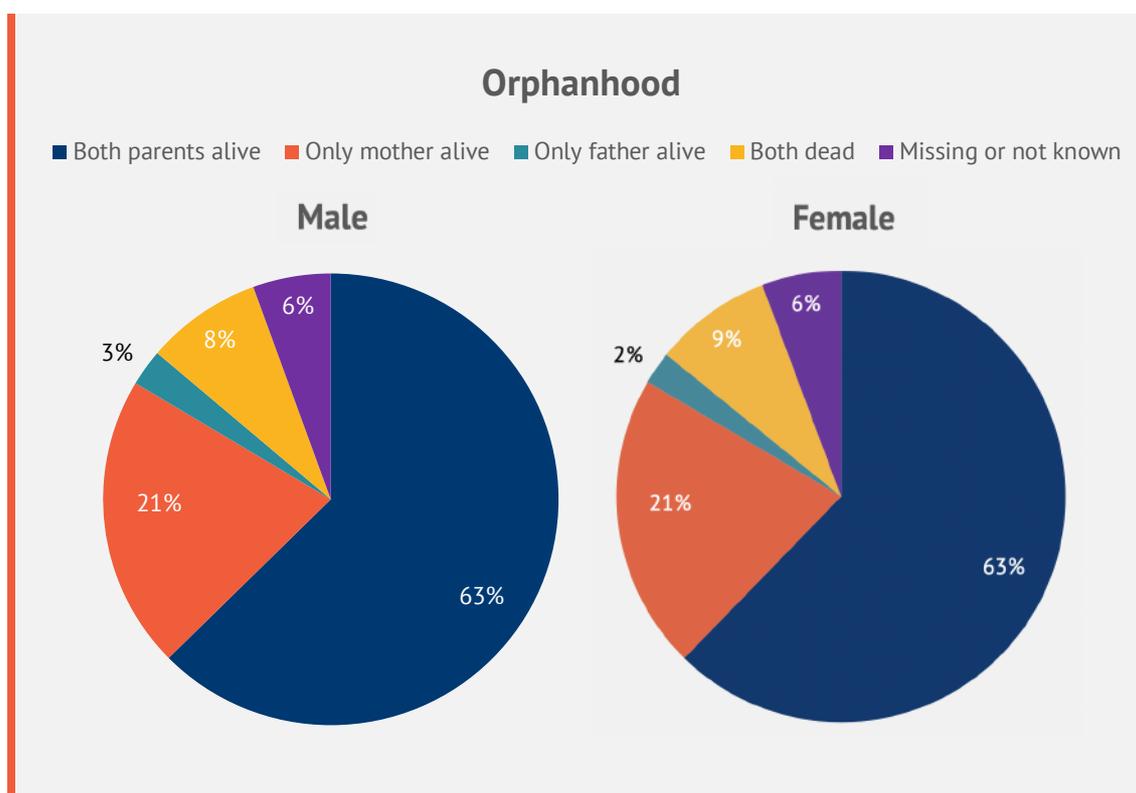
²¹ Source: FSNA (2017).

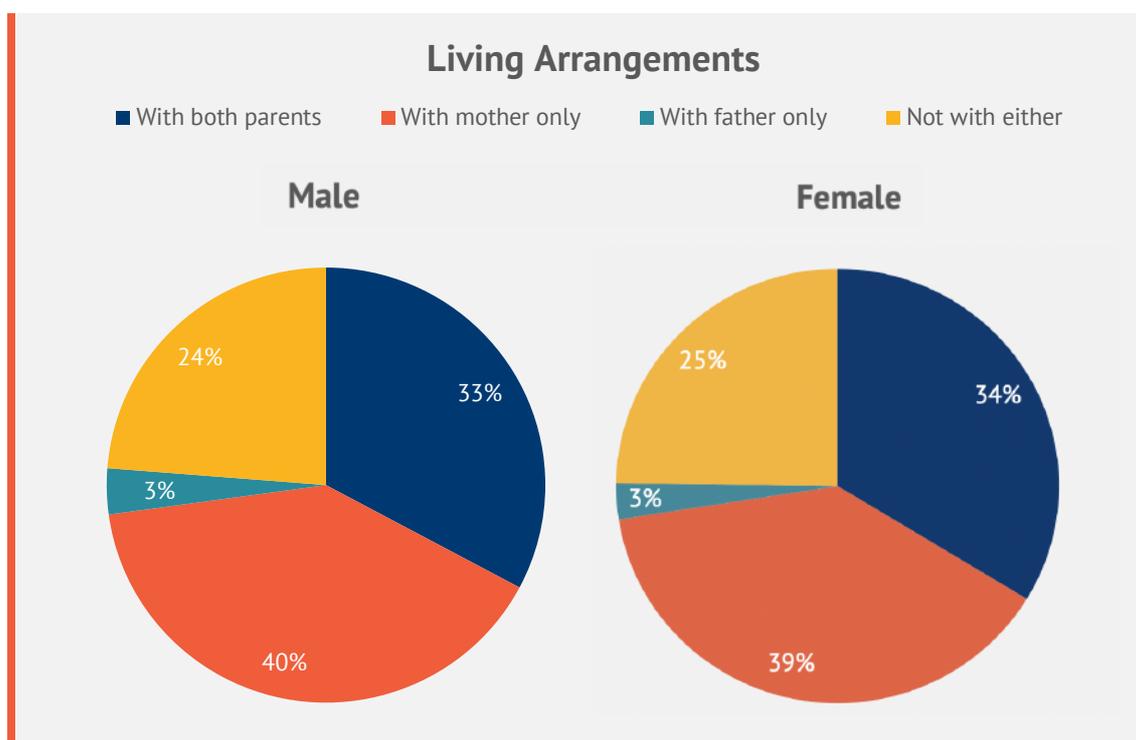
as single pregnant and lactating mothers – are especially vulnerable to severe neglect and inadequate nutrition. Young mothers are often malnourished or unable to breastfeed because of the demands of work. Young children with disabilities are at particular risk, especially given the widespread belief that disability is a curse and the accompanying stigma associated with having a disabled child. In countries in the region, it is common for husbands to abandon their family if a disabled child is born, which can enhance significantly the risk of food insecurity.

3.2.2 School age children (5-17 years)

Almost two-thirds of school age children have both parents alive while orphans are most likely to only have their mothers (Figure 10). The share of children who are double orphans is just under 10 per cent. The living arrangements of school age children is very similar for boys and girls. Most children are living with the mother only (approximately 40 per cent), and around a third are living with both parents. Around a quarter of school age children are living with neither of their parents and are cared for by other relatives – or foster carers – which can place a significant burden on these families, impacting on food security.

Figure 10: Distribution of children aged 5-17 by orphan-hood, living arrangements and gender





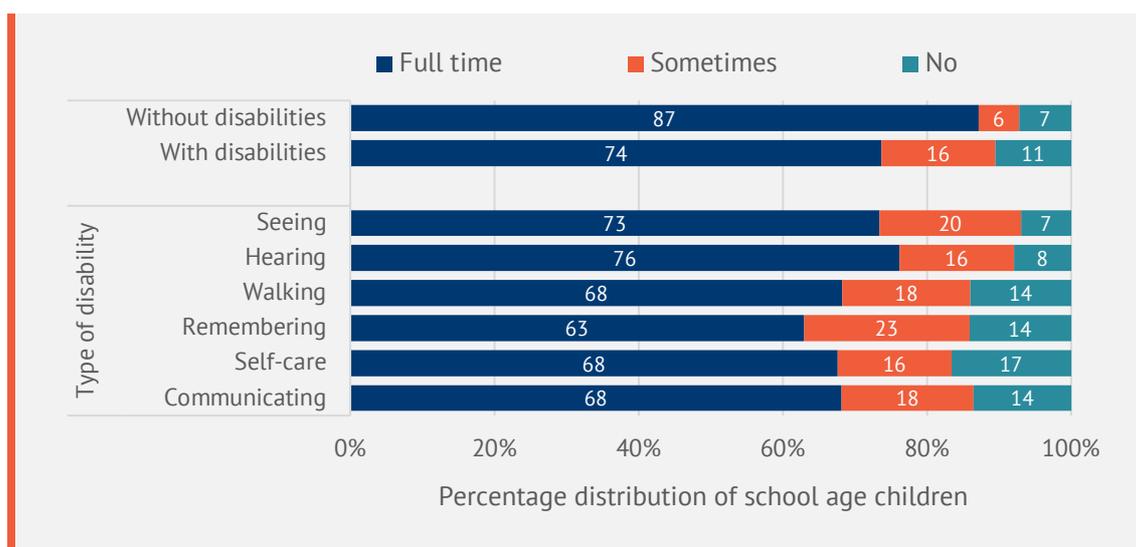
It is critical that refugee children gain a good education if the model of self-reliance is to have any chance of success. And, this will also feed through to long-term positive impacts on food security. The majority of school age children are able to attend school, although the proportion falls among those aged 15 to 19 years. There are differences between settlements, with lower attendance in the districts of Arua, Hoima, Kamwenge and Kyegegwa. Attendance is also lower among those living in EVH households and those not receiving any food assistance, which will undermine food security in the long-term. Counter-intuitively, among households with higher levels of expenditure, school attendance is slightly lower, which may reflect that the higher expenditure is due, in part, to children engaging in work (see Annex 5).

There are multiple barriers causing children in refugee settlements to have irregular school attendance and eventually drop out of school. The main reasons found during the household survey are set out in Annex 5. Distance from school or low incomes are the main reasons although, among teenage girls, marriage and pregnancy are also significant causes. Despite universal primary education (UPE) being 'free', there are other hidden costs acting as a deterrent. Maintenance fees for primary schools can range from UGX3,000-10,000 per term, depending on the settlement and the school. The majority of respondents in the qualitative research with children ready to attend secondary school claimed that they could not afford to enrol their children since school fees range between UGX80,000-120,000 per child per term (higher if sent as a boarder). In Kyangwali, better-off refugees, albeit a minority, are able to send their children to private secondary schools, where the fees can reach UGX150,000 per term.

Children cared for by older persons and people with disabilities or chronic illness are more at risk of missing school or dropping out, especially if the carers are not recognised as EVIs and the household is, therefore, receiving a reduced ration or no assistance. Indeed, poverty and hunger play a crucial role in limiting a child’s capacity to learn or even attend school on a regular basis. Respondents noted that, apart from the effects on concentration, hunger drives young teenagers to look for work instead of going to school. In Kyangwali, there is a reported increase in child workers who frequent the nearby lake and sell items on market days.²² Some underage girls are reported to engage in sex work to cover both food and education expenses.

A particular challenge for children with disabilities is attending school. Schools are not disability-friendly and overcrowded classrooms are not conducive environments for many children with disabilities.²³ As Figure 11 indicates, children with disabilities are less likely to attend school. While 87 per cent of school age children without a disability are full time students, the proportion is only 74 per cent among children with disabilities. School attendance varies depending on the type of functional limitation: for example, 17 per cent of children with at least ‘a lot of difficulty’ in the domain of self-care are not attending school while the proportion is 7 per cent among children with at least ‘a lot of difficulty’ in hearing. Overall, children with intellectual challenges are less likely to be in school.

Figure 11: Access of children with disabilities to school: Distribution of children by school attendance and type of disability



UNHCR and partners should consider addressing the schooling costs experienced by refugees since they impact on food security, either by reducing the amount of the food

²² 15/07/17, FGD, Young women, Nakivale

²³ Cf. comment in FGD, adult/older women, Kiryandongo, 17/07/2017

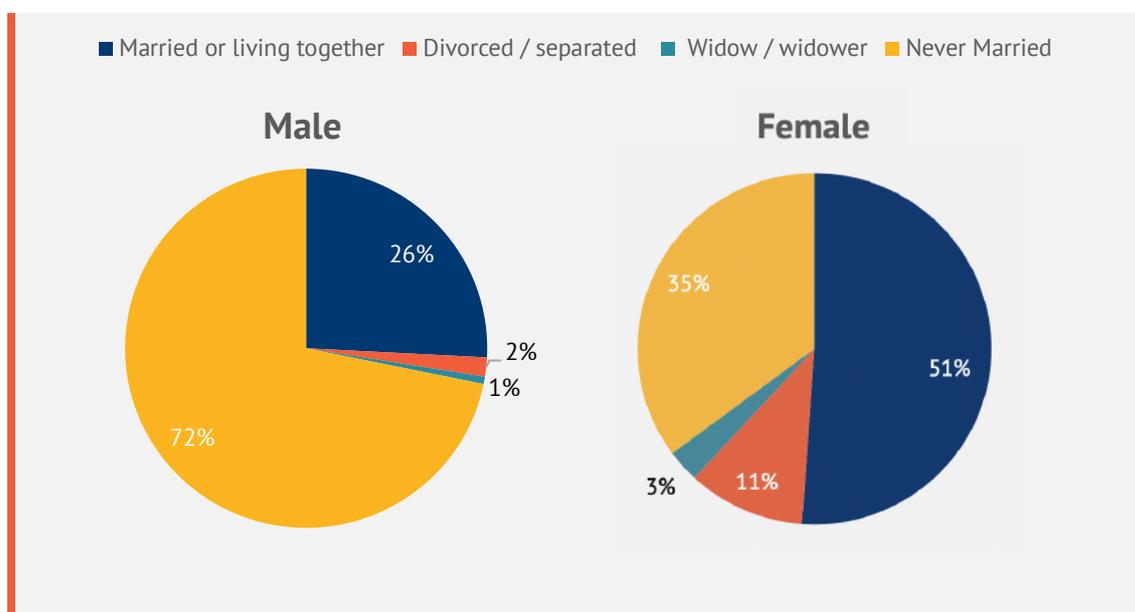
assistance transfer available for food or by undermining the chances of children becoming self-reliant as adults. This could include creating one transfer that covers both food assistance and other family requirements.

Teenage marriage is not as frequent among refugees aged between 13 and 17 years when compared to national figures. Close to 3 per cent of refugee teenagers are currently married or were married compared to 40 per cent among the national population. While almost 1.4 per cent of boys have been married, 4 per cent of girls are married or have been married. The share of girls currently married or living with a partner is 2.5 per cent.

3.2.3 Young people (18-25 years)

Among young people, there are significant differences in marital status between males and females. Young women begin to marry earlier than men – often as teenagers – and so, by age 25 years, 51 per cent of women are married, 11 per cent divorced or separated and 3 per cent already widowed (see Figure 12). In contrast, 72 per cent of young men have never been married.

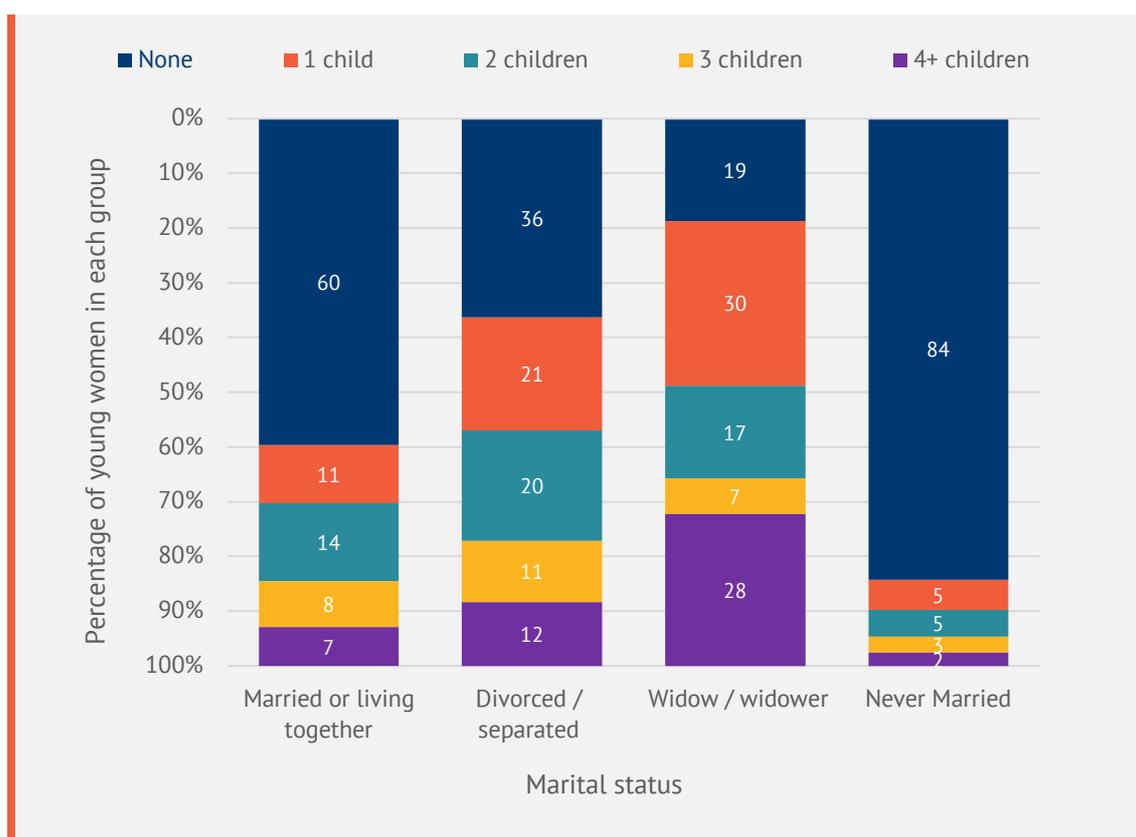
Figure 12: Distribution of young refugees by marital status and gender



Once young people – in particular women – have children, this places a further burden on them and can enhance the risk of food insecurity. It increases their care responsibilities and reduces their capacity to engage in the labour market. Figure 13 indicates the number of children cared for by young women alongside their marital status. There is a clear tendency that young women aged 18-25 years who are divorced, separated or are widows are taking care of more children than those who are married, which is likely to impact on

their food security given the reduced number of potential ‘breadwinners’ in the household.

Figure 13: Number of children cared for by young women aged 18-25 years compared to their marital status



As indicated earlier, the capacity of younger persons to engage in the labour market and become self-reliant depends, in part, on their level of education. Around 69 per cent of young people have only reached primary education, with a higher proportion among young women (77 per cent). This means that young women are less likely to be able to compete in the labour market, further exacerbating the food security challenges faced by those caring for young children. In fact, higher levels of education appear to be associated with higher per capita expenditures and asset index scores. In two districts – Moyo and Kiryandongo – a higher proportion of young persons have reached secondary school. Only around one per cent of young persons have a level of education above secondary school. Detailed information on the level of education among young refugees is presented in Annex 5.

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Table 8 outlines the main activities or occupations of young women and men aged 18-25 years. Around 41 per cent of young men and 21 per cent of young women are studying (many still in primary school). The main responsibility of around 37 per cent of young women is to care for the home and other family members while 12 per cent of young men have similar responsibilities. Only 26 per cent of young persons are engaged in some form of economic activity – including working on their own plots of land – and 12 per cent regard themselves as unemployed. Overall, this represents a low level of economic activity among younger persons which does not bode well for their self-reliance and food security.

“The majority are not at school because of an inability to pay for school fees. The male youth have turned to thieving within the settlement and outside the settlement” (25/7/2017, FGD, Youth/Adult Male, Nyumanzi, Adjumani).

“Many youths from here have left because they see no future. They try to go to Europe but most of them are kidnapped in Libya. The risk of going to Europe is high” (15/07/17, FGD, Adult men, Nakivale).

Table 8: Distribution of young refugees by main activity or occupation, disaggregated by gender and severe disability (percentage)

Main activity or occupation	Gender		Disability		Total
	Male	Female	No	Yes	
Full time scholar or student at school, university, college etc.	40.7	21.1	30.2	15.1	29.5
Homemaker (looking after children / others / home)	12.4	37.3	26.9	21.4	26.
Working own plot/ looking after livestock	11.7	13.5	12.8	11.3	12.7
Self-employed	11.9	9.9	10.8	10.0	10.7
Unemployed and actively searching for a job in the last four weeks	7.6	5.8	6.4	9.1	6.6
Unemployed but not actively searching for a job in the last four weeks	6.6	5.0	5.7	5.6	5.7
Working for pay	3.5	2.2	2.7	4.2	2.8
Helping family member without pay with their business	1.4	1.2	1.3	0.4	1.3
Long term sick or disabled	1.7	0.7	0.3	18.3	1.1
Retired	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1
Other	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Around 5 per cent of young refugees have a severe disability. Although they are just as likely to be working for pay, they are more likely to be unemployed or unable to engage in an economic activity because of their disability or a long-term illness. Young disabled refugees are also less likely to be full-time students.

It is generally perceived by refugees that young people have ‘no future’ in the refugee settlements and are, therefore, at risk of turning to desperate measures, such as drug trafficking and abuse, theft and other petty crimes, survival sex, or risky illegal emigration

3 Socio-Economic and Demographic Characteristics of the Refugee Population

to Europe. Young men were reported to steal and grab food rations and cash payments on the day of distributions. The re-orientation of ex-soldiers into mainstream society is also challenging: there were reportedly ex-child soldiers in Rwamwanja, although the researchers did not have a chance to speak to them.

A particular issue raised by young people who have grown up in these settlements is that they are not provided with their own household registrations and plots of land when they marry. In the absence of economic opportunities, the difficulties in accessing food assistance exacerbate their vulnerability to food insecurity. In Nakivale, where there are no opportunities for farming or wage employment and where many were receiving 25 per cent rations in 2017, respondents complained that large numbers of young people had left for other countries, even Europe, since not enough is done to provide economic opportunities for young refugees in Uganda.

There are some livelihood interventions to support younger persons, but they tend to operate on a relatively small scale and are largely focused on micro-entrepreneurship, agriculture or casual labour. For educated young people, there are few opportunities and they face multiple economic, procedural and social barriers to completing their higher education studies and entering the formal labour market. The main option open to them is to be hired by agencies on an on-demand basis or be employed in lower level staff positions.

Box 6: Experience of a young person who is the main breadwinner and carer

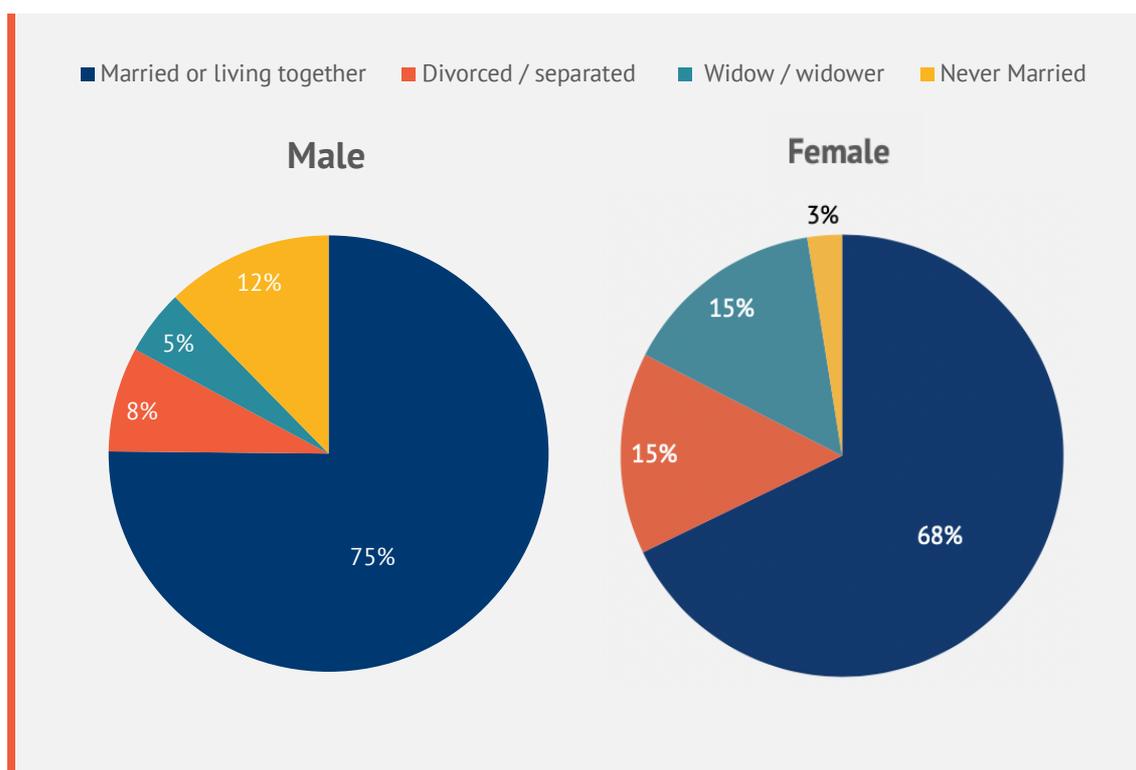
In Nakivale, the researchers interviewed a young mother who is the main breadwinner and caretaker of the family. She had arrived in 2013 with her 3-year old son, her grandmother and her great uncle who has a disability. The great uncle became paralyzed on the right-hand side during the war in Burundi. However, they are registered as two households – one consisting of herself and her son, the other consisting of her grandmother and great uncle – and neither household is assessed as an EVH for the food rations. She does all the household chores and takes care of her great uncle. She has to feed him and attend to his daily needs and she believes that he suffers while she is away working. When they first arrived, they were receiving 12 kg per person per month. Eventually it was reduced to 6 kg and she has been extremely stressed ever since as she has noticed that other families who arrived earlier are receiving even less. The fact that her grandmother and her great uncle are not on EVH rations is something that deeply worries her: it was an issue she repeatedly raised. She was also disturbed by the lack of support and her inability to adequately take care of her family and was genuinely scared that the food rations would be further reduced.

3.2.4 Working age (25-59 years)

As Figure 14 indicates, most men and women are married or living together, although around 30 per cent of women are either divorced, separated or widowed. Around 12 per cent of men have never been married. As indicated earlier, a key determinant of

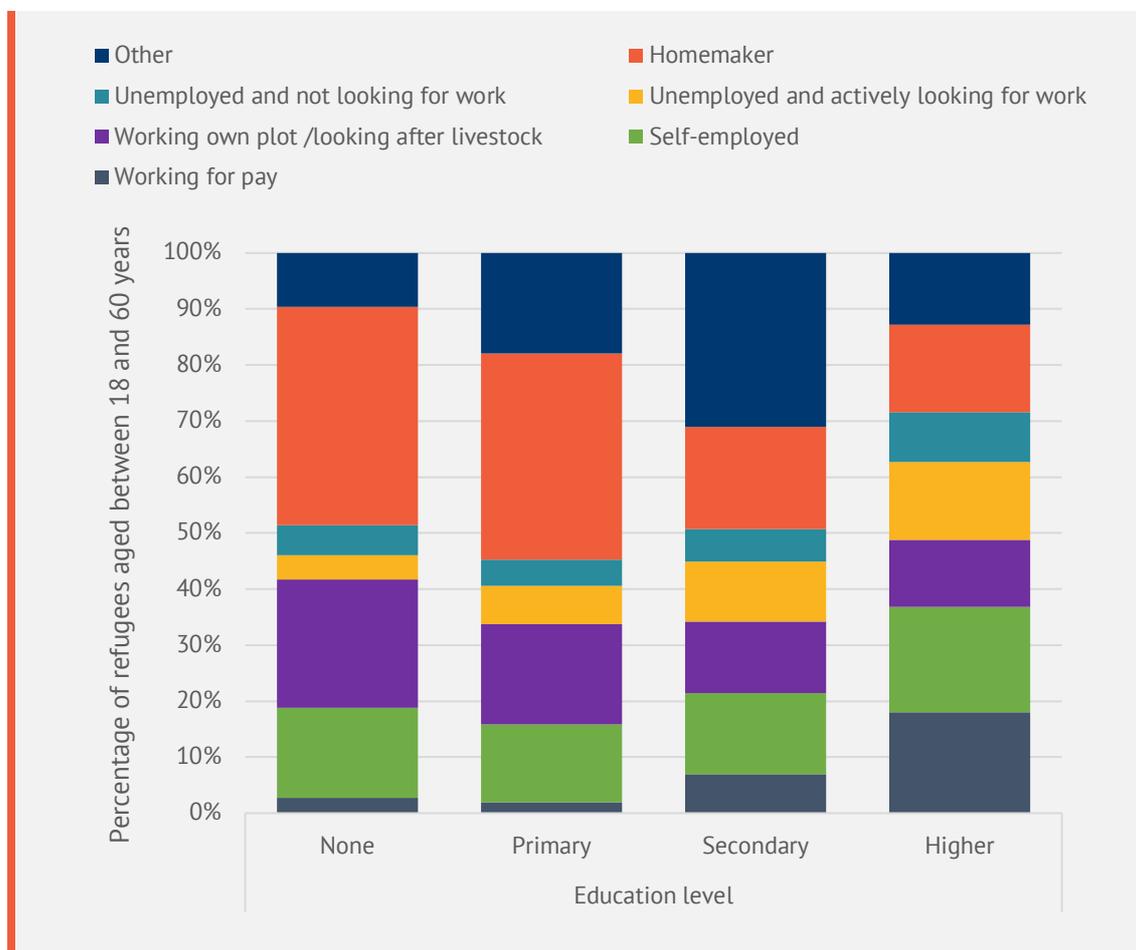
wellbeing is the number of children in a household, with more children resulting in lower wellbeing.

Figure 14: Distribution of working age refugees (25 – 59 years) by marital status and gender



As with younger people, the majority of those of working age – around 82 per cent – have no more than primary education while only two per cent have received education above secondary school. In fact, 45 per cent of working age refugees have never entered primary school, rising to 52 per cent among women. The proportion without an education also rises with age. There is significant variation in educational attainment between settlements, with particularly high levels of people with no education in Adjumani, Hoima, Kamwenge and Kyegegwa districts (for more detail see Annex 5). South Sudanese are more likely to have received some education. As Figure 15 shows, there is a clear link between education level and employment prospects, with less than 3 per cent of those without education or with primary education having paid work as their main occupation compared to almost 18 per cent among those with higher education. Of course, this still leaves 82 per cent of refugees with higher education without paid work.

Figure 15: Education level and main occupation among refugees aged between 18 and 60 years



Almost half of working age women have caregiving duties as their main occupation, but also 21 per cent of men, which evidently reduces their capacity to be self-reliant and food secure. Around 32 per cent of households are single-headed and caring for children and this category, along with single pregnant women, was highlighted during the qualitative research as particularly vulnerable.

Most single-headed households with children are living in extreme poverty with high rates of food insecurity. For example, in West Nile and Rwamwanja, it was reported during the qualitative research that single pregnant and lactating mothers were at high risk as they are unable to work, cannot access health centres (which are far away), and are malnourished. This is particularly the case for those living on reduced food rations. Due to their care responsibilities, they are less able to access work. Indeed, the combination of childcare responsibilities and limited economic opportunities makes it especially

'I am going with other men because this is all I can do right now. I have no job. My husband is with another woman and I am meant to be caring for these children.' 24/07/2017, SSI, young adult female, Kyangwali).

challenging for single carers to meet household needs, leaving children at risk of neglect when carers are forced to leave them unattended in order to earn an income. Single women also find it difficult to leave their children behind in order to seek medical treatment if they have been sexually assaulted, which puts everyone in the household at risk if the condition is to worsen.²⁴

In Kyangwali, a respondent pointed out that the majority of women who had small businesses were, in fact, with supportive partners. For single women with children, a respondent noted that it is difficult to be economically active even if they have access to capital.²⁵ Further, they are also unable to undertake laborious agricultural activities without support. Some young, adult women also reported engaging in survival sex, in particular those on reduced rations or no food assistance, since many do not have other opportunities for generating income. If single-headed households are left without assistance or support networks, their vulnerability to food and income insecurity continues as the children are born and growing up. And, as Box 7 points out, male single carers can also be vulnerable.

Box 7: The situation of male single carers

While the current system of assessment identifies 'widows/widowers and single parents' as an extremely vulnerable group, it is not systematically used as a vulnerability classification, especially for men. In Rwamwanja, we interviewed a man who had recently lost his wife to stomach cancer. He is now left with four children, one of whom is two years old. He used to work as an assistant economics professor at a University in DR Congo but now has no option but to farm on a plot of land. He also finds it hard to travel far for work because of his childcare responsibilities: *"After the death of my wife, my life was disorganised. Caring for all my four children is not easy.....the biggest challenge I have is caring for this 2-year child. I am the father and mother to him, I need support."* He has requested EVI/H status but has been denied. (24/07/17, SSI, Adult man, Rwamwanja)

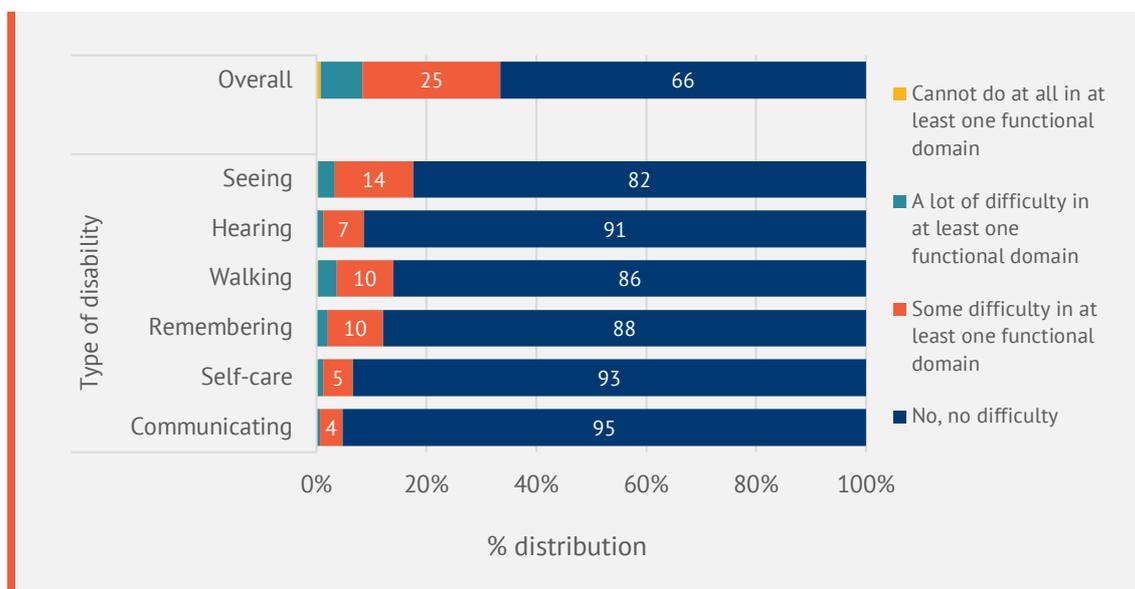
Around 8.4 per cent of the working age population have a severe disability (see Figure 16). Persons with disabilities of working age experience significant challenges, not least lower levels of education than other refugees: 51 per cent have no education compared to 43 per cent of those without a disability (see Annex 5). It is, however, incorrect to conceive of persons with disabilities as necessarily dependent on others. In fact, 31 per cent of persons of working age with a disability have their main responsibility as a carer while 22 per cent report their main activity as working their own plot, 15 per cent are self-employed and 2 per cent work for pay. In fact, only 12 per cent state that they cannot work because of their disability. Nonetheless, they face additional costs associated with

²⁴ 13/07/2017, KII, Samaritan's Purse, Kiryandongo.

²⁵ 26/07/2017, SSI, adult woman, Kyangwali.

their disability which reduce the standard of living of their households but also make it more difficult to access the labour market.

Figure 16: Persons of working age, by severity and type of disability



A challenge for some persons of working age is the responsibility of fostering. Around 1.3 per cent of children are fostered and, while it is not many, it can place significant pressure on the foster carers (see Box 8). Once a child is declared an *unaccompanied minor*, they are either put in foster care or registered as a child-headed household. For foster care, there is a process of identifying suitable foster families, which includes an assessment of their capacity for taking care of children while receiving training on child rights. As per UNHCR’s guidelines, children should be fostered by families from the same nationality or ethnicity and the maximum number of foster children should not exceed six in a household. During a large influx of refugees, there are normally significant numbers of unaccompanied minors whose families cannot be located or identified. In such cases refugees at the transit centre, especially young couples, are asked to volunteer to temporarily foster unaccompanied minors. Once unaccompanied minors have been accepted within a family as a foster child, they no longer receive a separate ration as an EVI/H but are given the same ration as other family members. In Rwamwanja, key informants confirmed that no additional cash support is provided to foster parents, with the reason given that it would create perverse incentives (although this is difficult to understand given the costs of caring for a foster child). In the South-West and West Nile, it was also confirmed that foster children are simply added on to existing family registration cards with the carers

‘I am also taking care of orphans. But how can I take care of these children, I also have my own children. The nursery is UGX 30,000 per year per child. I go and get a little work to try and get the money. These children need help and the foster parents need support.’
(18/07/2017, FGD, CMC/FMC, Kiryandongo).

often receiving no special support as the children are no longer 'unaccompanied' (apart from one-off help from NGOs). Therefore, fostering children makes a family more vulnerable to food insecurity than if they had not taken on the responsibility. The issue is discussed further in Section 7.6.

Box 8: Examples of challenges faced by foster carers

In Nakivale, the researchers interviewed an adult woman who had arrived in 2015 with her husband and her two children. Her husband's left hand is partially paralyzed from an injury, a common sight in the settlement. However, he is not classified as an EVI since the disability is not considered serious enough. They both work as agricultural workers but he is not able to work as much as her. They were also 'given' four children as HIJRA – an NGO contracted by UNHCR – requested her to temporarily care for them while they looked for their parents. It has been a year with no follow up from HIJRA. She has assumed full responsibility for the children and sends them to school although she constantly worries about whether she can provide adequate food and clothing. They all receive rations according to their date of arrival.

In Adjumani, a woman arrived with her six children in 2014; her husband had died in inter-tribal conflict. Since January 2016, she has had the responsibility of being a foster parent to an additional five children whose parents died in South Sudan. She knows them from back home as they were neighbours and they had fled together, "The children saw their parents being killed too.²⁶ It was chaotic, we were all running for our lives. I came here with my children. My neighbour's children came here on their own.²⁷" On arrival, the children were living as a child-headed household on a separate plot of land. However, HIJRA decided that they required supervision and care. The children mentioned that their former neighbour was familiar to them and so HIJRA approached her to provide foster care. She is quite stressed nowadays as one of the boys has Hepatitis B and she does not have the financial means to adequately care for these children: "It gets tough without any support". She had received UGX70,000 as a one-time payment for fostering the children and she now attends sensitization sessions for foster parents. Nowadays, she collects grass and sells it at UGX1,000 a bundle to supplement her income. However, it takes her 2-3 hours to cut enough for a bundle. Between finding supplementary income and caring for 11 children, she is not left with much time to rest.

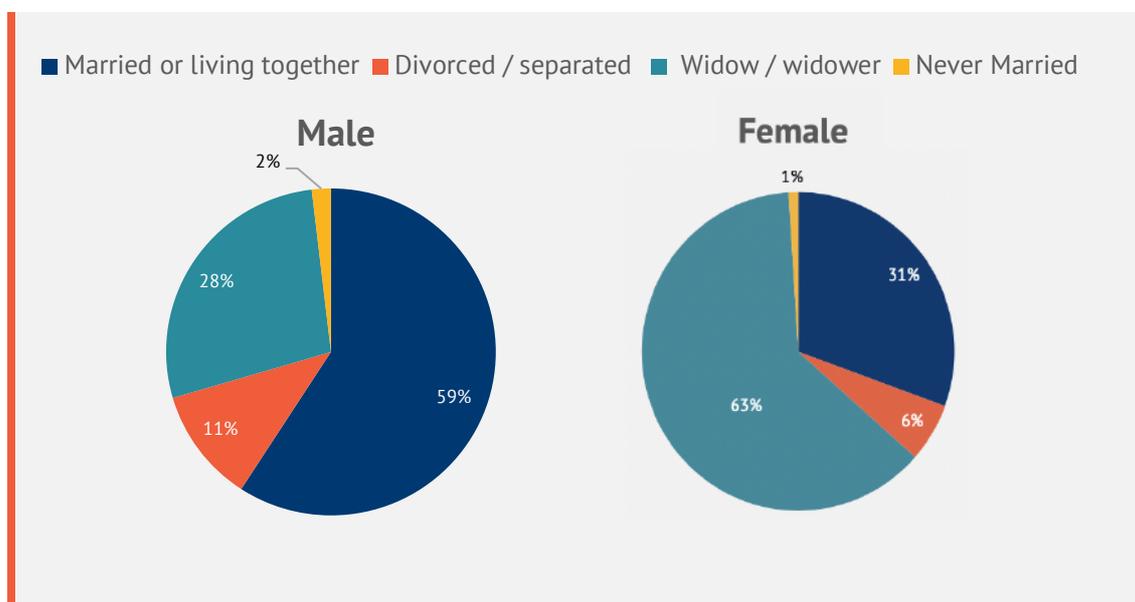
3.2.5 Older persons (60+ years)

Older persons comprise around 4 per cent of the population and are found in 13 per cent of households meaning that their situation is important to address. As Figure 17 indicates, there are significant differences between older men and women in terms of their marital status, with 68 per cent of women either widowed or divorced, compared to 39 per cent of men. This can leave older women particularly vulnerable and at risk of food insecurity. Around 15 per cent of older women and 18 per cent of older men are living alone.

²⁶ Since it was inappropriate to meet the children without a child protection protocol, it is not clear if they were provided any counselling to get over the trauma.

²⁷ 28/7/2017 SSI Female Adult, Adjumani

Figure 17: Distribution of old age refugees by marital status and gender



Older persons emerged throughout the qualitative research as an extremely vulnerable category, disproportionately affected by poverty and homelessness, as a result of a lack of support networks, poor health and disability. Yet, at this age many are shouldering the responsibilities of caring for young children (4 per cent of all households are skipped generation households with 27 per cent of older persons living in skipped generation households, a significant proportion). Many older persons, especially women, arrive in the settlements with young grandchildren, whose parents are missing or deceased.

The challenges are particularly great for those that have not been classified as EVI/Hs and have been subjected to reduced food assistance. Older people themselves cited their greatest problems as: poverty (described as the inability to acquire basic necessities); hunger and homelessness, owing to their deteriorating health and illness; being ‘weak’ or lacking energy; and, loneliness, which also refers to an absence of informal support from others. A number of older people pointed out that they survived solely on the food assistance: without it, they would starve. Older men expressed frustration at not being able to work as hard and, therefore, were unable to diversify their diet with high protein items such as meat and eggs, even when receiving full rations. Instead they are forced to eat “just posho, cassava, beans.”²⁸ Elderly women living on their own or with very young children reported resorting to begging or relying on the good will of others to survive.²⁹

“The elderly are weak and are more vulnerable to falling ill. When they get ill, they are able to receive medication, but no food”. (20/07/17, FGD, Elderly women Nakivale).

²⁸ 25/07/2017, FGD, older males, Kyangwali

²⁹ 25/07/2017, FGD, older women, Kyangwali

3 Socio-Economic and Demographic Characteristics of the Refugee Population

The only alternative they saw was death: “*Then death is certain* [if the assistance stopped].”³⁰

Older persons caring for young children can struggle to afford school-related costs and the majority of elderly respondents in the South West were usually sending just one child or none to school. A number of the older persons have their sons/daughters and their respective families registered as separate households and living nearby. However, they are often either reluctant to ask for help when experiencing hunger as they believe that young families should prioritise their own children.

Older persons are, in the main, not well-educated, with lower levels of education among older women. This, therefore, is likely to hinder their capacity to engage in the labour market which many still need to do, assuming that they are not yet too disabled.

Table 9 shows the type of activities and occupations engaged in by older persons. Around 32 per cent continue to have caregiving as their main activity, including 38 per cent of women. 16 per cent of older persons work their own plots as their main activity, but very few are self-employed or in wage labour. Nonetheless, in Nakivale, older men reported being obliged to work as agricultural labourers in host communities when the food transfer does not come through or does not last the whole month. Around 12 per cent of older persons regard themselves as ‘retired.’

Table 9: Distribution of older persons by main activity or occupation by gender and disability status (percentage)

Main activity or occupation	Gender		Disability		Total
	Male	Female	No	Yes	
Homemaker (looking after children / others / home)	22.1	38.5	35.9	23.6	32.4
Working own plot/ looking after livestock	19.2	13.5	15.2	16.7	15.7
Long term sick or disabled	12.7	12.9	7.5	25.9	12.8
Retired	12.6	12.0	10.9	15.6	12.3
Self-employed	14.0	10.6	12.3	10.6	11.8
Unemployed but not actively searching for a job in the last four weeks	8.3	5.6	7.9	3.5	6.6
Unemployed and actively searching for a job in the last four weeks	5.4	1.5	3.8	0.9	3.0
Helping family member without pay with their business	1.0	0.3	0.8	0.0	0.6
Working for pay	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.0	0.4
Full time scholar or student at school, university, college etc.	0.0	0.4	0.3	0.0	0.2
Other	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1
Refused	0.2	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.6

³⁰ 27/07/17, SSI, Elderly woman, Rwamwanja

As described in Section 3.1.3, the highest prevalence of disability is among older persons. As they become increasingly frail, older people are less able to work and become more vulnerable. Around 26 per cent of older persons claimed to be unable to work due to their disability or chronic illness. For those living alone, the situation is more severe. However, around 23 per cent of older persons with disabilities stated that their main occupation was 'caregiver' which, as Box 9 shows, can be particularly challenging. If vulnerable disabled older persons do not receive EVI/H food rations, their situation can be dire.

Box 9: Experience of a disabled older person

In Kiryandongo, an elderly blind woman with six grandchildren under 15 years of age had not been identified as an EVI/H at registration. However, the registration officers simultaneously decided not to give her a plot of land as she was blind. Ever since, there have been no further verifications and she and her family are gradually going through the process of being removed from the food assistance. At present, she only receives 50 per cent rations, *"At the time the ration was cut it made things worse. We became sick more often."*

3.3 Household expenditures

Low household expenditures are likely to result in higher food insecurity. When refugee wellbeing is measured by their per capita expenditure, 75 per cent are living in extreme poverty when assessed against the international extreme poverty line of US\$1.90 per person per day per person in purchasing power parity (PPP) terms, which is UGX2,284 per day per person. This was also reflected in the refugees' own perceptions when interviewed during the qualitative research.³¹ As Figure 18 shows, just over a quarter of the refugee population live on less than UGX1,000 per day which is around US\$0.84 per day (PPP) and US\$0.28 per day in actual dollars while 69 per cent live on less than UGX2,000 per day, which corresponds to US\$1.68 per day (PPP), or US\$0.56 per day in actual dollars. Only 9 per cent of refugee households have per capita expenditures above UGX5,000 per day which may be understood as indicating some form of 'self-reliance' (although there is no indication that these expenditures are stable and will not fall in the near future). Yet, these figures include food assistance and the situation would be much worse once the transfers are deducted from per capita expenditure.

Figure 18 shows the predicted cumulative distribution of household per capita expenditures before transfers are taken into account (orange dashed line). Those at the bottom of the distribution are the most reliant on food assistance. When food assistance

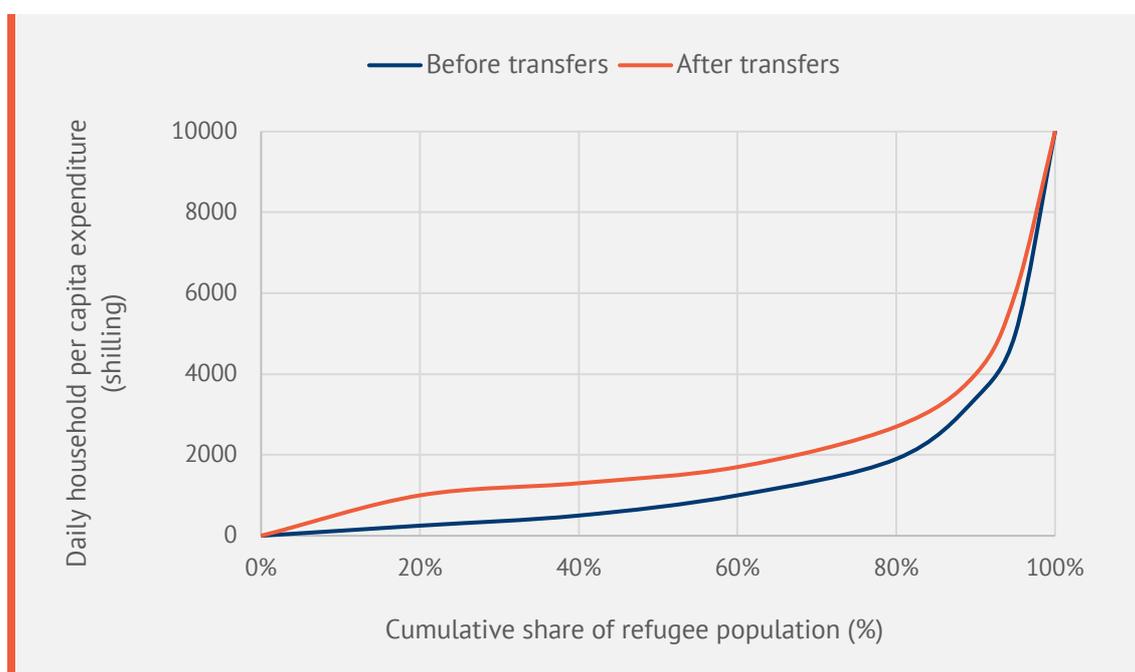
³¹ Although an equivalence scale is commonly applied to adjust household total expenditure to economies of scales, this report uses household per capita expenditure as a welfare measure. Supplemental analysis to this report indicates that, irrespective of the choice of equivalence scale, no significant changes in wealth rankings by household type or by 5-year age groups are observed (see Annex 5 for more information).

is deducted from household expenditures, close to 82 per cent of refugees are living in households where the daily per capita expenditure is, at most, UGX 2,000 a day while 62 per cent are living on less than UGX 1,000 a day.

Box 10: Comparing the research findings with the UNHCR’s Livelihood study undertaken at the end of 2016

The UNHCR’s *Livelihoods Socio-Economic Assessment in the Refugee Hosting Districts-Report* from 2016 provides an overview of total household income (Figure 10, p.20). It is based on one question asking the respondent about total household income over the past 12 months. At a first glance, the refugees appear to be doing quite well: nearly half of households earn UGX500,000 or more. However, in reality, actual incomes are extremely low. Once the total annual household income by is divided by 12 months and the number of regular household members, the median per capita income per day for a household drops to only UGX270 (US\$0.24 PPP) and only 10 per cent of people earn more than UGX1,400 (US\$1.30 PPP) per day, which indicates a lack of self-reliance even for some of the most well-off refugee households. It suggests that the situation found by UNHCR’s study is potentially worse than that found by the URVS.

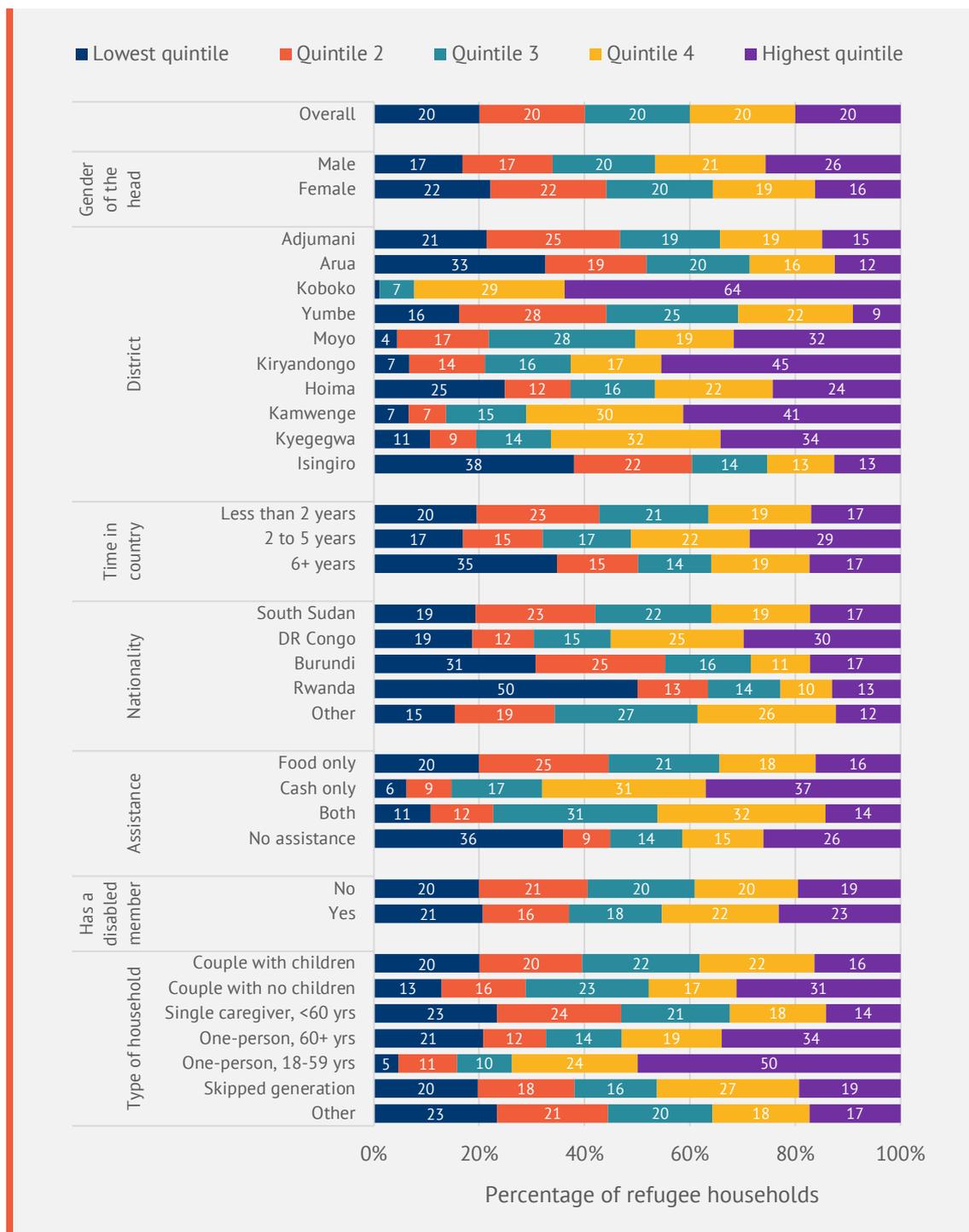
Figure 18: Distribution of household per capita expenditure among refugees in Uganda, after and before transfers³²



³² This assumes that all households consume all of the rations received. Caution needs to be taken with this result since many households did not know or refused to provide the amount of ration received. For households that received rations and did not give the total amount received we assumed the ration per member in the food or cash assistance card to be the same as the average in the primary sampling unit. The food ration is converted into Uganda shillings using the following conversion factor: 12kg = UGX 31,000.

The main factors linked to differences in household per capita expenditures (pre-transfer) are geography, nationality, type of household, length of time in Uganda and the type of assistance (as highlighted in Figure 19). The proportion of households living in the lowest quintile of all refugees in Koboko (Lobule settlement), Moyo (Palorinya), Kamwenge (Rwamwanja) and Kiryandongo is significantly lower than 20 per cent. In most of these districts, refugees have access to land and are located in areas more conducive to agriculture. Refugees, therefore, have much better opportunities to grow their own food compared to, for example, most of the settlements in West Nile. Similarly, Koboko, Kiryandongo and Kamwenge stand out in terms of the proportion living in the top expenditure quintile (all with more than 40 per cent). However, of particular concern for the viability of the 'self-reliance' agenda is the prevalence of refugees living on very low incomes in Nakivale, given that many have been in Uganda for a long period. This demonstrates that refugees do not necessarily become more 'self-reliant' over time, in particular if there is limited access to fertile land or other income opportunities.

Figure 19: Distribution of refugee households by household per capita expenditure quintiles and different background characteristics (pre-transfer)



Refugee households from DRC appear to have a higher proportion of households in the top quintile of per capita expenditure than other national groups, although over half of the households are still living on less than UGX2,000 per day (pre-transfer). Those with the lowest levels of household expenditure are refugees from Burundi and Rwanda.

Expenditures tend to be higher among those who have been in Uganda for between 2 to 5 years.

There are significant variations in per capita expenditures in terms of the type of household. Overall, if households have children, they are more likely to have lower expenditures: the lowest per capita expenditures are among single carer households aged under 60 years and skipped generation households (e.g. older people living only with children). The households performing better are those without children, in particular if they are of working age. The expenditure of single older persons is better than average but, still, over 50 per cent are living on less than UGX2,000 per day (pre-transfer).

In terms of disability status, there are no clear differences between those with and without members with disabilities. However, it is important to bear in mind that persons with disabilities experience significant additional costs so that, when a household with a person with a disability is compared to a household with a similar per capita expenditure, the standard of living of the disabled household is likely to be much lower. This is almost certainly the case among refugees in Uganda but, due to the nature of the refugee population, it is not possible to estimate the additional costs caused by disability.

Box 11: An example of the additional cost of disability

The qualitative research showed that the additional costs of caregiving, healthcare and transport should be taken into consideration in the assessment of food insecurity of households with persons with disability. Even in the presence of healthy adults, caregiving responsibilities takes away time that could have been spent on productive activities and, therefore, impacts negatively on the household's potential for securing food and income.

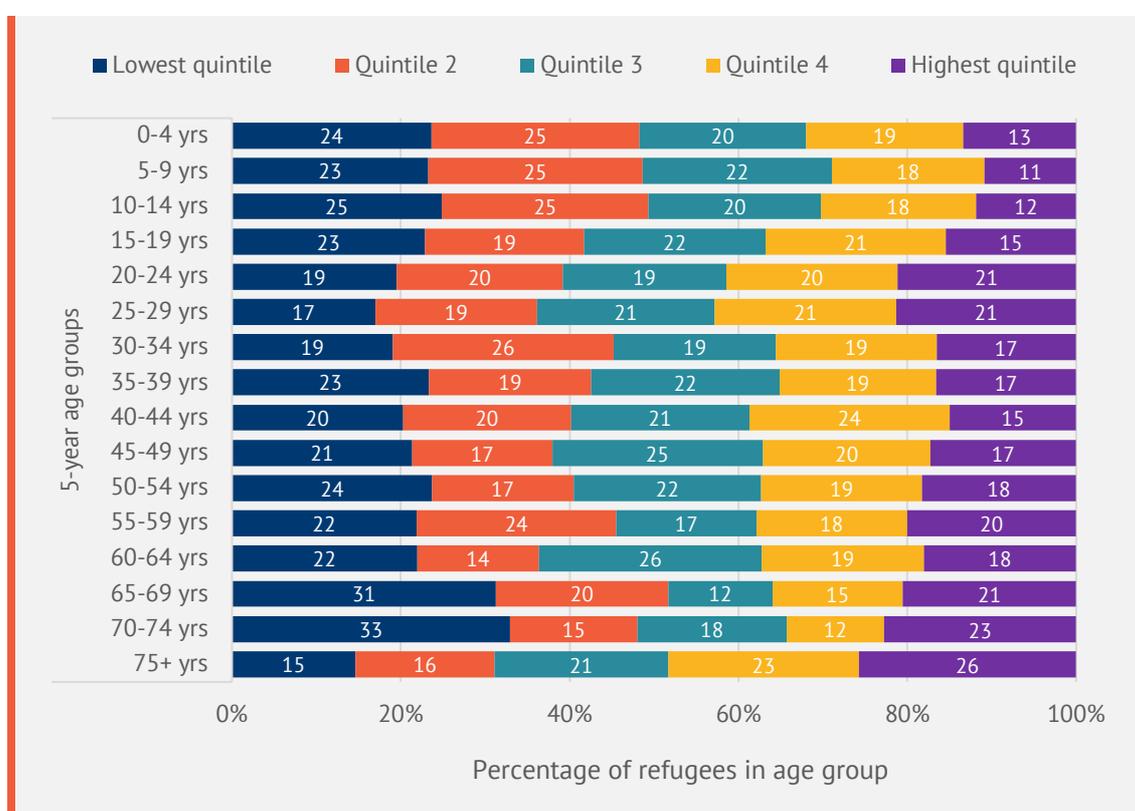
Joseph is a young man of 23 years in Rwamwanja. He is responsible for his 12-year old brother who has developed a disability over the last 10 months. They arrived earlier this year. Even though their parents live in the same settlement, they are forced to spend long periods outside in search of work. According to Joseph, his brother gradually became weak and immobile while they were still in Congo, and it was a struggle to bring him to Uganda.

Joseph is the primary carer of his brother, washing and cooking for him and is responsible for taking him to the health centre. He mentioned that is important for him to engage his younger brother in conversations so that he does not feel lonely. Due to the demands placed on him, Joseph is unemployed, as he finds it difficult to leave his brother behind and look for work. However, they have significant expenses since availing proper treatment for the brother would involve significant expenses. He would prefer to receive cash from the food assistance so they could be in a better position to pay for medical expenses, but it is not an option for new arrivals. *"If I had chance to get cash, that is better because the treatment of my brother needs a lot of money."* On the other hand, they left the plot that was allotted to them for free to move closer to the health centre. They are currently paying UGX10,000 a month for the rented house by leasing out their allotted land for UGX20,000 per season (i.e. UGX20,000 x 2 seasons or UGX40,000 a year). At present, they sell approximately 15 kgs of their food rations every month to manage the expenses: *"life here is very difficult, jobs are difficult to get and we only wait for food every month."*

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Those receiving cash assistance have much higher levels of expenditure than those receiving food transfers. Indeed, 37 per cent of those on cash assistance are in the top quintile of the refugee population. Those not receiving any form of assistance have, on average, higher pre-transfer per capita expenditures than those on food assistance, but are more likely to be in the lowest per capita expenditure quintile. However, this is an important group to consider since they demonstrate a potential future scenario, when assistance is withdrawn after a few years. Around 69 per cent of refugee households not receiving food assistance are living on less than UGX2,000 per day and, therefore, should be considered as living in extreme poverty. Figure 20 shows the distribution of refugees by age group using household per capita expenditures (pre-transfer). There is minimal difference across most age groups in terms of household expenditure quintiles. Older persons, especially between 65 and 75 years, are more likely to be in the lowest quintile although this is less likely among refugees aged 75 years and above. However, this may well reflect that less vulnerable refugees live longer. Alternatively, it may reflect that the oldest refugees are in a more difficult situation but receive greater support and sympathy from other refugees.

Figure 20: Distribution of refugees by household per capita expenditure quintiles and 5-year age groups (pre-transfer)



3.3.2 Comparison of expenditures among the refugee and national populations

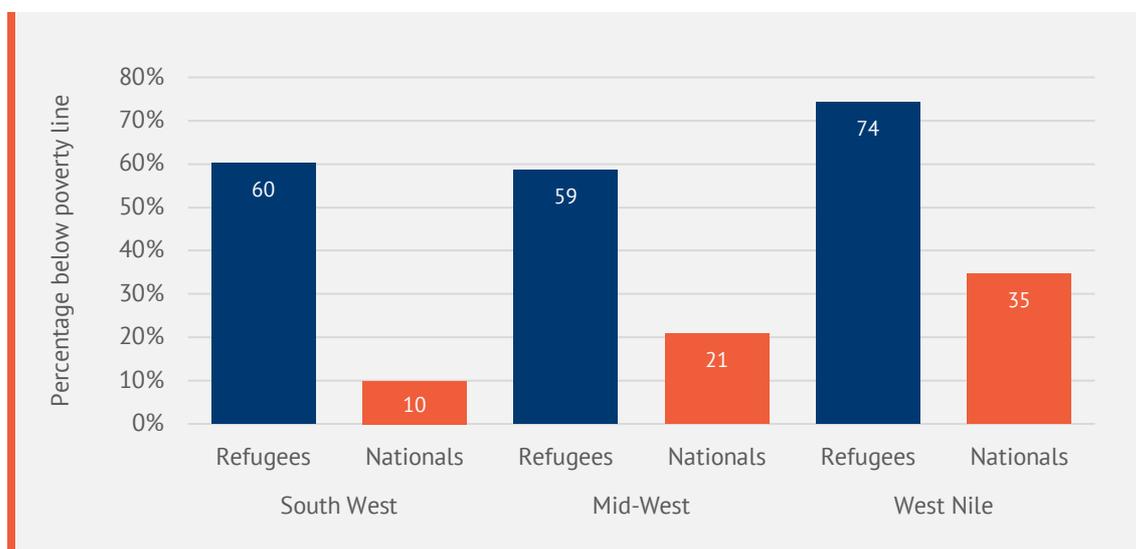
During the qualitative research, some representatives of host communities and local authorities expressed the view that the refugees may be better off than the local population, because of their access to food assistance, as well as better health care services in the settlements.

However, refugees face a number of challenges making them more vulnerable to food insecurity than the host communities including: lower access to land; lower access to education, skills training and employment and income generating opportunities; more limited social support systems, as people have become separated from their families and communities; more limited access to markets, as the settlements are relatively isolated; and, less productive assets alongside limited access to credit. All of these factors mean that refugees are significantly more vulnerable to income and food insecurity than the host communities.

As Figure 21 shows, in all regions, refugees are much more likely to be living in poverty than the host populations, even though they are receiving food assistance. Overall, close to 70 per cent of refugees are living on less than the national poverty standard while around a quarter of rural Ugandans consume less than the poverty line (about 25 per cent). There are large variations in poverty levels among refugees across the three regions ranging from 59 per cent in the Mid-West to 74 per cent in the West Nile. Meanwhile about 35 per cent of Ugandans in the West Nile, 21 per cent in the Mid-West and 10 per cent in the South Western were living under than the poverty line in 2016/17.³³ Nonetheless, the vast majority of Ugandans are still poor or vulnerable with average per capita expenditure at less than UGX3,300 per day. This is particularly the case in West Nile, where the average per capita expenditure is around UGX2,200 per day. Even in the Mid-West and South West, the aggregate numbers are likely to hide significant differences between districts and sub-counties, with lower expenditure levels in remote rural areas.

³³ This calculation compares the Uganda National Household Survey 2016/17 within the same districts that are surveyed for the refugee survey.

Figure 21: Comparison of poverty status between refugee and national populations³⁴



3.4 Asset index

Figure 22 shows the results from an examination of an asset index for refugee households (the methodology for determining the index is explained in Box 12). It is a measure of wellbeing used in Demographic and Health Surveys but, as Figure 22 indicates, its determination of household wellbeing is different to the per capita expenditure measure. For example, only 25 per cent of those in the poorest asset index quintile are in the poorest expenditure quintile while, in the highest quintile, the overlap is 47 per cent of households.

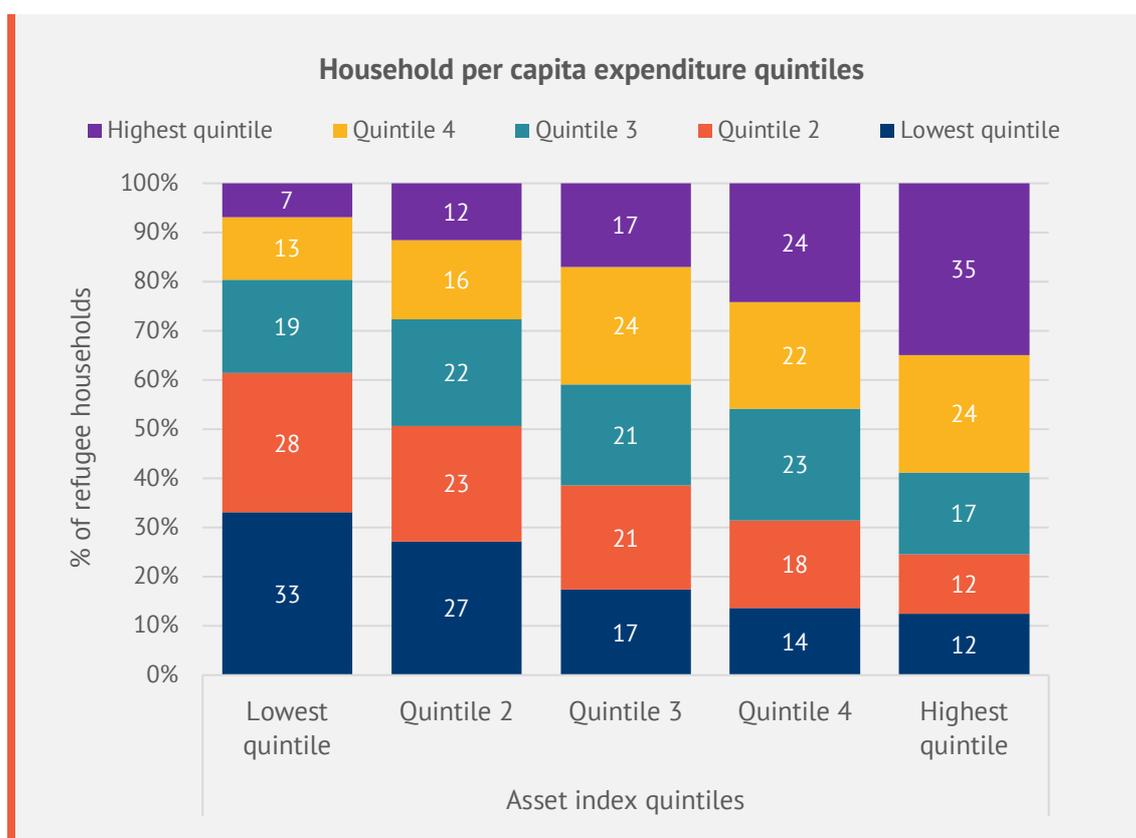
Box 12: Description of the Asset Index

It is often difficult to ascertain the exact value of assets, especially in a volatile and informal setting such as Uganda's refugee settlements. In order to obtain a sense of how wealthy a household is within the sampled population, an asset index can be created. This study relied on the principal component method used for Demographic and Health surveys. In line with the DHS methodology, the asset index includes whether the household has servants, the size of the land, type of water source and type of toilet, type of cooking fuel and access to electricity, type of roof and walls, types and number of animals and the ownership of different durable assets, and if households are in debt. Households are scored based on their ownership of assets. While the index number on its own is not particularly useful, it can be used to divide the population into wealth quintiles for further analysis.

³⁴ Poverty headcount estimates for nationals were drawn from the Uganda National Household Survey 2016/17 data, including only the same districts within which the refugee study was conducted. Refugee poverty headcount estimates were calculated using the 2016/17 rural poverty lines adjusted for inflation and using Uganda's adult equivalent scale. Caution should be taken when interpreting these results. Although the UNHS uses similar recall periods to compute expenditure, the survey modules are different and use distinct numbers of consumption items. Therefore, the computed consumption expenditure for refugees is not directly comparable with the consumption expenditure found in the UNHS.

The asset index divides refugee households into quintiles so is a measure of relative wellbeing within the refugee population: it does not indicate how well households are doing relative to the national population. Further, the longer that households have been in country, the greater the chance of them accumulating assets (unless they brought assets with them into Uganda). However, even those refugees in the highest wealth quintile have few assets.

Figure 22: Comparison of households within the asset index and expenditure quintiles



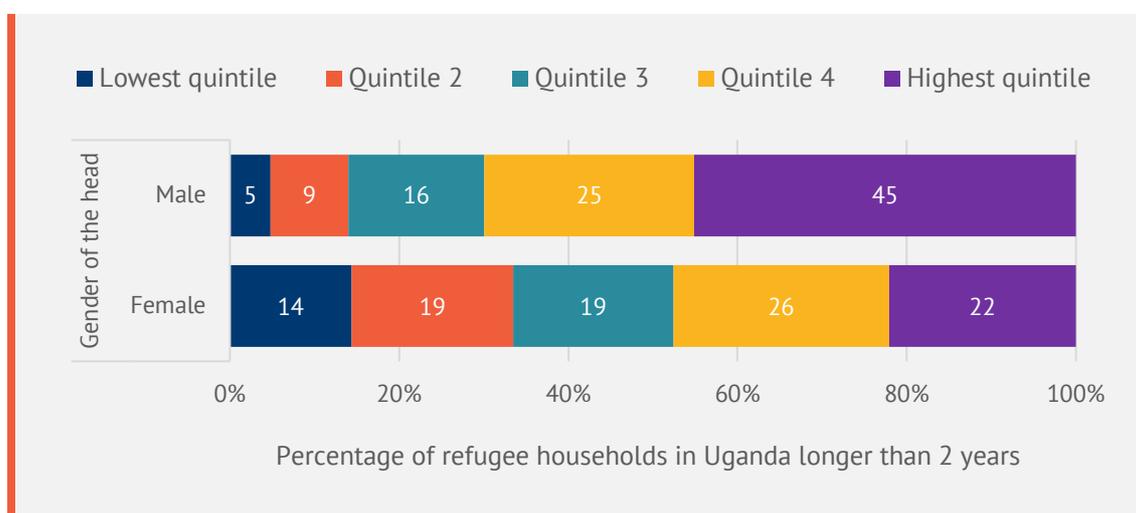
There are significant differences between categories of the population when compared using an asset index (see Annex 5 for further details):

- Across districts, refugees in Koboko, Moyo, Hoima, Kamwenge, Kyegegwa and Isingiro have higher asset index scores while, scores are lower in Yumbe which is unsurprising given that these households have been in Uganda for much less time.
- Children and older persons have slightly lower asset scores than working age adults while persons with disabilities with communication and self-care functional limitations – which are linked more to intellectual challenges – having lower asset index scores.
- Unsurprisingly, the longer people have been in Uganda, the higher their asset index, which is highest for those born in Uganda.

3 Socio-Economic and Demographic Characteristics of the Refugee Population

- The South Sudanese are the group with the lowest asset index, reflecting the recent arrival in Uganda of many of them. But, even among South Sudanese refugees who have been in Uganda for at least two years, their asset index tends to be considerably lower on average.
- Those receiving cash assistance have a higher asset index than those receiving food or no assistance. Again, this is not surprising given that the cash gives them more opportunities to purchase assets while they have also been in Uganda for longer.
- Among household types, skipped generation households have lower asset index scores than all other categories, although relatively low scores are also found among single carer households and older persons living alone.
- Excluding those that arrived in the past two years, female headed households struggle more to accumulate assets over time compared to male-headed households (see Figure 23).

Figure 23: Comparison of households having been in Uganda for at least two years within the asset index and sex of the household head



4 Livelihoods and Income Sources

This Chapter considers the main livelihoods and coping strategies used by refugee households to obtain food, income and sustain themselves.³⁵ For a high proportion of refugees, food assistance is a major source of income. However, the long-term objective is for refugees – if they remain in Uganda – to become ‘self-reliant’. Currently, this implies that all non-EVI/H households should be able to build livelihoods that enable them to live well, without transfers. The first section examines the extent to which households have access to land; the second provides an overview of refugee households’ main sources of income and food; the third analyses the occupations of refugees and their main livelihoods strategies and activities; and, the final section considers security in the face of covariate shocks and diversification.

4.1 Access to land

A key component of the self-reliance strategy is the provision of land to refugees. However, over the years, the amount of land given to refugees on arrival has been reduced, with some recent arrivals only receiving plots of thirty-by-thirty metres or twenty-by-twenty metres. Table 10 sets out the amount of land that refugees are officially meant to receive – according to the OPM settlement commandants in each of the settlements visited for the qualitative research – alongside the reported land possession in the household survey, as well as comments from refugees during the qualitative research.

³⁵ To date, no clear definition on refugee livelihoods has emerged, illustrating the complexity of the concept. A widely accepted definition of “livelihoods” is given by Chambers and Conway (Chambers and Conway, 1992): “A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets and activities required for a means of living. A sustainable livelihood allows to cope with and to recover from stress and shocks, to maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets to provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation. It also contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels and in the long and short term.” Essentially, livelihoods refer to the means used to maintain and sustain life.

Table 10: Land provided to refugees in the settlements

Settlement	Official size of plots currently provided to new arrivals, according to OPM	Land possession according to the household survey	Comments by refugees during the qualitative research
Nakivale	50x100 metres (~1 acre)	No land: 60% Less than 0.5 acres: 18% 0.5-1 acres: 14% 1-2 acres: 6% More than 2 acres: 1%	According to OPM, there is land available and new arrivals are given plots of 50x100 metres. However, refugees reported now being given as little as 20x20 metres. Nakivale faces severe issues of depleted soils and drought.
Rwamwanja	50x50 metres (~1/2 acre)	No land: 40% Less than 0.5 acres: 43% 0.5-1 acres: 16% 1-2 acres: 1% More than 2 acres: 0%	Most refugees were unable to say exactly how much land they have. The land is generally fertile and well suited for agricultural production.
Kyangwali	50x100 metres (~1 acre)	No land: 28% Less than 0.5 acres: 28% 0.5-1 acres: 28% 1-2 acres: 14% More than 2 acres: 2%	Many refugees reported not being given land, and others reported having been given anything between ¼ and 1 acre. The land is generally fertile and well-suited for agricultural production.
Kiryandongo	50x100 metres (~1 acre)	No land: 71% Less than 0.5 acres: 18% 0.5-1 acres: 8% 1-2 acres: 2% More than 2 acres: 1%	The amount of land refugees said they have been given, as well as the yield from the land, varied widely from person to person. The land size varied from less than ½ to 1 Acre, although many interviewees stated that they had not been given any land. Many said that their land was being gradually reduced as more refugees arrived. Members of the FMC/CMC said that, at first, people were given enough land – 50x100 metres – but that it has later been reduced, first to 50x50 metres and now to 25x25 metres. ³⁶ Land fertility varies, but the land is generally well-suited for agricultural production.
Bidibidi	30x30 metres (~1/4 acre)	No land: 92% Less than 0.5 acres: 6% 0.5-1 acres: 1% 1-2 acres: 1% More than 2 acres: 0%	OPM reported allocating plots of 30x30 metres for housing. Refugees were reportedly also supposed to be allocated 50x50 metre plots for cultivation, but this has so far not been possible because of difficulties reaching agreements with host communities over access to land. Most refugees are, therefore, not given land for cultivation, only for housing. Refugees complained that the land in the settlement is rocky and cannot yield any harvest.

³⁶ 17/07/2017, FGD, FMC/CMC, Kiryandongo

4 Livelihoods and income sources

Adjumani	30x30 metres (~1/4 acre)	No land: 94% Less than 0.5 acres: 4% 0.5-1 acres: 2% 1-2 acres: 0% More than 2 acres: 0%	OPM reported that refugees are provided plots of 30x30 metres for housing, although refugees sometimes reported less. As in Bidibidi, there has been difficulties acquiring land for cultivation, although this varies between the different settlements in Adjumani district.
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Overall, only 29 per cent per cent of refugee households in the UVRs survey reported having access to land that could be used for gardening or agriculture (including livestock rearing).³⁷ This is unsurprising, since the qualitative research found that refugees do not consider the small plots received by most as adequate for cultivation, although many do cultivate small gardens. In addition, many refugees reported having left the land that they had originally been allocated because it was in remote and unsafe areas or too far from friends and families. The findings of our research are broadly in line with the latest FSNA survey (2017) and UNHCRs' 2016/17 livelihoods survey (as shown in Box 13).

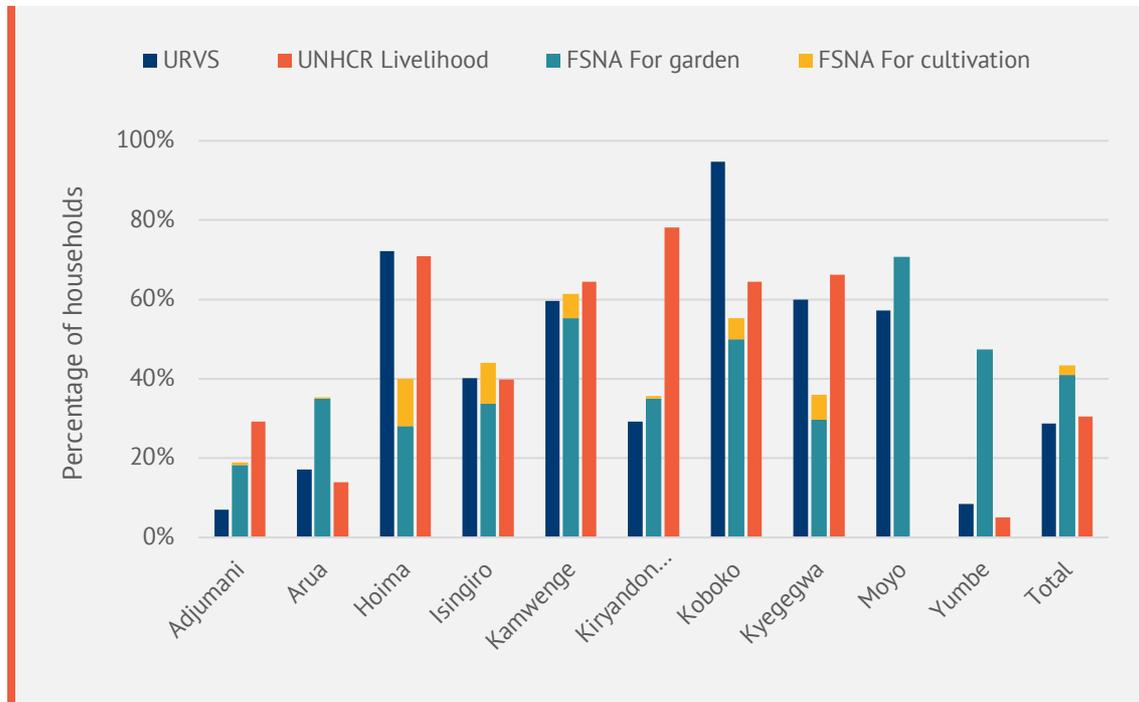
Box 13: Access to land according to three surveys among refugee households

Figure 24 shows access to land according to three surveys that have been recently carried out: the Uganda Refugee Vulnerability Survey (URVS), the 2017 FSNA, and the study of refugee livelihoods carried out by REEV Consult for UNHCR. The three studies are broadly in agreement although the questions posed were slightly different. The REEV study seems to overestimate the access to land in Kiryandongo settlement, but it should be noted that this result is based on a very small sample of 117 households, which does not appear representative of the population in the settlement (e.g. 18 per cent of the sample are Kenyan nationals, despite these making up a very small proportion of the population in Kiryandongo).³⁸ The 2017 FSNA shows higher rates of access to land in West Nile settlements such as Arua, Moyo and Yumbe, but practically all of the respondents who said they have access to land also said that they only have land for gardening, not for cultivation. Another difference is that the UNHCR survey was carried out in December 2016 and January 2017, while URVS and FSNA were undertaken in September and October 2017 and, therefore, reflect the large influx of refugees during the first 8-9 months of 2017. Lastly, the three surveys implemented different sampling strategies, with the URVS having the largest sample of refugee households (4,881 households, compared to 2,980 in the 2017 FSNA and 2,000 in the UNHCR livelihoods survey). The higher sample means that its results are likely to be more reliable.

³⁷ The question asked was: "Does anyone in this household have access to land that is, or could be, used for the purposes of food gardening or agriculture (including livestock keeping)?"

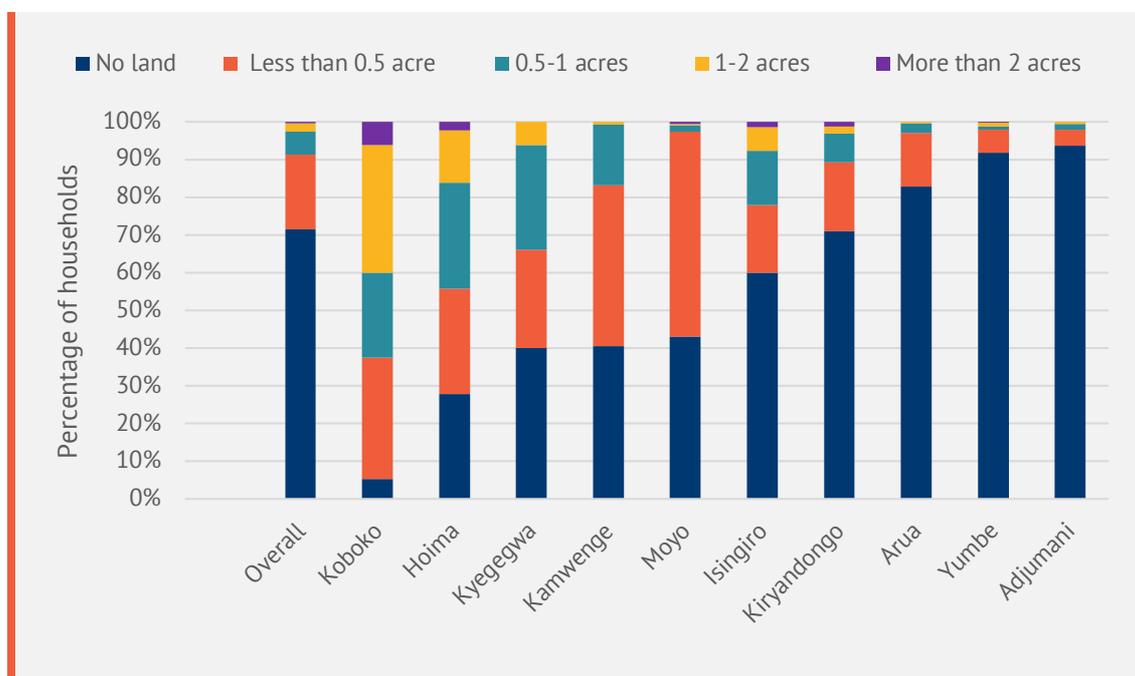
³⁸ The published report shows different numbers, but these do not conform with the number of respondents in the dataset.

Figure 24: Access to land reported in the UVRs, 2017 FSNA and 2016/17 UNHCR livelihoods survey



As Figure 25 shows, most refugees with access to land have small plots: only nine per cent of refugee households report possession of more than half an acre and three per cent more than one acre. In reality, only with an acre or more is there any chance of refugees deriving a livelihood – however meagre – from the land (assuming it is of good quality, which often it is not). OPM recognises the challenge of small plots of land and, in Bidibidi, where people are given small plots – mainly for residency – there have been efforts by OPM to arrange for refugees to access agricultural land. However, negotiations with the host community have not yet allowed for this to happen.

Figure 25: Access to land for cultivation by refugees across districts



As Figure 25 also shows, there are large differences in access to land across settlements. As with most other variables, Lobule settlement in Koboko district is an outlier, with much better access to land than other settlements. However, the settlements of Kyangwali (Hoima district), Kyaka II (Kyegegwa District) and Rwamwanja (Kamwenge district) also provide better than average access to land. Some refugees arrived in these settlements in the 1990s and would have had a better chance of having larger plots of land.

In contrast, it is clear that Nakivale settlement (Isingiro district) is overcrowded, although some of the earliest arrivals may have been able to secure larger areas of land. Kiryandongo is also at full capacity and in the qualitative research many refugees reported having to leave the land allocated because it was too far from the reception centre and unsafe. In the West Nile settlements, almost everybody has access to small plots of land, which are insufficient for cultivation.

Figure 26 demonstrates that refugees with more land are more likely to have higher pre-transfer expenditures, reflecting the importance of access to land for income security. Land possession increases steadily with expenditure. However, when examining access to land across food security groups, as determined by the food security index (see Chapter 5), the severely food insecure group are more likely to have access to land, but not necessarily to larger plots of land. The food secure group are more likely to access land larger than 2 acres.

Figure 26 Access to land linked to pre-transfer expenditure bracket and per food security index group



Refugees who have been longer in Uganda generally have access to more land (see Figure 27). This may reflect the fact that refugees used to receive larger areas of land although it could also indicate that some have managed to acquire land for themselves, for example by renting land from nationals. In Adjumani, some refugees wishing to engage in agriculture have negotiated with host communities to come to a mutual agreement over access to land although the vast majority still do not have use of land. Refugees from DRC and Rwanda are more likely to possess land, which may be related to having been in Uganda longer. Nonetheless, as Figure 16 also shows, many refugees who have been in Uganda for more than six years still do not have access to land for cultivation.

Figure 27: Access to land according to length of residence in Uganda



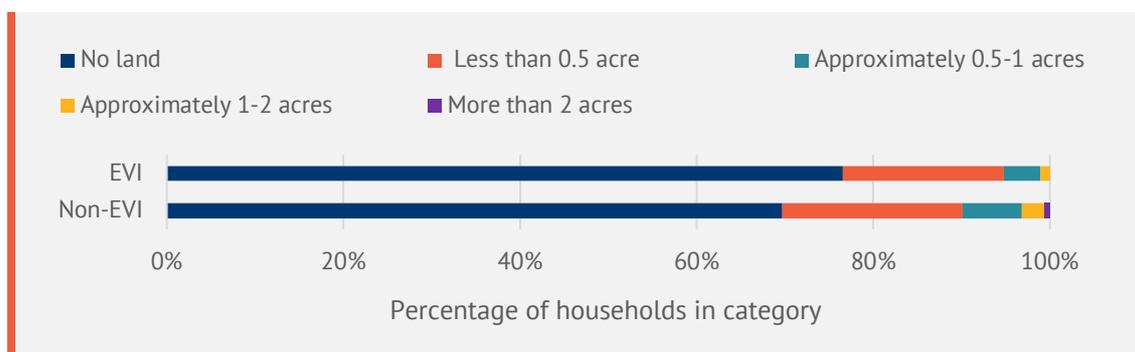
'For those who came earlier, in the 1990s, it was better. We had land and you could even get extra land. You could maybe buy a cow, a bicycle or start some small income generating projects. So those who came earlier are better off, with better houses. Some even have 5 acres of land.' (FGD, adult males, Kyangwali settlement)

'It is right that new people need more support. Those who have been here longer have more land and can sell their produce. Some people have a lot of cattle. People have been working bit by bit to sell crops and buy livestock.' (FGD, CMC members, Kyangwali settlement)

'There are differences between those who came earlier and those who have come later. The main challenge now is that new arrivals are being settled on our land. There is inadequate land.' (Adult male, old case, Kyangwali settlement).

Refugees identified as EVHs in the URVS (according to the methodology described in Chapter 6) have less access to land than none-EVHs (Figure 28). During the qualitative research, several refugees related that people with disabilities or people who fall ill were at risk of not being given land or losing their land if they are unable to cultivate it. Informants stated that many older persons are not given land, but only accommodation.

Figure 28: Access to land per EVH status



Refugees generally experience uncertainty about the security of the land received, which may impede investment. In Nakivale, for example, refugees are encouraged not to plant trees or bananas which would signify permanence of residence. Many refugees are concerned that they have no legal right to land but can lose all or part of it at any time. Refugees perceive that OPM can reallocate land almost at a moment’s notice if new refugees arrive in the settlements. This makes subsistence agriculture a more precarious livelihood strategy than for nationals. The Government owns the land in the South West and Mid-West regions and, therefore, access is controlled by OPM. However, as mentioned above, in the settlements on communal land (the West Nile settlements), access to land for cultivation depends on negotiations with host communities.

‘If they don’t take away our land, we can work and develop by growing maize and other crops to sell. But all our lands are being reduced by OPM.’ (FGD, older men, Nakivale)

‘In 2001, I was given a plot of land by OPM. Recently, OPM resettled people on part of my plot. I was forced by the commandant to leave part of my plot. I cannot grow a lot of maize for food and selling.’ (FGD, older men, Nakivale)

‘If for one season you do not dig, they give it to other people. Maybe a woman is pregnant and does not dig, and she misses a season. Then they take her land.’ (FGD, RWC, Kiryandongo)

‘They gave me land in the bush, it was very far away, but then they took it away, so now I don’t have land. They didn’t even give me a home.’ (FGD, male refugees, Kiryandongo).

In addition, there are significant challenges with the quality of land. Many informants reported that the land given to refugees many years ago is becoming increasingly infertile.

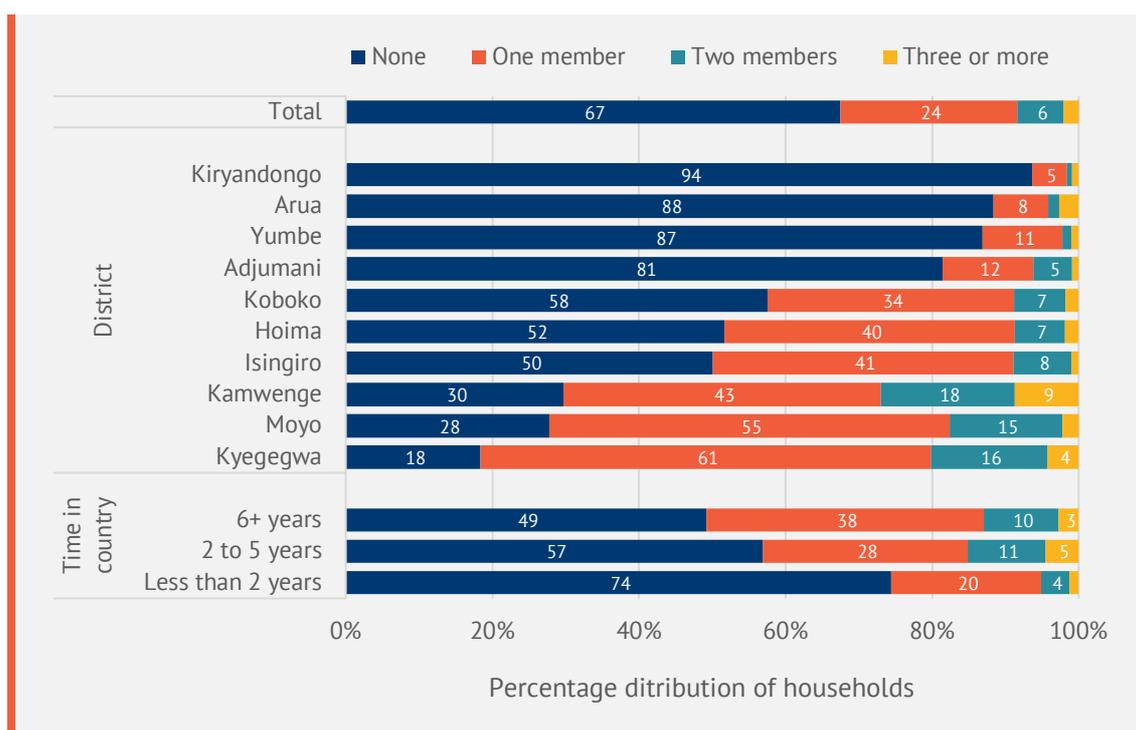
Indeed, much of the land given to refugees in Bidibidi – although only small areas – is regarded as poor quality. Many informants reported that it was stony. Further, refugees receive land that has not been prepared and are given only very simple tools. This can make land clearance very challenging, in particular for vulnerable families with limited labour capacity.

In summary, the evidence from the qualitative and quantitative research – as well as from the two other surveys conducted recently – points in the same direction: only a few refugees have access to sufficient land to enable them to cultivate enough food to feed themselves.

4.2 Main sources of food and income

Income sources are important determinants of the sustainability of a household’s cash flow. In the URVS, respondents were asked about the number of household members earning cash in the month preceding the survey and information about their household’s most important sources of income. Overall, two-thirds of refugee household had no members earning cash income, a quarter (24 per cent) had one cash earner, and 5 per cent had two or more cash earners. There are significant differences based on location and time in country (Figure 29). The share of households without any cash earners ranges from 18 per cent in Kyegegwa to 94 per cent in Kiryandongo, largely a reflection of differential opportunities in local economies. Refugee households that have been in Uganda for six or more years have, on average, twice as many cash-earning family members compared with those in country for less than two years (0.67 versus 0.32 cash earners per household).

Figure 29: Distribution of refugee households by number of household members earning cash income in month preceding the survey



4 Livelihoods and income sources

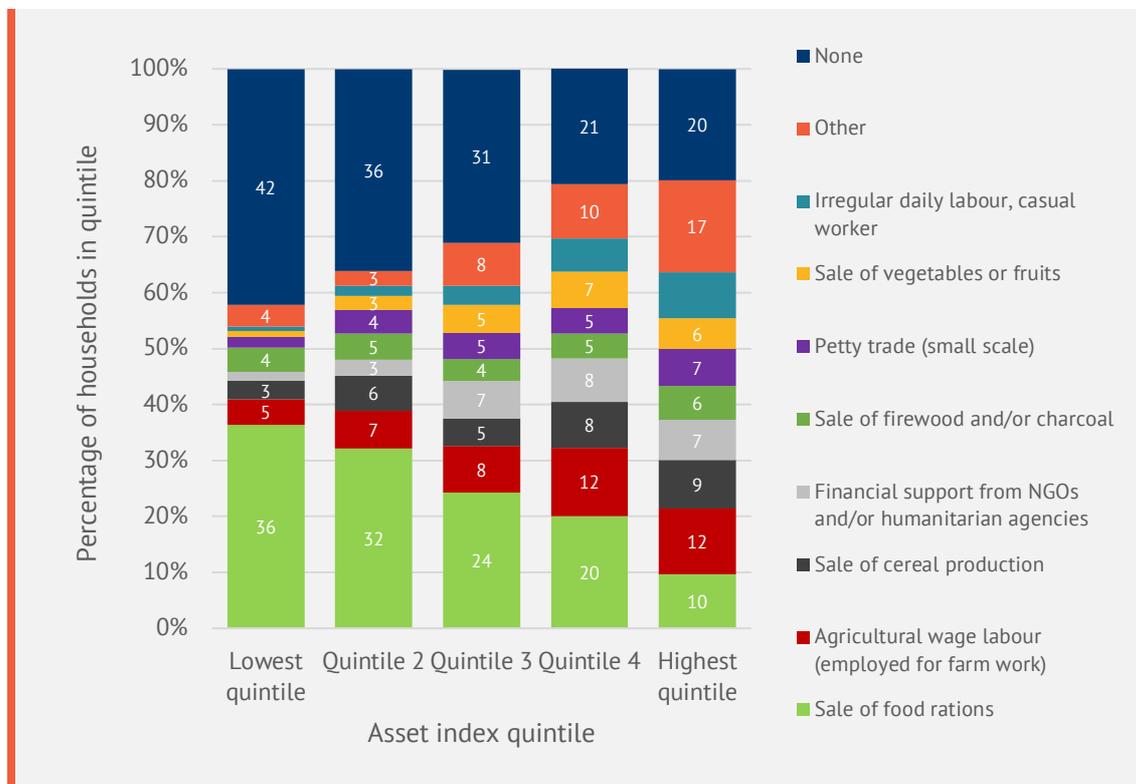
As Table 11 shows, around 25 per cent of all refugee households stated that the sale of their food rations was their main source of income, although this was mainly in the West Nile (and indicates the challenge of only giving food to new refugees, given that they also require some cash). In the Mid-West region, the main sources of income are agricultural wage labour or the sale of crops while in the South West region the main sources are financial support from humanitarian agencies (presumably mainly cash assistance from WFP), agricultural wage labour and other irregular wage labour. However, overall around 30 per cent of refugee households claim to have no source of cash income (apart from the cash assistance received from WFP).

Table 11: Distribution of refugee households by main source of cash income and sub-region

Most important source	Sub-region			Total
	West Nile	Mid-West	South West	
Sale of food rations	32.6	5.6	0.6	24.5
Agricultural wage labour (employed for farm work)	4.3	23.3	19.4	8.7
Sale of cereal production	4.4	15.0	9.4	6.3
Financial support from NGOs and/or humanitarian agencies	1.7	3.6	20.7	5.2
Sale of firewood and/or charcoal	5.3	1.1	3.8	4.7
Petty trade (small scale)	5.6	0.6	1.5	4.4
Sale of vegetables or fruit	4.8	1.1	2.5	4.1
Irregular daily labour, casual worker	2.4	4.6	10.7	4.1
Self-employed (taxi, boda, carpenter, electrician, etc.)	0.9	1.7	2.6	1.3
Private company or NGO employee	0.9	0.5	1.3	0.9
Remittances from outside of the country	0.9	0.2	0.4	0.7
Non-agricultural labour	0.8	0.8	0.5	0.7
Business (larger scale)	0.6	0.4	1.3	0.7
Sale of animals/animal products	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5
Sale of handicrafts	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.5
Government employee (teacher, health agent, administration)	0.4	0.9	0.8	0.5
Sale of cotton, tobacco, or other cash crop	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1
Pension	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.1
Remittances from others in Uganda	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1
Other	1.7	6.1	0.4	1.9
None	31.2	33.2	22.7	29.9

Figure 30 shows the relationship between sources of cash income and asset index rankings. Those with no cash income or who depend on the sale of food rations are more likely to be in the lowest asset quintiles (probably reflecting the recent arrival of many in Uganda). The receipt of cash assistance or engagement in the sale of agricultural produce, agricultural wage labour and petty trade are more associated with higher asset index quintiles.

Figure 30: Distribution of refugee households by main source of cash income and asset index quintiles



Refugee households rely on a mix of different food sources. Figure 31 shows the different sources that households accessed for their food consumption in the seven days preceding the survey. On average, 40 per cent of households consumed some foods produced in their own garden or farm, although there is significant regional variation (ranging from a low of 20 per cent in Isingiro to a high of 72 per cent in Moyo). Around 90 per cent of households consumed purchased foods while 45 per cent consumed foods obtained from others through gifts and transfers.

Figure 31: Percentage of refugee households who consumed food in the 7 days preceding the survey from home production, market purchases and/or transfers

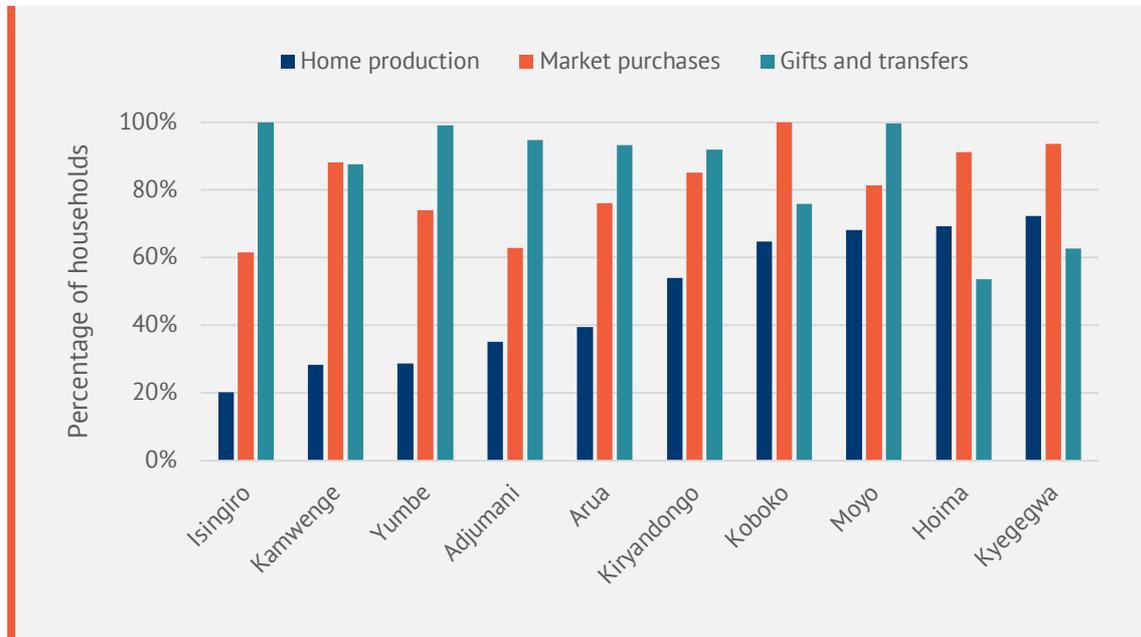
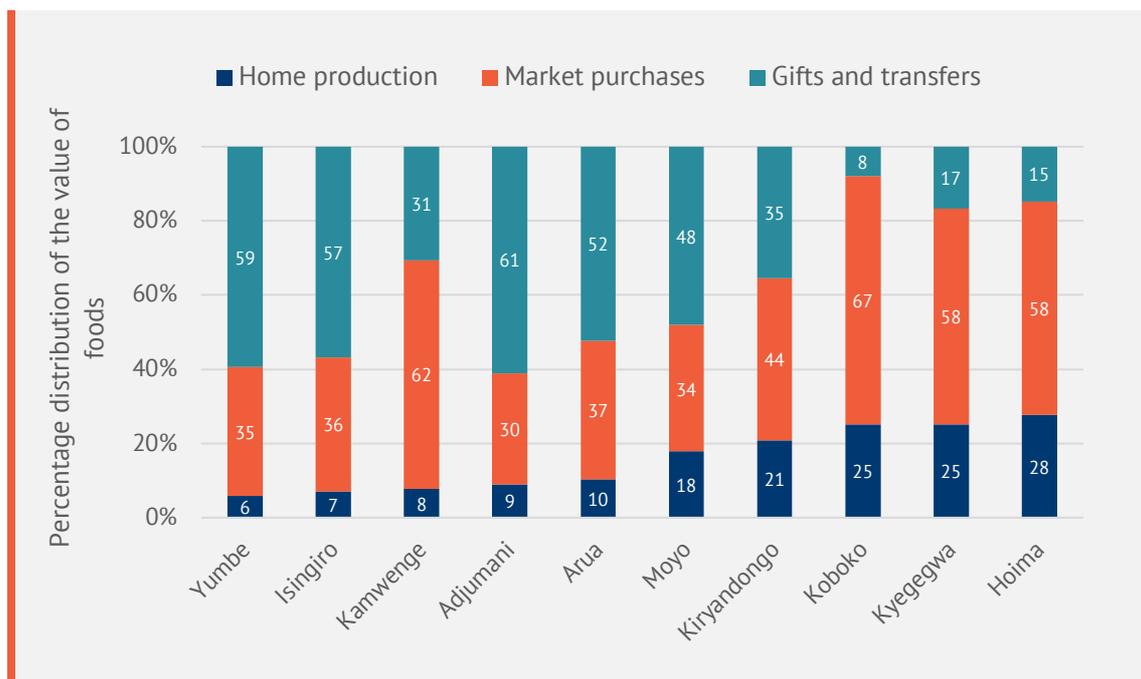


Figure 32 presents the relative importance of the three food sources. Overall, across all refugee households, market purchases account for 66 per cent of the value of foods consumed, home production accounts for 19 per cent and gifts and transfers from others for 15 per cent.

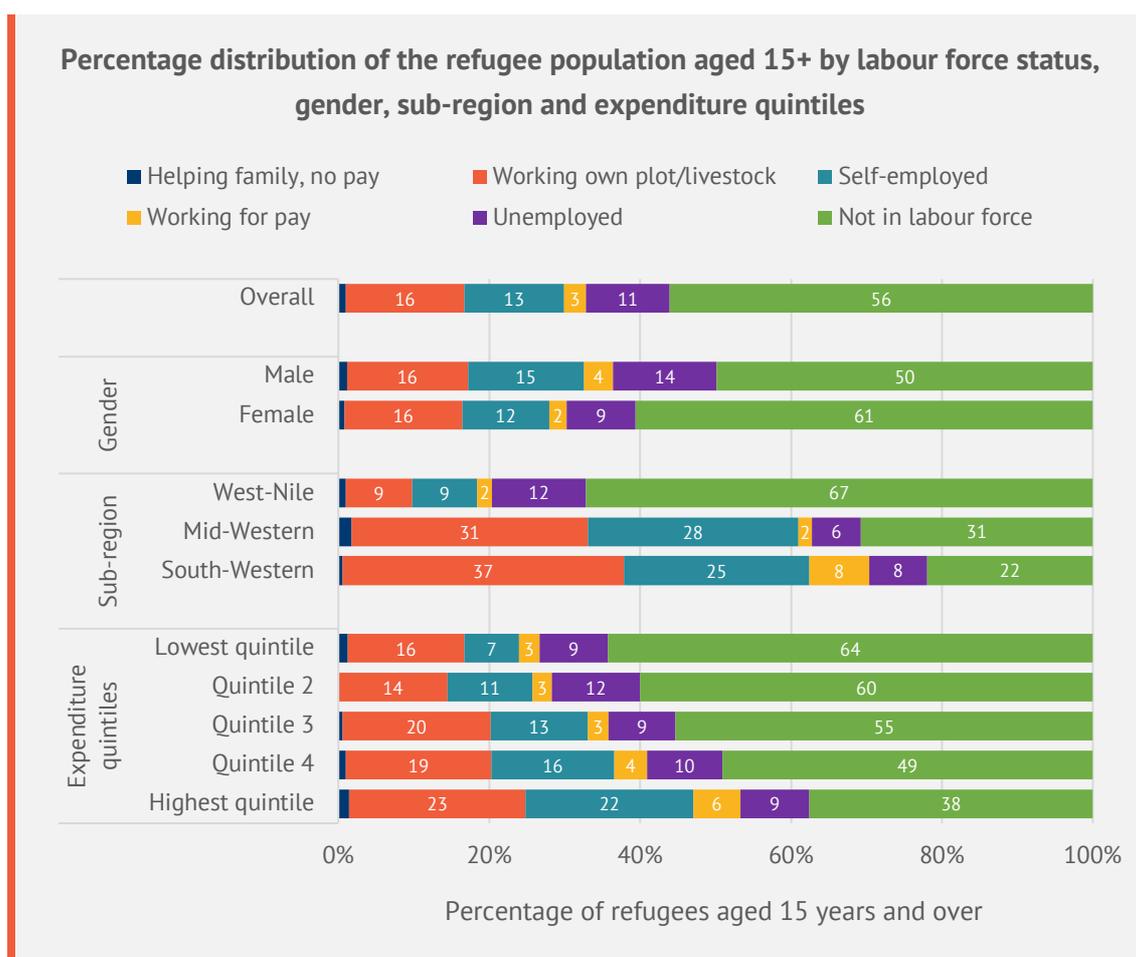
Figure 32: Average distribution of the value of foods consumed in the 7 days preceding the survey, by source



4.3 Main livelihood strategies and activities

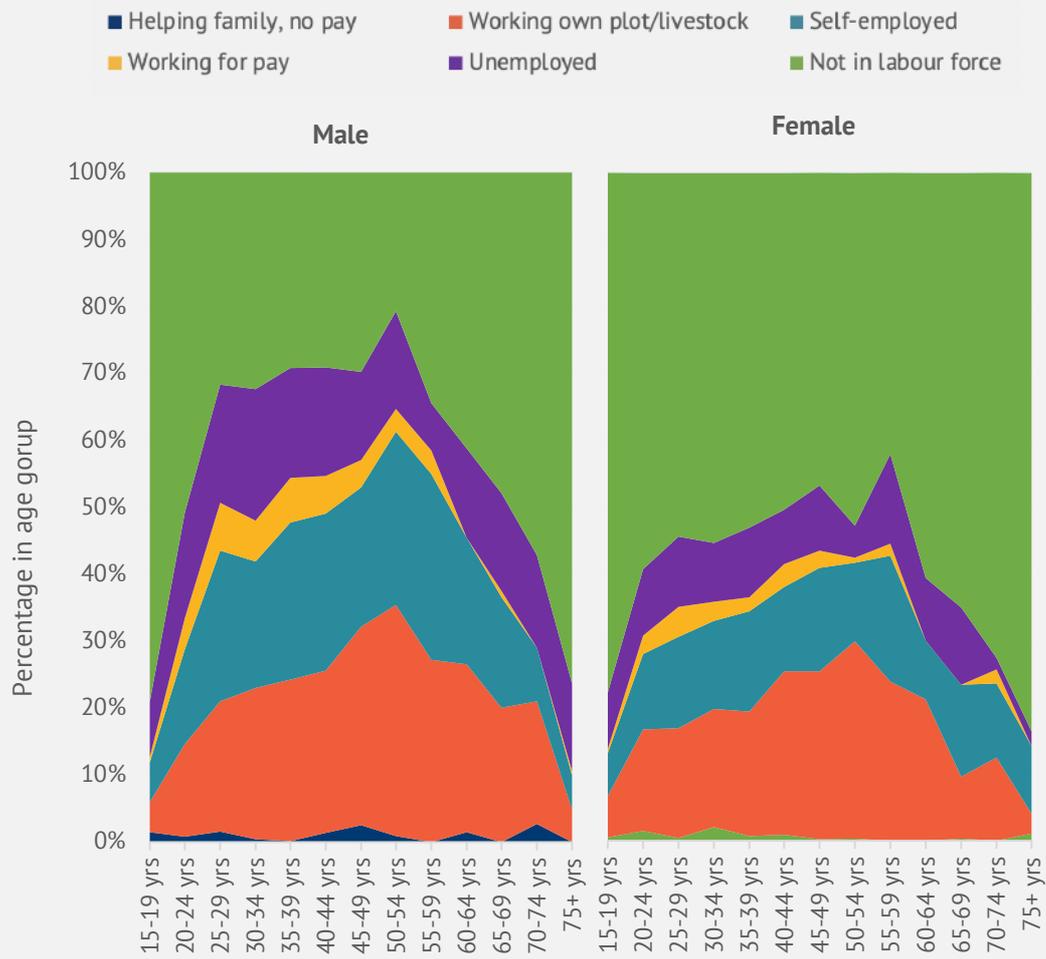
Figure 33 outlines information on the occupations of refugees aged 15 years and above. Around 56 per cent are not in the labour force (50 per cent of men and 61 per cent of women). Labour force participation is highest among those of working age but drops significantly at around 60 years of age. It is much higher in the South West and Mid-West regions: in West Nile, the low labour force participation reflects the recent entry of many refugees into Uganda and the limited employment opportunities in the area. However, only three per cent of people have managed to obtain employment for pay. The main sources of employment are self-employment and working own plots of land. Having some form of employment is associated with higher expenditures, but the effect is not strong.

Figure 33: Distribution of the refugee population aged 15 years and above by labour force status and type of employment by background characteristics³⁹



³⁹ 'Unemployed' refers to those who are looking for work but cannot find it. 'Not in labour force' means that people are not working and not seeking work.

Percentage distribution of the refugee population aged 15+ by labour force status and by age group



4.3.2 Conducting small-scale subsistence farming

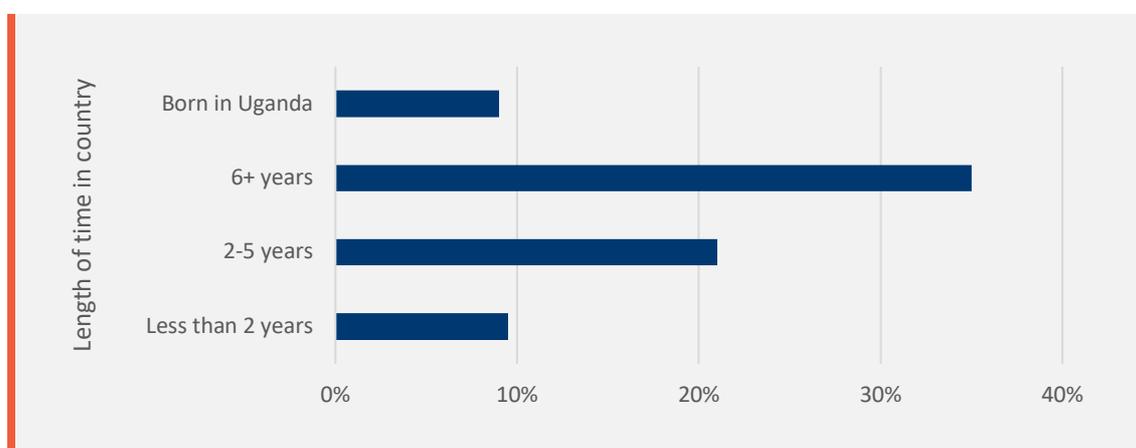
As indicated earlier, agriculture as a viable livelihood option is limited to a few people due to the small proportion of refugees possessing sufficient land for cultivation. The viability of agriculture varies significantly across settlements, with the majority of refugees in Lobule, Moyo, Kyangwali, Rwamwanja and Kyaka II having access to at least some land for cultivation. Kyangwali, Rwamwanja and Kyaka II settlements are all in areas with land and climate conducive to cultivation. On the contrary, agriculture is clearly not viable for the vast majority of refugees in Adjumani and Bidibidi, who do not have access to land and where the land is less suitable for cultivation. Overall, as shown in Figure 34, only 16 per cent of refugees above the age of 15 years reported working their own plots or rearing livestock as their main activity, although, as shows, the proportion grows the longer that people have been in Uganda, probably because they have more access to land.

'Nowadays you can plant 10 kgs and even harvest less than that amount. Drought has hit the area hard in the last two years and there are no signs that the situation will improve. Even the regional food markets in Isingiro and Mbarara are also stressed. (13/07/17, KII, OPM, Nakivale).

'It is necessary to consider whether people have established a livelihood before cutting their food assistance. A lot of things can hinder self-reliance. For example, last year the drought affected a lot of people. People's ability to become self-reliant is also hindered by the cuts in rations.' (21/07/2017, KII, OPM Settlement Commander, Kiryandongo).

'It is not working to assume that people become self-reliant, especially because of the poor rainy seasons. Maize is the main livelihoods, but the rain is not enough and there are the army worms as well, affecting the yield. This makes it very challenging for the refugees, especially the older people, children and female-headed households.' (21/07/2017, KII, UNHCR Protection Officer, Kiryandongo).

Figure 34: Proportion of refugees aged 15 years and over reporting working their land or rearing livestock as their main activity, by length of time in country



Some 86 per cent of those with land planted it in the last year. The main reasons for not planting were drought, lack of seeds and land infertility. However, during the qualitative

research, respondents noted that agriculture was highly precarious as a livelihood, due to shocks such as the drought that has hit the South West in the past few years and army worms in the West Nile. Indeed, 62 per cent of those planting stated that the yields were less than expected. As settlements age and land becomes more infertile, agriculture becomes less viable. Nakivale is a case in point: it demonstrates the dangers of congestion within a particular area, with most people expected to rely on a single economic resource over which they have no control or ownership. No respondents believed that the refugees in Nakivale could depend on agriculture in the future.

The qualitative research indicated that agriculture would be more successful in settlements like Rwamwanja and Kyangwali with smaller refugee populations and higher soil productivity. Nonetheless, with the number of refugees steadily growing in the past year, the OPM Commandant in Rwamwanja expressed fears that it may suffer the same fate as Nakivale. There are also concerns of loss of soil fertility in Kyangwali.

Box 14: Example of good and bad experiences with agriculture

Loss of land over time:⁴⁰ Ocan is a 56-year-old South Sudanese refugee living in Kiryandongo settlement. He arrived in Uganda with his wife in 1989. He is the household head and lives with 20 family members, including his wife and 8 children as well as his brother-in-law and his family of 9. Unfortunately, Ocan's brother in law has a disability due to polio but is not registered as an EVI and has been phased out of the programme as an old caseload. Ocan's children were all born in Uganda and he chose to remain even when South Sudan became independent as they were attending school. They received assistance from WFP for one year, between 1993-94, and were given an acre of fertile land to grow maize. However, their plot was on the outskirts on the settlement and was eventually encroached upon by a Ugandan national. According to Ocan, the land was violently taken from him and he is now left with only a small plot of land near the house. The harvest in the first season of 2017 was worse than usual because of pests. In order to survive, he, his wife and his eldest daughter work as agricultural labourers for the host community. They leave at 5 am and return late in the evening. On such days, another daughter misses school to look after the younger siblings. They cumulatively earn approximately UGX10,000 in a day. However, there are only 2-3 days of work every week. Most of their earnings are spent on food and the remainder on soap, charcoal/firewood, school fees and medical expenses. They even try to keep a little money for emergencies. However, Ocan has a debt he thinks he will never be able to pay off as he is getting too old to work.

A well-off farmer:⁴¹ John is 34 years of age and arrived in Uganda as an orphan in 1999. At present, he lives with his wife and three children – aged 3, 5 and 7 years – in a large house on one of the main roads in Kyangwali settlement. When John first arrived, he was 17 years of age and was given a small plot of land and food assistance. He had, in fact, wanted to continue his education but he could not afford it. He, therefore, worked as an agricultural labourer for another refugee who covered his food and lodging but offered no monetary compensation. To earn cash, John cultivated his land and sold his harvest, around two sacks (100 kgs) of beans. He used this money to construct his house with the help of his friends. Over the next 5 years, he saved up some money and eventually married. With his savings, he was able to buy a small

⁴⁰ 19/07/2017, SSI, male, old case, Kiryandongo

⁴¹ 27/07/2017, SSI, young adult male, old case, Kyangwali

plot of land by the main road and construct another house where he now lives. Over the years he has been able to buy more land from refugees who have left, but OPM recently took some of his land away. He now has approximately 2 acres of land to cultivate and has hired a labourer who he pays UGX5,000 a day. He sells his harvests of maize to Ugandans that come from outside the settlement.

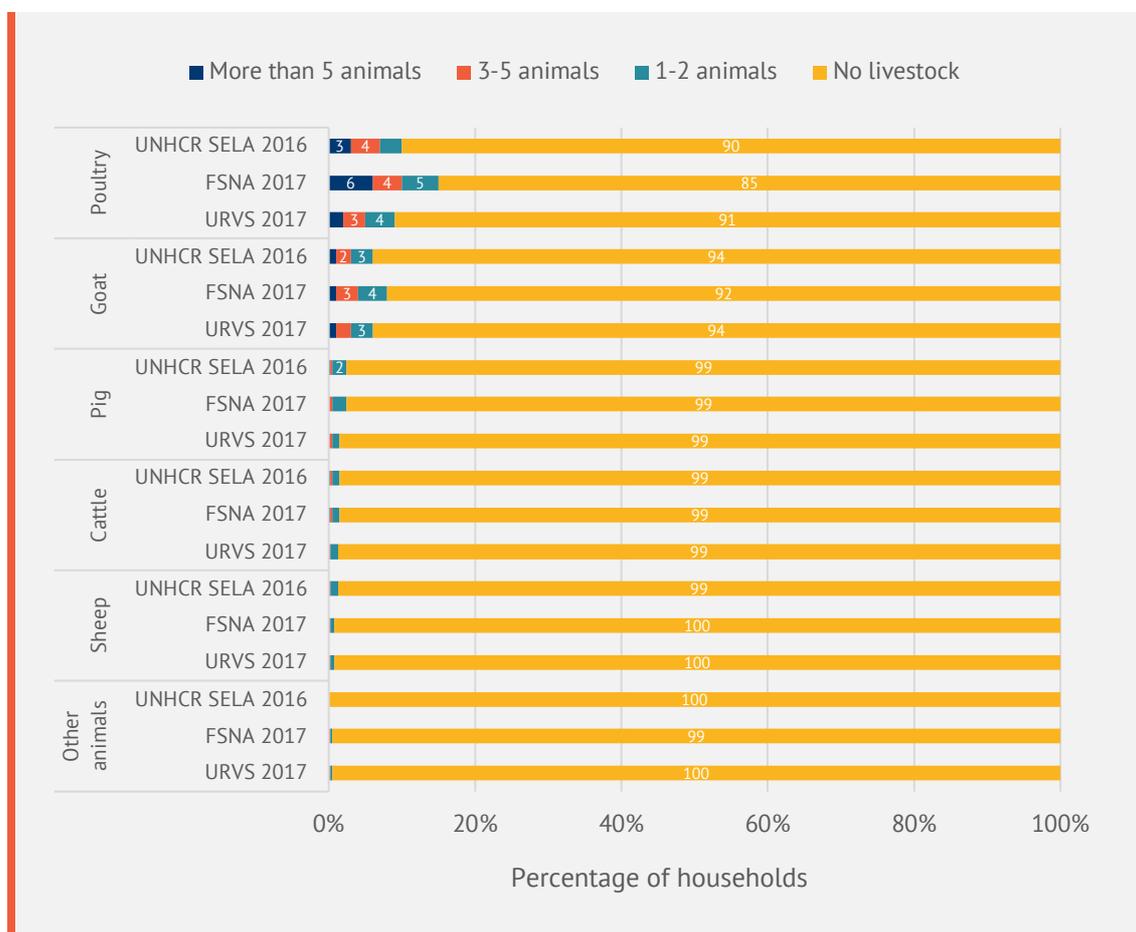
According to John, it was easy to save money when he was young and single. In a good year, he would harvest 25 sacks of maize, out of which 20 would be sold at a price of UGX50,000 per sack. He spent much of this income on farm inputs but also diversified into a small business of buying fuel from Hoima and selling it to *boda boda* drivers in the settlement. He still has this business which has helped him to cover his children's school fees. However, he is now at risk as the land is no longer as fertile and harvests have considerably reduced. Last season, for example, he did not harvest anything as a result of the drought.

Relatively few households are able to produce large surpluses that can be sold for income. Around a quarter of households in the URVS who planted their land ended up selling some of their produce and only 11 per cent reported the sale of crops or livestock as their main source of cash income, with the highest proportion in the Mid-West region (15 per cent). A study conducted by UNHCR outlined a range of challenges hampering agricultural productivity, including: a widespread lack of agriculture extension services in the settlements; a lack of storage facilities and poor post-harvest management in general; and limited market information.⁴²

There is no evidence that livestock is a viable source of livelihoods among refugees. As Figure 35 indicates, few refugees have animals, even poultry (which is owned by only 9 per cent of refugees). The FSNA of 2017 and the UNHCR Socio-Economic Livelihood Assessment of 2016 both reported similar levels of low livestock holdings among refugee households.

⁴² UNHCR, 2017: Livelihoods Socio-Economic Assessment in the Refugee Hosting Districts, prepared by REEV Consult International.

Figure 35: Distribution across refugee households of number and type of livestock



4.3.3 Engaging in informal trade and services

As part of their livelihood strategies, some refugees engage in petty trading, such as buying or selling goods (such as firewood, charcoal, vegetables) or in providing services (*boda boda*, hair dressing, carpenter, etc.). Overall, 13 per cent of refugees aged 15 years and above are classified as self-employed and 20 per cent of households have at least one household member engaged in informal trade and services.

The sale of food rations, in particular, has emerged as a key livelihood strategy in West Nile, where it is the main source of cash income for about a third of refugee households. Indeed, refugees not only require food but need to purchase other items to satisfy their additional needs. Those receiving food only are unable to do this unless they sell their food. Refugees, therefore, generally sell part of the food transfer to obtain cash to cover essential expenses such as milling, salt, soap, health and transport expenses, and to diversify their diet whenever possible. In Bidibidi, women in the qualitative research reported that they sold a third of their food transfer to obtain cash. It is used to grind the remaining maize at a cost of UGX200 per kg and to buy basic foods such as onions or silver fish.

One problem mentioned during the qualitative research is that the food rations are generally of low quality and do not fetch a good price in the local markets. The refugees, therefore, find themselves in a situation of having to choose between: a) consuming all of the food ration, but not being able to afford other basic needs; or, b) selling part of the food rations for a low price to cover other basic needs but reducing their food consumption (although there may be some increase in dietary diversity).

“We even dig in the gardens of nationals living in Rugaga and Kityaza, and we get matoke, bananas, tomatoes, vegetables, beans, cassava, etc.” “We never get cash from the nationals.” “The bananas we get from the nationals can be sold here for cash.” (15/07/17, FGD, Young women, Nakivale).

Most informal employment is of low quality. Many of the respondents in the qualitative research – both men and women of working age, as well as older men – were reliant on irregular, casual employment as an additional income source, mainly as agricultural labourers in host communities or for refugees with more land within the settlement. Wages are often between UGX2,000 and UGX5,000 per day.

There are opportunities for self-employment and starting up businesses. While many of the refugee settlements are relatively isolated, the arrival of the refugees as well as the injection of cash into the settlements can attract traders to these isolated areas and turn them into better functioning market economies.⁴³ Refugees with prior business experience and business acumen are more likely to start up small businesses. The qualitative research found a range of examples of refugees engaging in small enterprises across settlements.⁴⁴

However, access to capital is a major challenge for those wanting to start a small business and refugees face challenges due to their lack of assets, including land, to put up as

⁴³ Indeed, Taylor et al. (2016) find evidence of significant economic multiplier effects caused by food assistance and cash transfers in and around refugee settlements.

⁴⁴ See the qualitative research report for examples.

collateral.⁴⁵ Most refugee respondents in the qualitative research expressed a desire to start a business in order to be financially independent but lacked financial resources. As an estimate of the amount of money needed, several refugees in Kiryandongo and Rwamwanja reported that they would need around UGX500,000-UGX1,000,000 to start a small business, which is well beyond the capacity of most refugees.

4.3.4 Access to formal employment

Opportunities for accessing formal employment are limited with less than 3 per cent of refugees aged 15 years and above working for pay. Refugees face multiple barriers when seeking formal employment and there are few opportunities. This is particularly frustrating for highly skilled refugees with experience working as, for example, teachers, doctors, nurses and engineers in their countries of origin, or were in the course of completing their studies. Even highly skilled refugees often find themselves stuck in low-paying irregular jobs. Many skilled refugees complained about not being able to find work and only a few examples were found across the settlements of refugees being employed by humanitarian agencies. Even when refugees are employed, it is normally as lower level staff, irrespective of their qualifications. In the West Nile, for example, former teachers from South Sudan are currently hired as assistants to maintain order in classrooms.

'Once you are identified as a refugee, it is difficult to get a job. People won't hire: there are many qualified people here but they will not get jobs. They abuse you, treat you badly because you are refugee. For the same job, refugees will be paid a quarter of what is paid to the national. They call you an 'incentive' worker, and you don't deserve a salary.' (19/07/17, FGD, RWC, Nakivale).

The key barriers to refugees gaining employment are a lack of documentation showing education and skills, language and social barriers.⁴⁶ These barriers are in addition to the simple fact that the Ugandan economy is not generating anywhere near enough employment opportunities, even for the Ugandan population. Across the settlements, humanitarian agencies provide the main source of formal employment. Box 15 describes some examples of refugees in formal employment or paid volunteer positions.

⁴⁵ 13/07/2017, KII, Samaritan's Purse, Kiryandongo

⁴⁶ See qualitative research report for further information.

Box 15: Examples of refugees in formal employment

South West: In Nakivale, HIJRA hired refugees as reception centre staff (cooks and guards), social workers, electricians and interpreters (who are self-employed). As an indication of pay scales, the salaries of operations staff at the reception centre in Nakivale can be referenced: the Head Cook receives UGX300,000 per month; other cooks receive UGX250,000; and, guards receive UGX150,000.

Mid-West: In Kyangwali, teachers and social workers who are refugees were reported to be paid UGX120,000 per month (which gives only UGX4,000 per day income, nowhere near sufficient for a family to live on). A qualified tailor from DR Congo who works at the vocational training centre in the settlement was paid UGX130,000 per month. According to him the salary is much lower than the salary of a Ugandan national, which would be approximately UGX300,000 per month.⁴⁷ A social worker reported being paid UGX120,000 per month by AAH. While he talked about his position as a regular job, according to AAH's mid-term progress report, the organisation sees these positions as volunteers who are not paid a regular salary, but a limited allowance.

West Nile: In Adjumani, Save the Children International has hired 50 case workers, many of whom are refugees. In Bidibidi, MSF hires South Sudanese staff to address the language and communication issues with refugees.

4.3.5 Borrowing and sharing food and cash

Once refugees finish their rations, they rely on their limited social networks for support. Some are able to borrow cash without interest from friends and family and others from the church. When refugees borrow food, they are required to repay either with food or by working as agricultural labourers. Around 33 per cent of households said that they can receive food from neighbours, relatives or friends when in need while 20 per cent were supporting others with food or cash at the time of the interview.

As illustrated in Figure 36, there are important differences based on the wealth status of households, indicating that more affluent households are more likely to be able to rely on informal support and build social networks compared to those in the poorest quintile. Of course, they may well be more affluent because they receive this support.

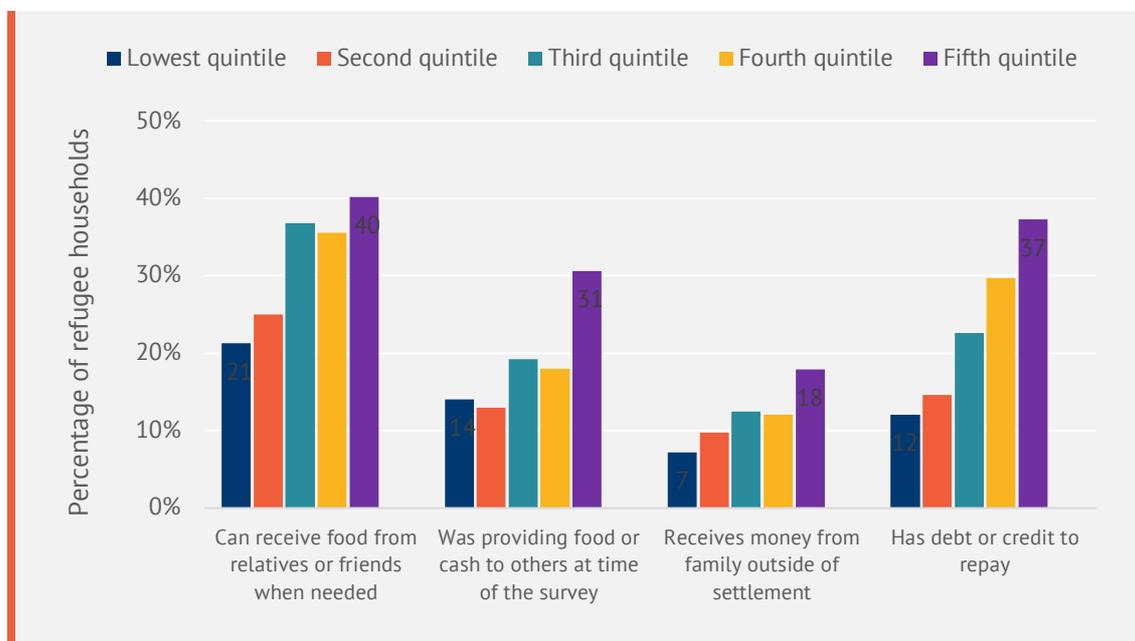
"I have become friends with a woman from the host community. I give her 1kg of beans, 2kgs of cereals and she gives me access to her land to collect firewood."

"Sometimes neighbours and friends lend me money to buy medicines but, after recovering, I have to work for them as a way of repaying the money"

15/07/2017 SSI Adult Female, Bidibidi, Yumbe; 24/07/17, FGD, Adult men, Rwamwanja

⁴⁷ 24/07/2017, SSI, young adult male, new case, Kyangwali.

Figure 36: Percentage of refugee households receiving or providing support to others and percentage of households with debt, by expenditure quintile



Around 24 per cent of households have debt or credit to repay. Among those contracting new debts in the six months preceding the survey, the top three reasons given for taking out new debt include: to buy food (55 per cent); to cover health expenses (24 per cent); and, to cover education costs (10 per cent) (see Table 12). Using loans to invest in productive enterprises was mentioned by less than 3 per cent of those taking loans.

Table 12: Reasons given for contracting new debt or credit in the six months preceding the survey

Reason	Per cent
To buy food	54.5
To cover health expenses	23.9
To pay school, education costs	10.4
To buy clothes, shoes	2.4
To buy agricultural inputs (seed, tools, etc.)	1.4
To buy animals	1.3
Other reasons	6.2
Total	100.0

4.3.7 Relocating to other areas and cities

Refugees can relocate as a coping strategy either to another part of Uganda including bigger cities, other refugee settlements in other countries, or even return to their countries of origin. This suggests that, for some, the benefits received in the settlements may act as the sole incentive to remain there. For example, 4 per cent of married adults said that their spouse was living elsewhere in Uganda, while 12 per cent of households have family members outside of the refugee settlements who send money. Recycling – in other words, returning home before once more entering Uganda – is also a key coping strategy. Refugees can sell their plots of land and/or ration cards in order to move out of the settlement.

“Because of food deduction and drought, refugees are migrating to Kenya (Kakuma settlement), Tanzania and Malawi. You may not see that, but a big number have left.”
(19/07/17, FGD, FMC-Rubondo, Nakivale)

“The majority are not at school because of inability to pay for school fees. The male youth have turned to thieves within the settlement and outside the settlement”
(25/7/2017, FGD, Youth/Adult Male, Nyumanzi, Adjumani)

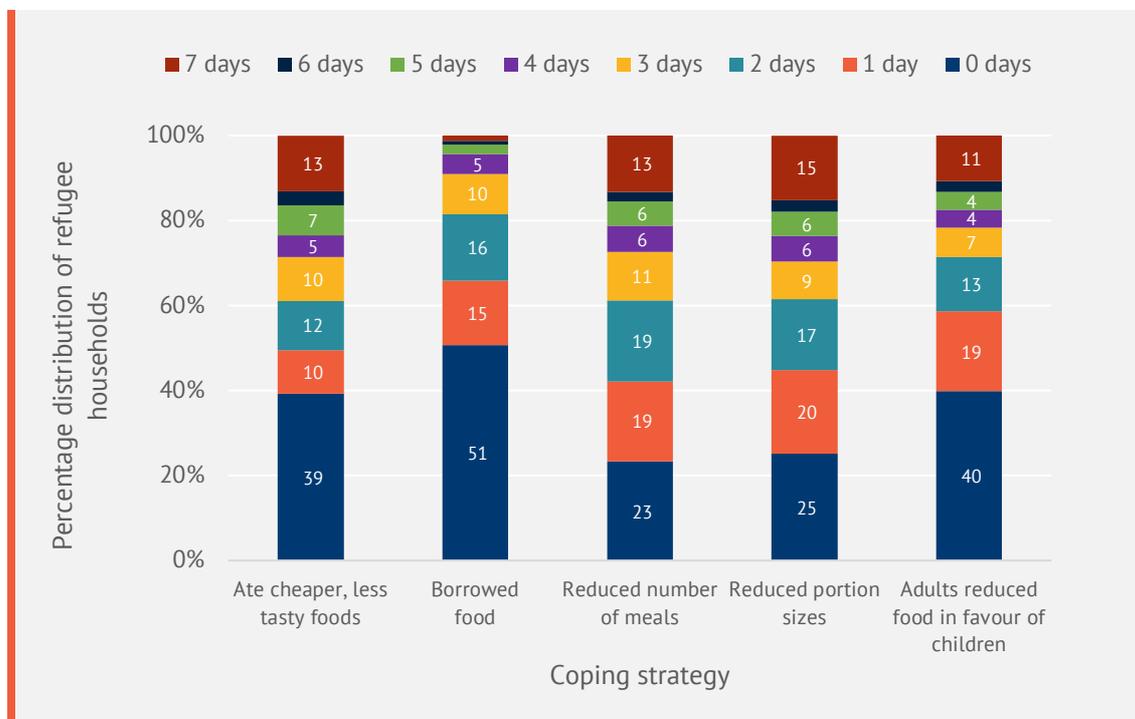
A particular issue raised by young people who have grown up in these settlements is that they are not provided with their own household registration and plot of land when they marry. In the absence of economic opportunities, the difficulties in accessing food assistance exacerbate their vulnerability to food insecurity. In Nakivale – where there are limited opportunities for farming or wage employment and where many are only receiving 25 per cent rations – respondents complained that large numbers of young people had left for other countries, even Europe, since they received insufficient support in the form of economic opportunities.

“Many youths from here have left because they see no future. They try to go to Europe but most of them are kidnapped in Libya. The risk of going to Europe is high”.
(15/07/17, FGD, Adult men, Nakivale).

4.3.8 Adapting consumption patterns

A majority of refugee households use food-based coping strategies, reducing the quality and quantity of foods they consume (see Figure 37). Overall, 88 per cent of those interviewed had used a coping strategy in the previous week on at least one day. Three-quarters of households were forced to reduce the number of meals and/or portion sizes on at least one day in the seven days preceding the survey. Skipping meals was the most commonly reported coping strategy to make the food rations/cash payments last longer. Sixty per cent of households ate cheaper, less preferred foods and a similar proportion of adults reduced their food intake so that their children could eat. About 27 per cent of refugee households used food-based coping strategies every day of the week.

Figure 37: Distribution of refugee households by the number of days that consumption-based coping strategies were used in the seven days preceding the survey



4.3.9 Falling back on other negative coping behaviours

The high level of food insecurity and poverty among refugees means that many have to resort to other coping strategies. Some coping strategies are detrimental in the long run or keep them in a state of extreme vulnerability to food and income insecurity. As indicated earlier, it is generally perceived that young people have ‘no future’ in the refugee settlements and are, therefore, at risk of turning to desperate measures, such as drug trafficking and abuse, theft and other petty crimes, survival sex, or risk illegal emigration to Europe. Young men were reported to steal and grab food rations and cash payments on the day of distributions. The re-orientation of ex-soldiers into mainstream society is also challenging.

“They are in this because there are poor livelihood opportunities around, there is nothing to sustain them, nothing there to raise income. If you start a business, you need a start-up cost. With your body, you don’t have any costs” (17/07/2017, FGD, CMC/FMC, Kiryandongo).

Other coping strategies prevalent in the six refugee settlements where the qualitative research was conducted included:

- **Begging:** There are reports of older women begging once their food rations or cash is over.
- **Hazardous activities:** Drug abuse and survival sex are coping strategies for young men and women respectively. In Kiryandongo, for example, sex work was

mentioned by several women as a key strategy for single mothers with children to cover their basic expenses on food and education.

- **Selling assets:** Refugees across settlements 'sell' their land as an income strategy even though it is not legally allowed. In Bidibidi, refugees sold their NFIs when rations were reduced in May 2017.

4.4 Livelihood security in the face of covariate shocks and diversification

The livelihood security of refugees is a function of income, its regularity and predictability, and the exposure of people to risk, such as those associated with sudden shocks and long-term trends. Many livelihood strategies (especially in agriculture) result in seasonal fluctuations in income. Prices also often vary seasonally, and operational challenges and pipeline breakdowns influence the disbursement of food assistance. This affects livelihood security and people usually try to reduce seasonal income fluctuations or their vulnerability to them. However, the opportunities to diversify livelihoods appear to be limited.

4.4.1 Covariate shocks

Reliance on rain-fed subsistence agriculture makes for a precarious livelihood even in the best of circumstances and both host communities and refugees are vulnerable to covariate shocks in the form of adverse weather events related to climate change/variability, as well as other shocks such as pests/diseases which can impact on the viability of agriculture as a livelihood. Even refugees with access to fertile land have faced problems in recent years as a result of severe drought and pests. Issues related to the delivery of the food assistance exacerbates these risks, including the fact that food assistance is not shock-responsive: in other words, it does not provide additional support in times when droughts or pests affect the harvests.

*"Around this season especially, it is too hard. The 25 per cent cash ration is not enough for survival: in the market, the prices are very high. The money will not last the whole month. And we have no neighbour we can go and ask: our neighbour is also crying about the same."
(19/07/2017, SSI, male old case, 25%, Kiryandongo).*

In Nakivale, the main food and income shock has been the degradation of the natural environment combined with a prolonged drought over the past two years. In fact, refugees reported that the weather conditions have been unfavourable for good harvests for the last four years. In the settlements in the Mid-West and West Nile, the harvests in 2016 and the first harvest of 2017 have been similarly affected by drought and army worms.

The droughts have resulted in scarcities in local food markets and inflated the prices of food staples such as maize, vegetables, beans, potatoes, cassava and cabbage. Many refugee households receiving 100 per cent of EVI/H cash rations insisted that the money is inadequate, as food prices have increased due to the prolonged drought. As a consequence, refugees are unable to cover their basic food needs. This is confirmed by WFP's market research for the first two quarters of 2017, which showed that the cash transfers were not sufficient to purchase the equivalent food rations in local markets.⁴⁸ Large households with many children have especially suffered as a consequence of the drought, especially for those on 25 per cent food rations. One woman in Nakivale reported that, as a result of the drought, four of her five children had to be taken out of school, with one continuing in secondary school, and she was struggling to pay this child's costs. Another challenge is seasonal price fluctuations, which can be devastating for households, as witnessed in the Mid-West settlements.

Covariate shocks affect both refugees and host communities. Arguably, the refugees are less vulnerable than the host communities since they have access to social protection through the food assistance, even if it is not shock-responsive, although host communities have a larger asset base and social networks upon which to depend. In contrast, host communities reported receiving little or no support from the government in response to the droughts. During a focus group discussion with a host community in Nakivale, it was pointed out that no emergency response had been arranged for them, even though they were equally affected by the drought. Instead, they are benefitting indirectly from the monthly food distributions for refugees since they are able to buy maize and beans at a cheaper price.

In Adjumani, the host community perceived the food assistance to be a predictable food and income source for refugees, who also have extended social networks across the border from whom they are able to receive remittances during a crisis. Similarly, in Yumbe, the host community perceived the refugees to be better off due to the food assistance. As in Nakivale, they complained that they had not been provided with any emergency food transfer in response to the drought. In fact, some host community members related only being able to survive the drought because their refugee neighbours had shared their food rations with them.⁴⁹ They, however, argued that they should receive a fair share of the services provided to refugees – including food assistance – as they were offering their land to be used by refugees. Yet, the only social protection scheme available to host communities is the Senior Citizens Grant, which is restricted to

⁴⁸ The latest WFP Refugee Price Monitoring Report for the second quarter of 2017 shows that beneficiaries of full and half ration cash transfers could not afford to buy a WFP in-kind food basket at market price. This is the case for the surveyed settlements in general.

⁴⁹ 20/07/17 FGD Host Community, Yumbe.

Kyegegwa, Koboko, Yumbe and Lanwo districts. And, only in Kyegegwa is it offered to everyone over 65 years of age; in the other two districts, it is given to the oldest 100 people in each sub-county. The host communities were of the opinion that the continued influx of refugees would eventually lead to food shortages in the area and further limit the availability of natural resources. They anticipated that the over-cutting of trees in the area would have disastrous effects on the environment, something easily observable in Nakivale.

The lack of support for host communities risks generating tensions between host communities and refugees in the case of further droughts or other covariate shocks affecting both groups. According to the OPM Commandant in Nakivale, widespread food insecurity due to drought is a 'time bomb' waiting to explode, leading to rising tensions between host communities and refugees. They had already experienced violent conflicts during the past year. He, therefore, called for immediate assistance from the central government for the host communities.

4.4.2 Diversification of livelihoods

Livelihood diversification can be an important strategy to reduce risk and cope in times of stress. The research indicates, however, that few refugee households are able to diversify their income streams and remain heavily reliant on a single sector of work. Among households with employed family members, 93 per cent have the same occupation or main activity while only 7 per cent have two or more members working in different types of employment.

5 Food Security Outcomes

This chapter analyses food security outcomes among refugee households. By using a composite food security index built from a range of complementary indicators, it classifies three-quarters of refugee households as moderately or severely food insecure, while 22 per cent are considered marginally food secure and 2 per cent food secure. The first section of this chapter describes the approach that was taken to measure the multi-dimensional concept of food security. Section 5.2 provides a profile of food security and describes how patterns of insecurity vary by location and household characteristics. Finally, Section 5.3 offers a more in-depth examination of the factors influencing households' food security status by using regression analyses.

It is important to note that food security is assessed in the context of refugees receiving food assistance. It is not possible to know the food security situation in the hypothetical context of no food assistance nor to simulate potential food security in the absence of the food and cash transfers from WFP. Nonetheless, in the absence of food assistance, it is self-evident that the food security situation would be significantly worse than that described in this chapter.

5.1 Measuring food security

WFP uses the definition of food security which was developed at the World Food Summit in 1996, as: "Food security exists when all people, at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs, and food preferences for an active and healthy life." This definition integrates the four main dimensions of food security – availability, access, utilisation, and stability. In this regard, WFP has developed a standardised approach for assessing and reporting on household food insecurity, using multiple indicators to capture different aspects of food security⁵⁰. Data on a number of food security measures were collected in the URVS and outlined in the sections below. While the focus of this chapter is on presenting the results for the composite index, the results of the specific food security indicators can be found in Annex 6.

5.1.1 Dietary diversity indicators

The URVS asked respondents about the number of different food groups consumed during the seven days prior to the survey. The eight food groups included are: cereals and tubers;

⁵⁰ See, for example, Food and Agriculture Organization (2013).

legumes and nuts; milk and dairy products; meat, fish and eggs; vegetables and leaves; fruits; oil and fats; sugar and sweets. A composite *food consumption score* (FCS) was computed based on the diversity, frequency, and relative nutritional importance of the various food groups consumed, for a total possible score ranging from 0 to 112.⁵¹ Households were also assigned a simple *dietary diversity score* (DDS), equal to the sum of the number of food groups consumed during the week before the survey.

5.1.2 Experience-based indicators

Another class of indicators measures food security indirectly, by measuring households' behavioural and psychological manifestations of insecure food access, such as having to reduce the number of meals consumed or cut back on the quality of the food due to a lack of resources. The URVS collected data to compute the *reduced coping strategies index* (rCSI) – an indicator commonly used by WFP – based on how often households used a set of five short-term coping strategies in situations in which they did not have enough food, or money to buy food, during the seven days prior to the interview.⁵² The URVS also included the *Food Insecurity Experience Scale* (FIES) recently developed by the Food and Agriculture Organization's (FAO) Voices of the Hungry project. It comprises a series of yes/no responses to eight questions which are converted into a scale using item response theory.⁵³ The version of the FIES used in the refugee survey was administered at the household level, with a one-month reference period.

5.1.3 Indicators of economic vulnerability

The percentage of total household expenditures on food serves as a proxy for economic vulnerability. This indicator is based on the premise that the greater the importance of food within a household's overall budget (relative to other consumed items and services) the more economically vulnerable the household. It takes into account the monetary value of non-purchased items, that is consumption from own production and in-kind payments and transfers. Refugee households' total expenditures were also compared against the value of poverty lines used by the Ugandan Bureau of Statistics (UBOS).

5.1.4 Overall food security classification

To develop a composite food security index, refugee households were explicitly classified into four groups – food secure, marginally food secure, and moderately and severely food

⁵¹ For further details, see WFP (2008). Broad food groups and associated FCS weights are: main staples—weighted at 2, pulses—weighted at 3, vegetables—weighted at 1, fruit—weighted at 1, meat and fish—weighted at 4, milk—weighted at 4, sugar—weighted at 0.5, and oil—weighted at 0.5.

⁵² For technical details on the rCSI, see Maxwell and Caldwell (2008).

⁵³ For additional information on the FIES, see: <http://www.fao.org/in-action/voices-of-the-hungry/en/#.Whf8orSFhbU>

insecure – using an algorithm that combines information about households’ *current consumption*, based on the food consumption score, with households’ *potential for sustaining that consumption into the future*, based on the food expenditure share and coping strategies index. This approach is broadly consistent with WFP’s Consolidated Approach to Reporting Indicators of Food Security (CARI) and the IPC Acute Food Insecurity Phase Classification.

In order to consolidate all indicators into one index, each group is given a score from a 4-point scale and averaged out across all indicators with equal weights. The “food secure” groups have the lowest score (1) and the “severely food insecure” groups have the highest score (4). In the case of an indicator group spanning two groups of the composite index, the lowest of the scores relevant to the composite index is applied. The thresholds used in this study for the FCS and rCSI are based on the latest recommendations from Tufts University and the Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance III Project (FANTA).⁵⁴ The thresholds for food expenditure follow WFP’s CARI approach.⁵⁵ The overall classification is presented in Table 13, together with the three food security indicators used to construct the composite index.

Table 13: Overall food security classification

		Overall classification			
		Food secure		Food insecure	
		IPC Acute Phase Classification			
		None	Stressed	Crisis	Emergency or catastrophe
		Food security index groupings			
Domain	Indicator	Food secure	Marginally food secure	Moderately insecure	Severely insecure
Current status	Food consumption score	35 – 112 39%		13 to <35 57%	< 13 5%
Coping capacity	Food expenditure share	< 50% 10%	50 to < 65% 10%	65 to < 75% 11%	>= 75% 68%
	Reduced coping strategy index	0-4 23%	5-20 45%	>= 21 31%	
Food security index		2%	22%	60%	16%

Table 14 presents the distribution of refugee households by all possible interactions between the three indicators of food security. This provides a better understanding of how the different indicators contribute to each of the four classifications: food secure, marginally secure, moderately insecure and severely insecure. In particular, how different

⁵⁴Vaitla, Coates and Maxwell (2015). This comprehensive validation study was based on 21 representative surveys spanning 10 countries, including Uganda.

⁵⁵As an example, consider a household that is classified as food secure according to the FCS, but moderately food insecure according to the food expenditure share and rCSI. Its total score would be (1+3+3) / 3, which equals 2 when rounded to the closest integer. This household, therefore, would be in the “marginally food secure” group according to the consolidated index.

interactions lead to the overall classification. For example, most of the refugee households that are food insecure as measured by the composite food index have a borderline food consumption score (13 to < 35), have a high reduced coping strategy index (≥ 21), and spend more than three-quarters of their disposable income on food. On the other hand, food secure households performed well on all three indicators.

Table 14: Distribution of refugee households by food security indicators

		Food consumption indicators								
		35 to 112			13 < 35			< 13		
		Reduced coping strategy index			Reduced coping strategy index			Reduced coping strategy index		
		< 5	5 to 20	≥ 21	< 5	5 to 20	≥ 21	< 5	5 to 20	≥ 21
Food expenditure share	< 50%	1%	1%	2%	1%	3%	2%	0%	0%	0%
	50 < 65%	0%	2%	2%	1%	2%	2%	0%	0%	0%
	65 < 75%	1%	2%	2%	1%	3%	2%	0%	0%	0%
	$\geq 75%$	5%	13%	8%	8%	18%	13%	1%	1%	1%

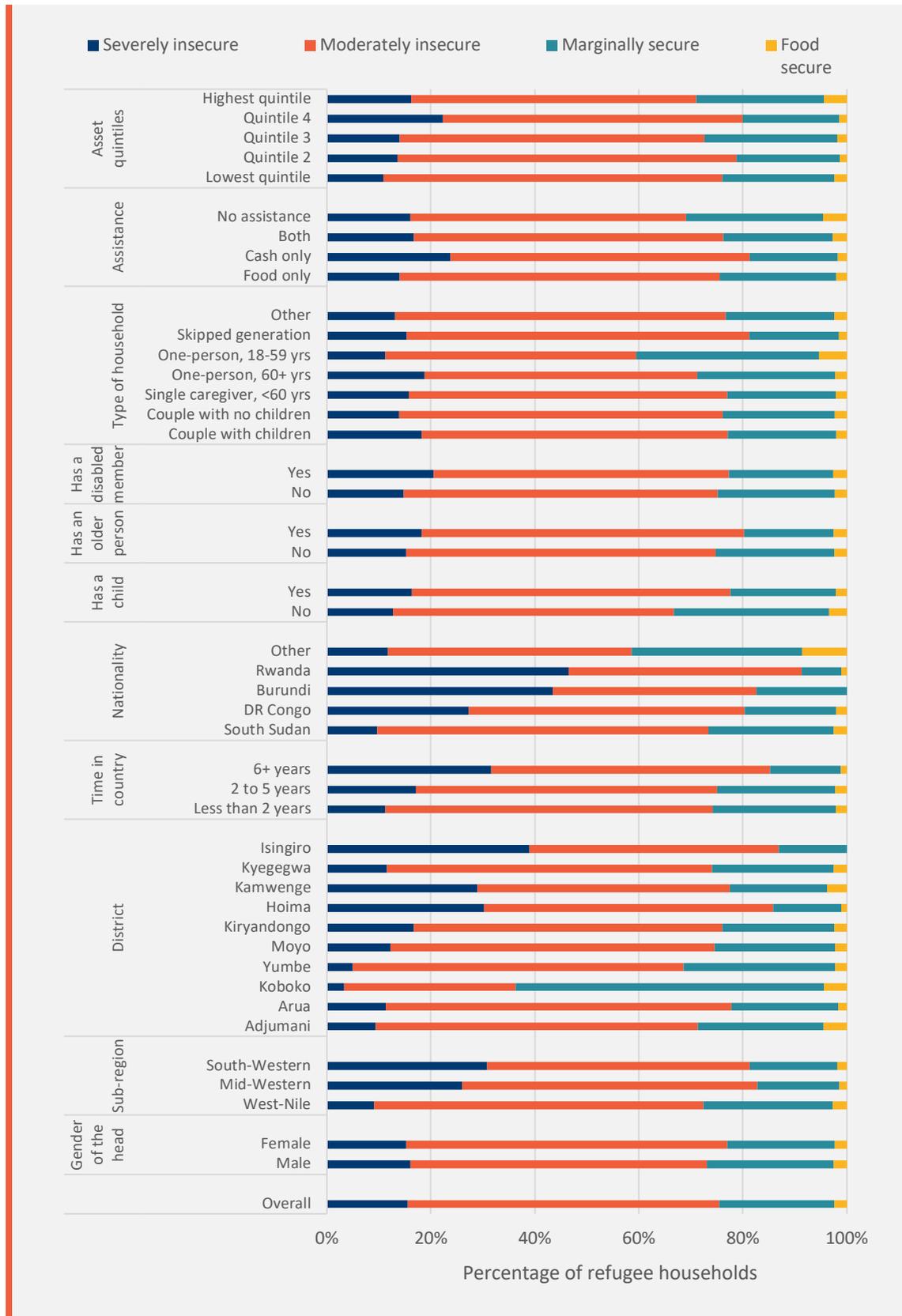
5.2 Profile of household food security

This section provides a profile of food security and examines how patterns of insecurity vary by location and household characteristics. Additional statistical tables with standard errors and confidence intervals are available in Annex 6.

5.2.1 Prevalence of food insecurity

Based on the methodology described above, Table 13 indicates that 2 per cent of refugee households are classified as food secure, 22 per cent were marginally food secure, 60 per cent were moderately insecure while 16 per cent were severely insecure. Figure 38 illustrates the distribution of households according to the four groups by selected background characteristics. There is significant geographical variation in the food security classification of households. For example, at the sub-regional level, the prevalence of severe food insecurity ranges from 9 per cent in West Nile to 31 per cent in the South Western sub-region. At the district level, severe food insecurity ranges from 3 per cent in Koboko to 35 per cent in Isingiro (Nakivale). Disparities are pronounced too across refugees with different nationalities, with significantly worse outcomes among refugees from Rwanda, Burundi and DR Congo, who predominantly live in the South West sub-region. Moreover, the prevalence of severe food insecurity is three times higher among refugee households who have been in Uganda for 6 or more years compared to those who arrived in the last two years.

Figure 38: Distribution of refugee households by food security classification groups and different background characteristics



To a large extent, these particular patterns are driven by the higher than average levels of severe food insecurity in three settlements – Kyangwali, Rwamwanja, Nakivale – at the time of the survey. This may have been due to the drought, the relatively low coverage of food assistance especially in Kyangwali, as well as reductions in the size of food assistance and operational pipeline challenges in the weeks and months before the survey. The fact that refugee households who have been in Uganda for longer than 6 years have worse food security outcomes than refugees who have spent less time there demonstrates that refugees do not automatically become more ‘self-reliant’ over time, a finding reflected in the qualitative research (see Box 16).

Box 16: Qualitative research findings on households’ access to food

In the qualitative fieldwork, refugees consistently related that lack of access to sufficient food is the primary problem they face, with many reporting having to reduce meals by the end of the month and facing hunger. Indeed, many refugees receiving full rations reported regularly experiencing hunger while, at the same time, many receiving reduced rations or no food assistance reported a severe lack of food. Another issue regularly mentioned was the lack of diversity in the diet, with most refugees unable to afford protein-rich food, including those receiving full food rations.

In Bidibidi (Yumbe), for example – where almost everybody is receiving full food rations – many people interviewed during the qualitative research listed hunger as the most important issue and described the food assistance as inadequate. This is partly because many households do not have alternative sources of income and are, therefore, forced to sell part of the food to cover other basic needs, both non-food items not provided by UNHCR and NGOs and other basic food stuffs such as vegetables or various sources of protein. The food assistance, therefore, not only covers food needs, but also serves as a currency with which refugees acquire other necessities, underscoring the need to provide at least some cash assistance to those on food rations, for example as multipurpose cash transfers for both food and non-food items.

A number of challenges related to the delivery of food assistance can contribute to the food insecurity of refugees:

- **Skipped rations and delays:** Missing a food transfer round is a major shock for refugees. In May 2017, the half rations received by all refugees was a significant shock: “Everyone was surprised when our food was reduced by half, but we could not do much.”⁵⁶ Also food distribution can be delayed due to, for example, poor road conditions.
- **Names missing from beneficiary lists is a regular monthly risk and it takes considerable time to address the issue:** “Some EVIs are removed from the list without any explanation given. We usually follow up on such cases, but it is difficult.”⁵⁷
- **Missed food ration/cash payments:** The absence of a system to collect cash or food at a later date is especially risky and problematic for EVIs. Moreover, the loss of family attestation and/or ration cards is also a constant risk. In the case of food rations, it was reported in Rwamwanja that

⁵⁶17/07/17, SSI, Elderly man, Nakivale

⁵⁷ 19/07/17, FGD, FMC - Rubondo, Nakivale

refugees sometimes steal the documents as it is possible to collect the rations as long as one presents these documents.

- **Small and reducing food rations:** The sudden movement from one list to another – in other words, from full to reduced rations – is a risk highlighted by refugees.
- **Sharing rations:** Often, household members are unregistered and so rations need to be shared across extended families. Around 15 per cent of households have members who are not registered on their attestation cards (see Section 6.5 for further information). The issues with refugee registrations result in refugees sharing the food rations of registered household members across large extended families, with some members unregistered.
- **Distribution challenges:** The most vulnerable populations – such as older persons, people with disabilities and experiencing chronic illness, and pregnant and lactating mothers – are worst affected by the complex and time-consuming food distribution system. Challenges were exacerbated for older persons and persons with disabilities when, for example, they had to carry food a relatively long-distance home or their food assistance was stolen. This was more of a threat for more expensive rations such as cooking oil, but cash could also be stolen. For example, in Rwamwanja, an elderly man with a disability reported that he had been twice robbed of his entire payment.

5.2.2 Characteristics of food security classification groups

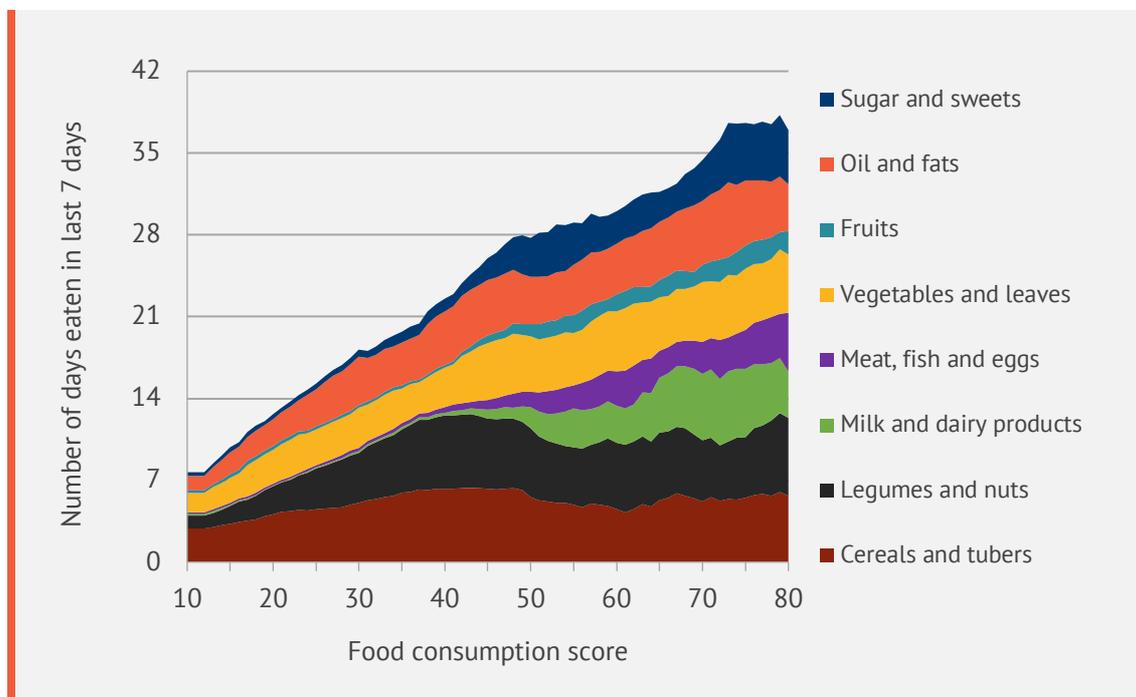
Table 15 provides a summary table with key food security indicator values for each of the four food security groups. It illustrates that there are marked differences in the food consumption profiles between groups. For example, households classified as severely food insecure have an average dietary diversity score of 3.5 and food consumption score of 22 compared with 4.9 and 44, respectively, among the most food secure households. Economic vulnerability – as measured by households' food expenditure and poverty status – is higher among those with worse food security outcomes. Nonetheless, even among households classified as food secure, levels of poverty are high, with up to a third having levels of expenditure that are below the food poverty line set by the Uganda Bureau of Statistics. Moreover, when using the alternative experience-based FIES developed by the FAO, which covered the one-month period before the URVS, food insecurity appears to be high across all groups.

Table 15: Food security indicators by food security groupings

Indicator	Food security index groupings			
	Food secure	Marginally food secure	Moderately insecure	Severely insecure
Dietary diversity score, mean (<i>min= 0 and max=8</i>)	4.9	4.3	4	3.5
Food consumption score, mean (<i>min= 0 and max=112</i>)	44	37	31	22
Reduced coping strategies index score, mean (<i>min= 0 and max=56</i>)	9	11	16	31
Food insecurity experience scale, <i>percentage of households experiencing severe food insecurity</i>	64%	67%	70%	76%
Share of food expenditure in total household expenditure, <i>mean</i>	37	60	86	90
Poverty rate, <i>percentage of households living below the basic needs line</i>	30%	52%	70%	71%
Extreme poverty rate, <i>percentage of households living below the food poverty line</i>	21%	33%	55%	53%

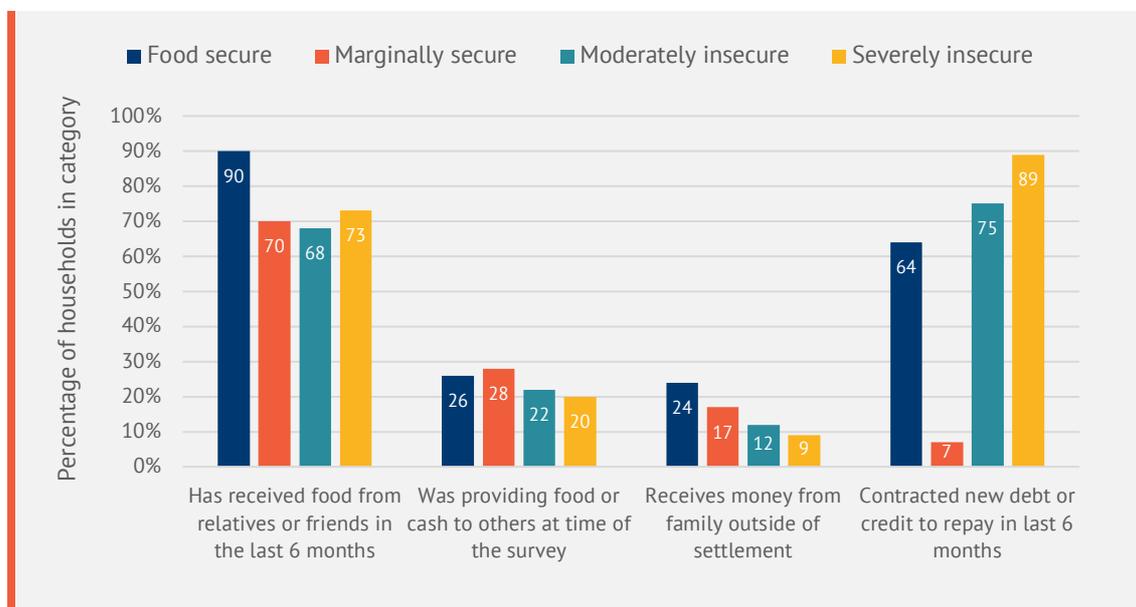
Overall, 40 per cent of refugee households had low dietary diversity (with a score of 2 or less) in the week before the survey, 44 per cent had medium dietary diversity (with a score of 3 to 5), and 16 per cent were classified as having high dietary diversity (6 or more food groups). The majority of refugee households had a meagre, undiversified diet consisting almost exclusively of staples, legumes, vegetables and oils. Figure shows the food groups predominantly consumed at different levels of the dietary diversity score. It provides information on the types of food eaten by those with the lowest dietary diversity and the additional foods among those with a higher score. Households with low dietary diversity tend to consume predominantly staples (on 5 out of 7 days, on average) supplemented with legumes and nuts (on just over 4 days). Households with medium dietary diversity are able to also regularly consume vegetables and leaves as well as oil and fats (on about 4 out of 7 days, on average). It is only the group with a high dietary diversity score that is able to eat milk and other dairy products, animal protein and fruit on a few days per week. It is important to note that these results of low dietary diversity are not unexpected given the limited diversity of food rations: the dietary diversity score when measured against the items in the food basket provided by the WFP would be 3.

Figure 39: Frequency of consumption of food groups by dietary diversity score, 7-day recall period



As discussed in Section 4.3, many refugees rely on support from their social networks after their WFP rations or cash run out. Compared with severely food insecure households, those who are food secure are somewhat more likely to have received food from relatives or friends during the six months before the survey, but they are also more likely to be providing support to others (Figure 40). This may indicate that households with better food security status have a stronger ability to engage in reciprocal altruism. Moreover, nearly a quarter (24 per cent) of food secure households receive money from family members living outside the settlement, compared with 9 per cent among severely insecure households.

Figure 40: Percentage of refugee households receiving or providing support to others and percentage of households with debt, by food security classification grouping



Levels of debt are relatively high, with nearly nine out of ten (89 per cent) severely food insecure households indicating that they recently contracted new debt or credit to repay. As illustrated in Table 16, there are large differences in the reasons given for borrowing money based on households' food security classification. Over 71 per cent of severely insecure households with new debt took the loan out to buy food. Households classified as food secure, on the other hand, tend to incur debt to pay for education-related costs and cover health expenses.

Table 16: Reasons given for contracting debt among households who contracted new debt or credit in six months preceding the survey, by food security classification grouping

Reason for contracting new debt	Food security classification			
	Food secure	Marginally secure	Moderately insecure	Severely insecure
To buy food	6.4	42.9	55.8	71.2
To cover health expenses	36.9	24.3	29.5	14.8
To pay school, education costs	40.6	18.6	7.1	4.3
To buy agricultural inputs (seeds, tools)	6.2	0.3	1.2	3.1
To buy clothes, shoes	0.0	4.5	0.6	1.1
To buy animals	0.0	2.8	1.2	0.6
Other reasons	9.9	6.6	4.6	4.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

5.3 Factors influencing households' food security status

This section examines factors that are influencing households' food security status in greater depth, drawing on regression analysis that controls for a wide range of background characteristics. Figure 41 and Figure 42 provide a visual representation of the regression coefficients in the model. They show which variables have the strongest effect (either positive or negative) *after controlling for all other independent variables* in the model. The coefficients are expressed relative to the base level of their variable, plotted on the vertical red line. The coefficients for district and interaction variables (square of the number of children and elderly) were omitted from the graphs for clarity. Further details of the regression models and descriptive statistics are available in Annex 6.

Figure 41: Results of multivariate regression showing odds ratios of being severely food insecure

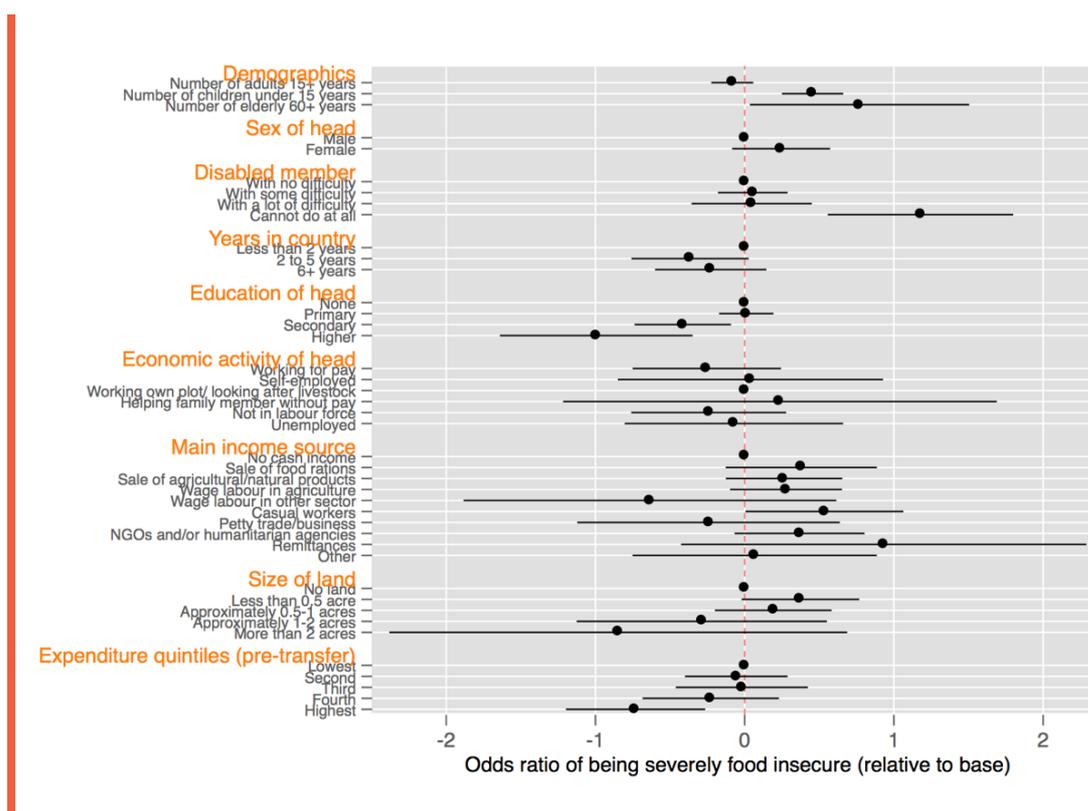
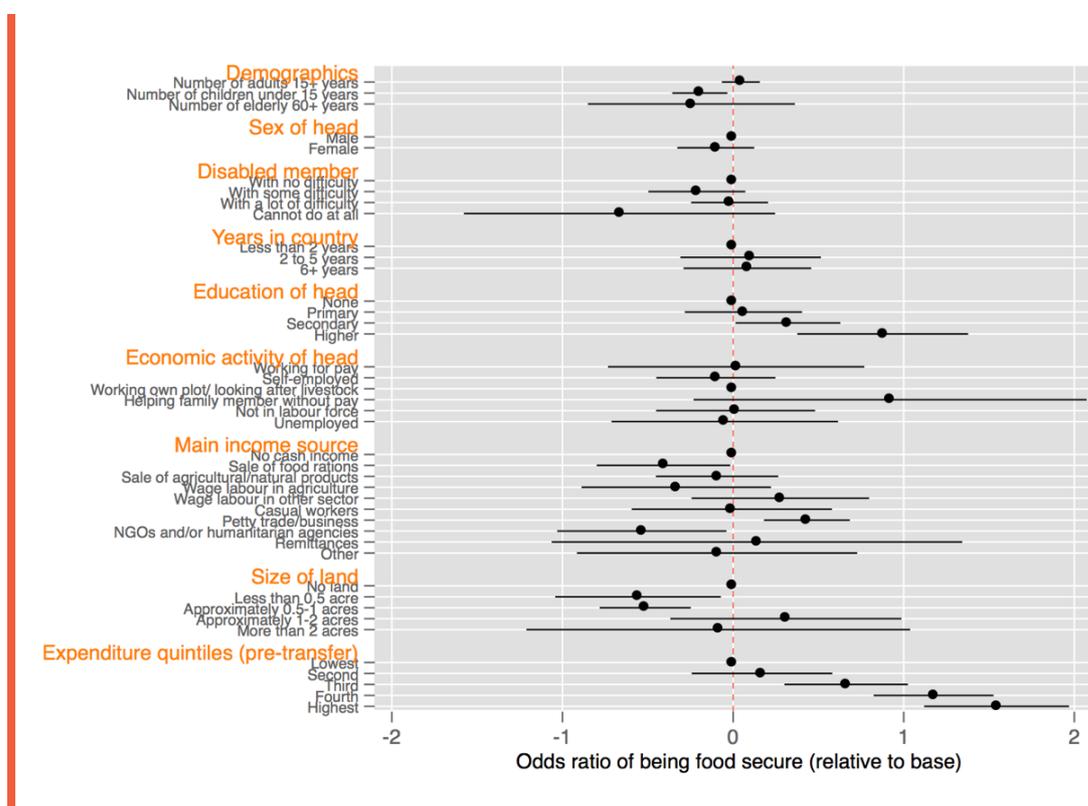


Figure 42: Results of multivariate regression showing odds ratios of being food secure



5.3.1 Demographic characteristics

Demographic factors and household composition play an important role in shaping the risk of food insecurity. Refugee households classified as severely food insecure have an average household size of 4.2 members, compared with 3.5 among food secure households. The average number of adults of working-age (18 to 59 years) is reasonably similar across the food security classification groups but there are important differences in the average number of children and older persons.

Food insecure households tend to have a higher dependency ratio, calculated as the ratio of the number of children and older people to the number of family members of working age. The average dependency ratio ranges from 0.99 among food secure households to 1.58 among severely food insecure households. The regressions confirm that households with more children and older persons have significantly higher odds of being severely food insecure and lower odds of being classified as food secure.

Disability and food insecurity are also linked. Compared with an average household, the prevalence of severe food insecurity is more than two times higher among households with a family member who is unable to do one or more of six basic activities (seeing, hearing, walking, remembering, self-care, and/or communicating). Further, the average number of family members with a disability is somewhat higher among more food

insecure households. In the regressions, the effect of disability stands out strongly: after controlling for other observable characteristics, the odds of being severely food insecure are 3.2 times larger for a household with a profoundly disabled member than the odds for a household with no disabled member.

Gender has an influence on the food security status of households, but the statistical significance is not strong. On average, 48 per cent of members in food secure households are female, rising to 55 per cent in the most food insecure households. In the regressions, the odds of being severely food insecure for a female-headed household are nearly 1.3 times larger than the odds for male-headed households.

Box 17: The experience of food insecurity in refugee settlements

Latifa is a 50-year-old woman who lives in Rwamwanja with her 3 grandchildren, aged 5, 7 and 10 years. They are all on half rations (in other words, they had not been classified as an EVH). They were receiving 5 kgs of maize per person – a total of 20 kgs per month – but she shifted to receiving cash in May 2017. Latifa has a son and his family living close to her but they are unable to support her as they have children, and the wife was pregnant at the time of the interview. In Congo, Latifa was a thriving businesswoman but was forced to flee after she lost her husband and another son in the war. In Uganda, she constantly worries and becomes depressed at the thought of being unable to feed her grandchildren. For food, she relies on food assistance and a small plot of land cultivated by her son. In order to survive, she and the children normally skip breakfast to eat lunch at 11 am and dinner at 3 am. On days when they have porridge in the morning, they will have lunch at 1 pm and eat again the next day.

As a result of such poverty, Latifa has also been neglecting other basic needs. She is unable to seek much-needed treatment for her kidneys or send any of the children to school. She misses her old life when she and her family had more than enough to eat, good clothes and even a television set. However, she is thankful for the peace she has found in Uganda and is willing to withstand the poverty that comes with being a refugee. She is finally looking for ways to re-build her life gradually and has started rotating part of her cash transfer through maize trading in the hopes of saving enough to once more start a business.

5.3.2 Socio-economic characteristics

The educational attainment of the head of the household is an important determinant of food security. The odds of falling into the group of severely food insecure households are especially low when the household head has completed secondary or higher education. This suggests that there is a dividend to pursuing education for the refugees, despite the findings from the qualitative research that many refugees with higher education are unable to utilise their education in Uganda. On the other hand, it also underscores the importance of improving access to quality education for refugees, which is currently inadequate.

There is a strong correlation between food security and economic well-being, measured by households' level of (pre-transfer) expenditure. Households in the bottom quintile –

that is, the 20 per cent of refugee households with the lowest per capita expenditures – are approximately two times more likely to be severely food insecure and 6 times less likely to be food secure compared to households in the top quintile (in other words, the 20 per cent of households with the highest levels of expenditure).

The employment status of the head of household and the main source of cash income play a role in food security, although the statistical significance weakens after controlling for the influence of other variables. In particular, households that are able to diversify away from the agricultural sector appear to have better food security outcomes. For instance, the prevalence of severe food insecurity is relatively low among households that depend largely on wage labour in the non-agricultural sector or on petty trade and business (6 to 7 percent) but rises to around 25 to 27 per cent among households relying on casual or wage labour in the agricultural sector. In the regressions, the odds of being severely food insecure are lower when the head of the households works for pay as compared to working on his or her own plot of land.

The size of plots of land for agriculture needs to be large enough to have a significant influence on households' food security status. For example, the prevalence of severe food insecurity drops below 10 per cent only among households with at least 2 acres of land. It is worth noting that refugee households with no agricultural land have, on average, slightly better food security outcomes compared with households that do have access to agricultural land. This is because households who report having no land tend to have arrived in Uganda more recently (in the past year or two) and are more likely to be receiving food assistance compared to those with small plots of land. In the regressions, the statistical significance of the effect of land size reduces when holding all other factors constant.

5.3.3 Time since arrival in Uganda

Households that have been the longest in the country are not necessarily performing better in terms of food security outcomes. As described earlier, the prevalence of severe food insecurity is three times higher among refugee households who have been in Uganda for 6 or more years compared to those who arrived in the last two years. However, in the regressions, when controlling for the influence of other factors, the effect largely disappears and becomes statistically insignificant.

This finding undermines the targeted food assistance mechanisms that were implemented in many settlements following the 2017 JAM guidelines, in which the amount of food assistance received is in inverse proportion to the length of time the refugee household has been in country. There is no single explanation for why households that have been in the country the longest are more likely to be insecure relative to new arrivals. Rather, a

number of possible factors underpin this finding. One strong explanation is that households that have been longest in the country live in the regions that have been hit the most by droughts in recent years. Given that they are also more likely to live off their land and produce a greater share of current food expenditure from their own production, the weather shock has reduced their ability to cope with food insecurities. Additionally, they have been most affected by ration cuts.

6 Performance of the Current Targeting Mechanism

In this chapter, the performance of the system of targeting food assistance that was implemented in 2017 is examined. We look at coverage, inclusion and exclusion errors, and its effectiveness in reaching the most vulnerable refugees. Since the study was undertaken – and, in part, as a response to this study – the targeting mechanism that was used in 2017 has been put on hold and, by 2019, all refugees were receiving a full ration. Therefore, the findings in this chapter do not apply to the situation found in 2019.

The mechanism in place in 2017 for targeting food assistance to refugees in Uganda was broadly based on two components. All new arrivals were eligible to receive support but the size of the ration or cash transfer had been reduced on several occasions in the past – and, for some, had been stopped completely – based on the duration of stay of refugees in Uganda (following both JAM recommendations and *ad hoc* reductions in response to insufficient resources). The rationale was based on the understanding that food assistance is most essential when refugees arrive and that people gradually require less support as they become settled and more economically self-sufficient, for example by harvesting from their allotted land and engaging in other income-generating activities.

WFP also used ‘vulnerability’ to inform selection criteria, recognising that some people are unable to become ‘self-reliant’ over time, due to their functional limitations or other vulnerabilities limiting their ability to earn income, alongside a lack of support from family members. Members of households classified as Extremely Vulnerable Households (EVHs) were entitled to ongoing food assistance, irrespective of their time spent in country, for as long as their condition of vulnerability persisted. Besides food assistance, there were other forms of support targeted at particular groups, including the supplementary feeding programme for moderately malnourished children, and the Maternal and Child Health and Nutrition (MCHN) programme for pregnant and lactating mothers and children below 2 years. These were not considered in the research.

6.1 Coverage of the food assistance across vulnerable groups

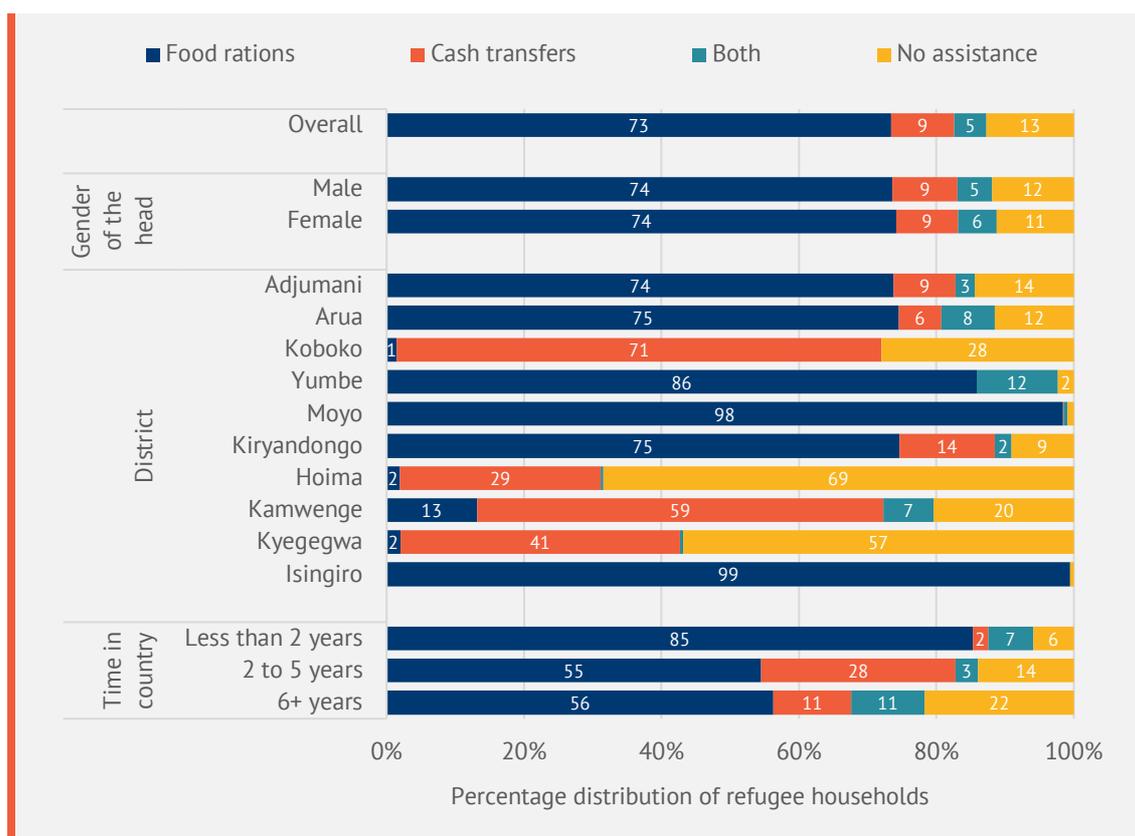
Close to 90 per cent of refugee households were receiving some form of assistance in 2017 (see Figure 43 for detailed information). Food assistance was the most common: 73

6 Performance of the current targeting mechanism

per cent were benefiting from food transfers, while 9 and 5 per cent were benefiting from cash only or both cash and food respectively.⁵⁸

The proportion of households receiving assistance was not uniform across districts and other background characteristics correlated with the settlement, such as time in country and nationality. With the exception of Koboko (Lobule settlement), the proportion of households in the West Nile districts receiving some form of assistance ranged from 86 per cent in Adjumani to almost 100 per cent in Moyo. In the Mid-West region, the difference between the two districts was large: 69 per cent of the refugees in Hoima (Kyangwali settlement) were not receiving any form of assistance while, in Kiryandongo, 89 per cent of households were benefiting. Significant disparities were also observed in the South-Western districts.

Figure 43: Distribution of refugee households by type of assistance received and other background characteristics⁵⁹



⁵⁸ The combined cash and food transfers were the result of a shortfall in cereals in the 8th distribution cycle of 2017. Only 50 per cent of the normal quantity of cereals was delivered to refugees in some settlements with a cash top-up of UGX7,000 per person as compensation. The settlements where a cash top-up was delivered included Kiryandongo, Adjumani, Rhino Camp, Bidibidi and Imvepi.

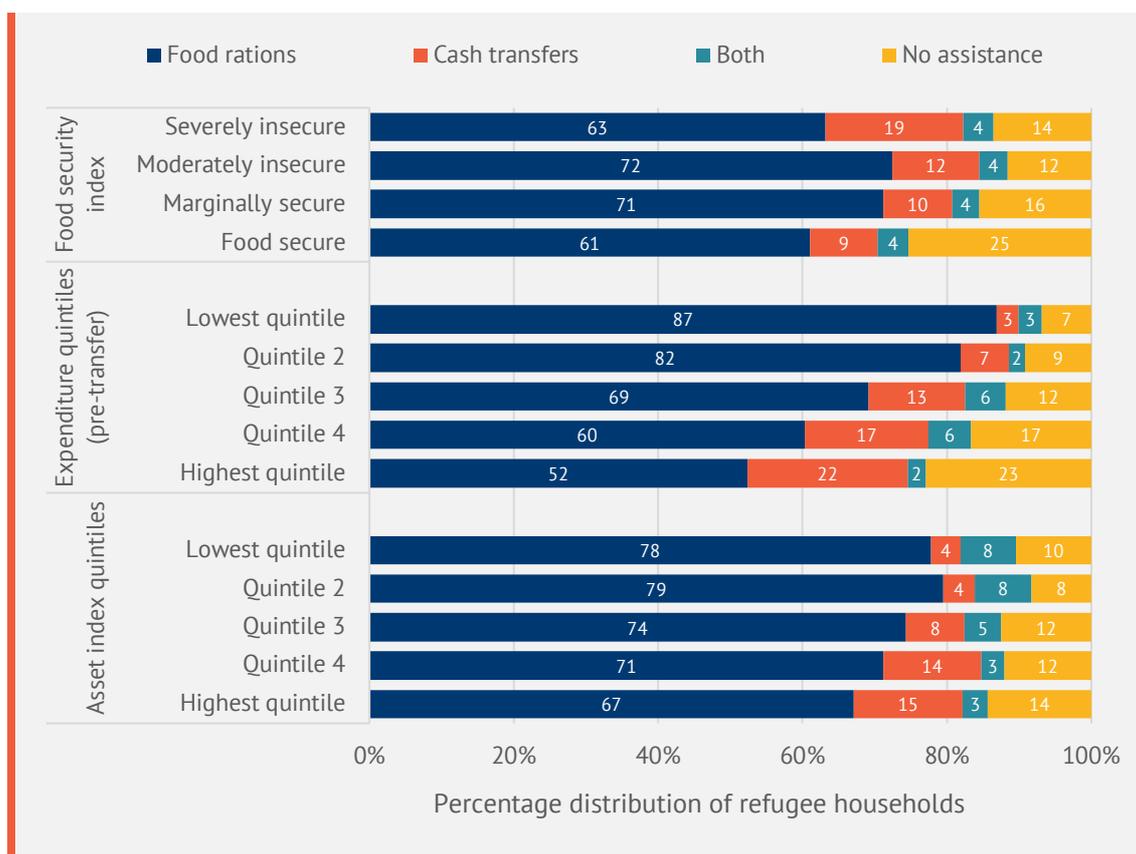
⁵⁹ The Figure shows the proportion of refugee households receiving food, cash, both or not receiving any assistance. In addition to those living in households not receiving any assistance, there were refugees living in households receiving assistance, although as individuals they were not receiving it.

6 Performance of the current targeting mechanism

In terms of socioeconomic characteristics, working age one-person households or couples with no children were more likely to **not** be receiving assistance, while older persons in single headed households and skipped generation households were more likely to be receiving assistance.

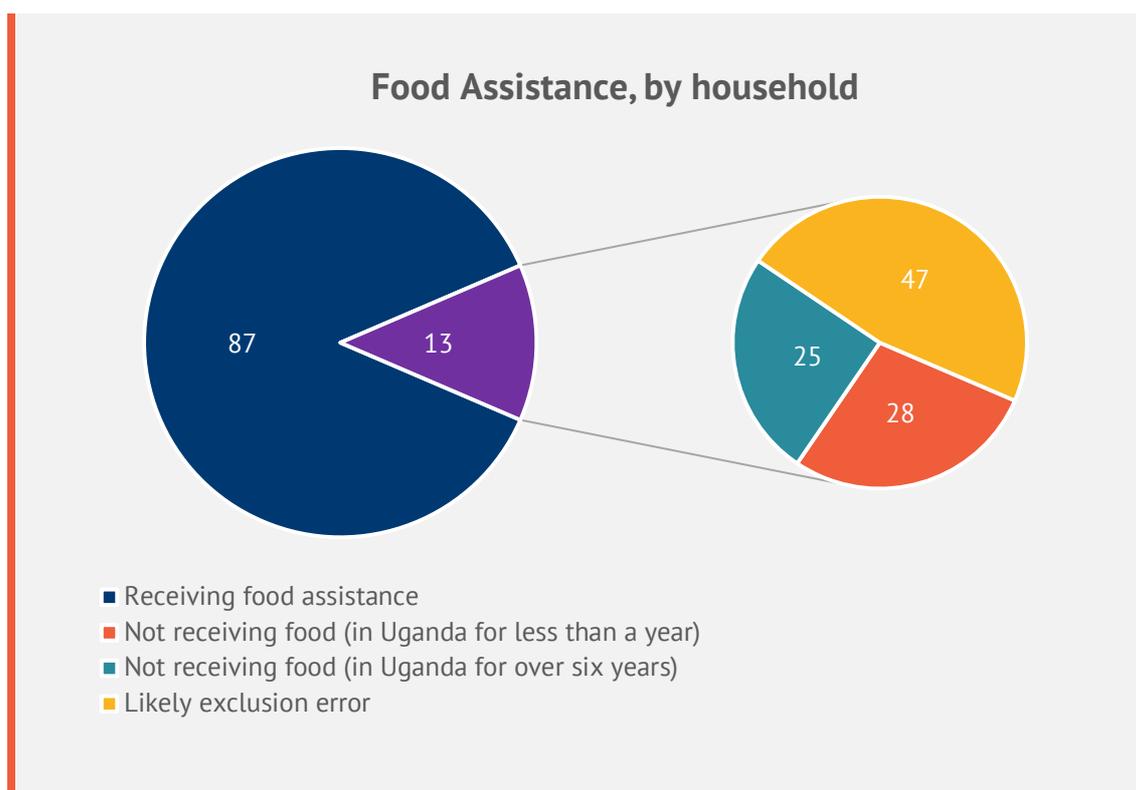
As Figure 44 shows, while a quarter of the households in the food secure group were not receiving food assistance, there was little difference in the proportion of households receiving food assistance among the bottom three groups of the Food Security Index. Between 84 and 88 per cent of the households in the lowest food secure groups were receiving food assistance. However, there was a tendency for fewer households in the high expenditure quintiles to be receiving food assistance. Households with higher expenditure were also more likely to receive cash, which is probably because more of these households were in the settlements where cash was provided. Overall, the higher the household per capita expenditure, the less likely were households to receive any former of food assistance. Households with more assets were less likely to be receiving assistance. In terms of the type of assistance being received, refugees living in household that were relatively wealthier in terms of assets were more likely to be benefiting from cash assistance than refugees in lower asset index quintiles.

Figure 44: Distribution of refugee households by type of assistance received and measures of food security, expenditure and assets



As Figure 43 indicated, just over 10 per cent of households were not receiving any form of assistance at the time of the URVS in 2017. A large portion had only recently arrived in Uganda (28 per cent). It is possible that most of these were still waiting to receive their first ration. Another large group among the households not receiving any assistance (around 25 per cent) arrived more than 6 years ago and it is possible that they had been excluded from assistance as a result of the JAM recommendations. Many of these households were in Hoima and Kyegegwa. As Figure 45 shows, this leaves around 47 per cent of the households not receiving any assistance – corresponding to about 5 per cent of the total number of households – that could be considered as potential exclusion errors (as they were not likely to have been purposefully excluded because they had either just arrived, or because they had been phased out as a result of the JAM recommendations).

Figure 45: Households excluded from food assistance in 2017

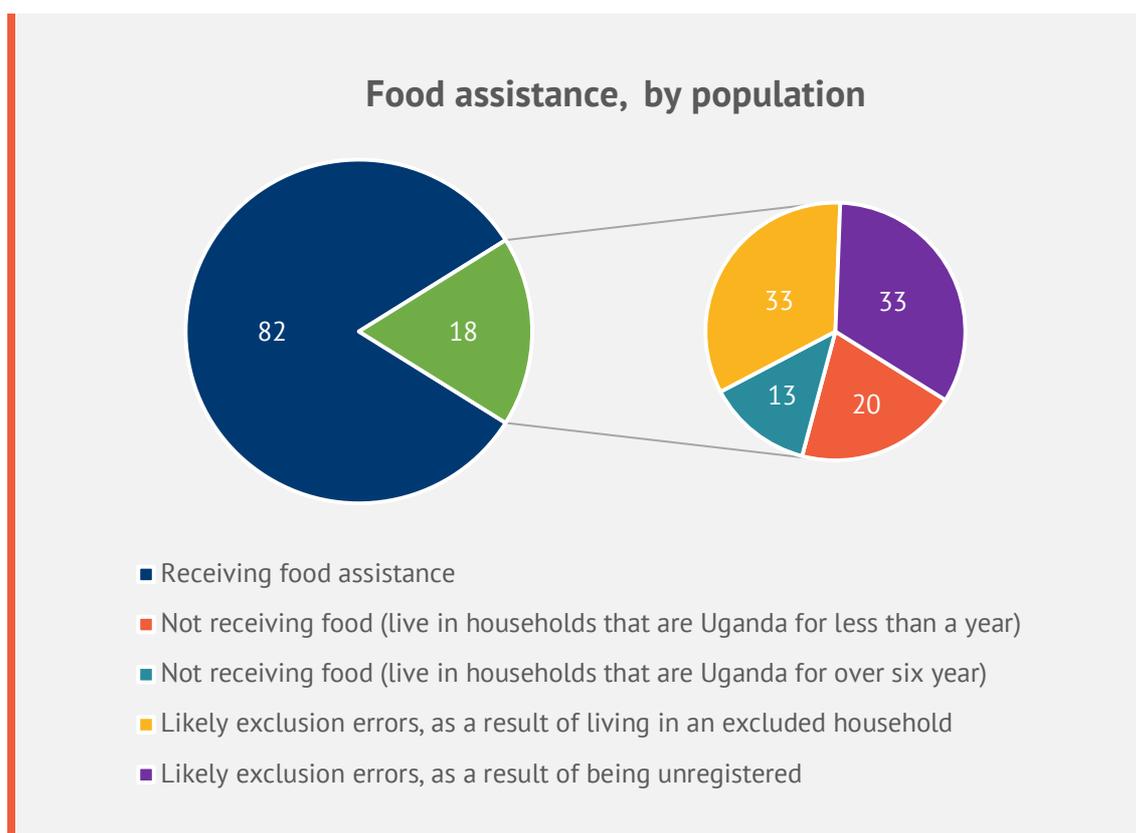


In terms of individuals, around 6 per cent of all refugees were not receiving assistance because they were in households that had been incorrectly excluded. However, this does not take into account refugees living in households receiving some assistance but who themselves were not registered for assistance. As Section 4.4 will show, an additional 6 per cent of all refugees were excluded because they were in this situation.

In total, therefore, as Figure 46 indicates, around 12 per cent of refugees were incorrectly excluded from the food assistance. It should be noted that these are estimates based on

the survey data and, therefore, come with a margin of error. It should also be noted that these results do not take into account whether refugees were receiving the correct amount of food assistance.

Figure 46: Individuals excluded from food assistance

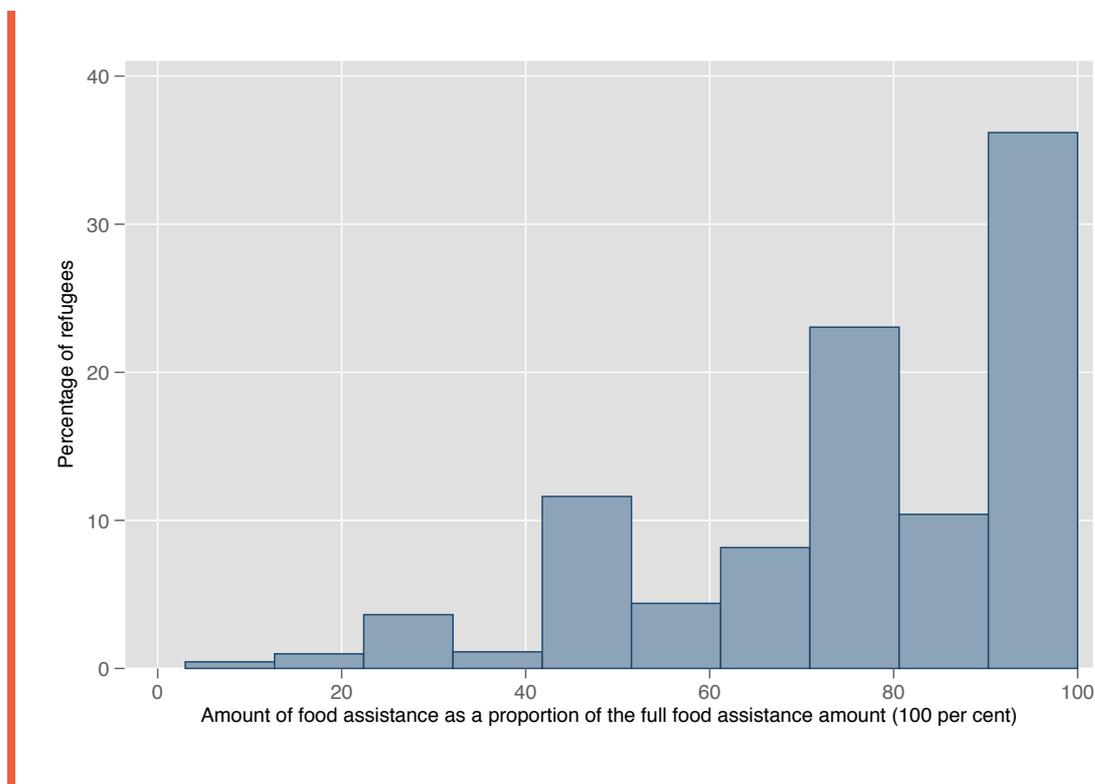


6.2 Amount of food assistance received by households

Figure 47 shows the distribution of the per capita food assistance sizes that refugees reported receiving during the most recent distribution prior to the URVS. The amounts include both food and cash and are measured as a proportion of the full transfer amount (in other words, 100 per cent). The distribution examines refugees that had been in Uganda for less than two years and were, therefore, expected to receive full rations. Nearly 40 per cent of refugees in the survey reported receiving a full ration but approximately 30 per cent reported receiving less than 70 per cent of the full ration, a significant loss.⁶⁰ There may be multiple reasons for this, but inaccurate reporting by refugees is one possibility.

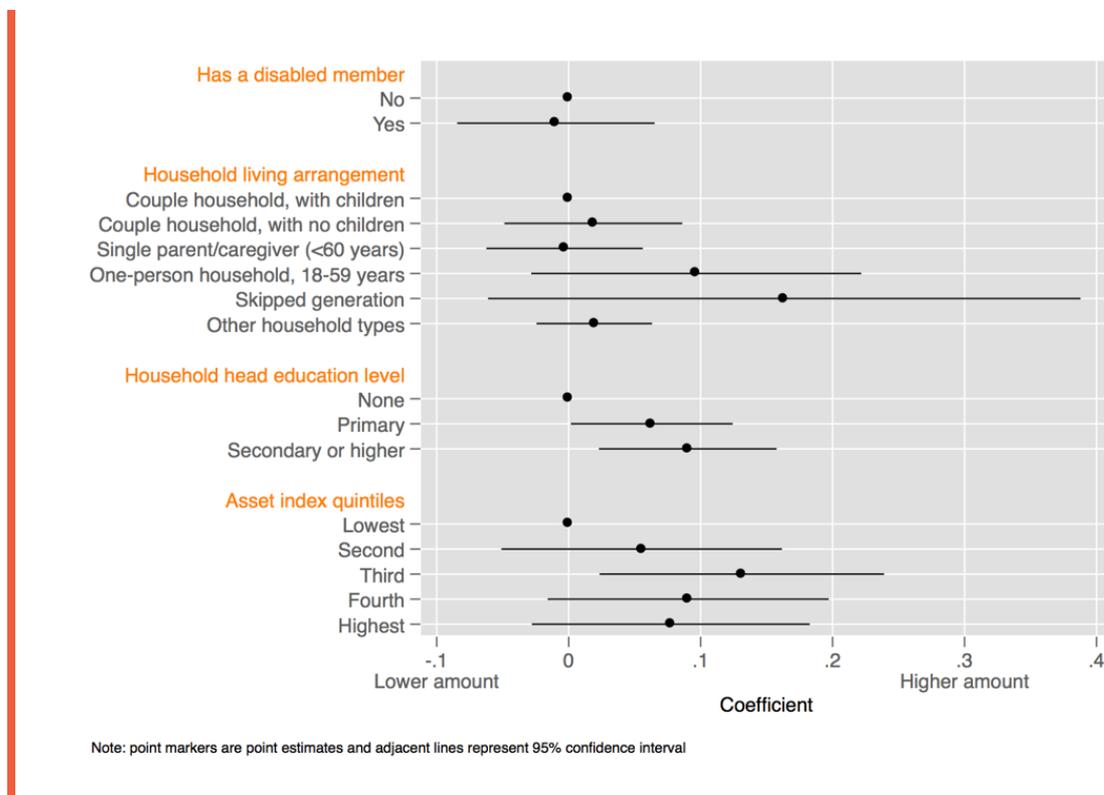
⁶⁰ Those reporting above 70 per cent but less than 100 per cent may be the result of reporting errors, although the qualitative research did find examples of refugees systematically receiving less rations than their entitlement.

Figure 47: Distribution of the per capita food assistance amounts – cash and food – received during the last distribution by refugees that had been in Uganda for less than 2 years prior to the URVS



While Figure 47 shows the amount of assistance received by households, it is also important to examine the reasons for why households received different amounts. In order to identify groups of refugee households more likely to be receiving larger transfers, linear regressions of the amount received per member in the attestation card (in logs) were performed on household characteristics, with the results shown in Figure 48. The variables of interest include categorical ones, such as whether the household has any disabled member, the type of living arrangement, the level of education of the head of the household and wealth measured by the asset index. For this analysis, in-kind transfers are monetized by assuming that full food rations were worth UGX31,000 per month.

Figure 48: Estimates of regressing amount of assistance received in household per member on different household characteristics⁶¹



Once controlling for the size of the household, age and gender of the household head, and district fixed effects, the differences in the amount received between households with and without disabled members is not distinguishable from zero. Nor are there any clear distinctions between the different types of household living arrangements, despite point estimates suggesting that households with skipped generations are, on average, receiving more per household member than couples with children. However, households with heads that have secondary or higher education were more likely to receive larger transfers than less educated households. The research cannot explain the reasons, but household heads with higher levels of education may be better informed about their ration entitlements (as well as the amount they actually receive); or, potentially refugees with higher levels of education are more capable of petitioning officials to have household members registered for assistance. Some may also be able to manipulate the system better: in the qualitative research, we found examples of better educated refugees who had been registered as EVI/Hs – but were clearly not EVI/Hs – and were receiving full transfers.

⁶¹ These are ordinary least squares estimates with robust standard errors clustered at the primary sampling unit. The dependent variable is in log scale. Additional controls include the gender of the household head, the age (and age squared) of the head, household size (and squared), asset index quintiles and district fixed effects. The sample is restricted to only households that are currently receiving assistance only. The r-squared is 0.22

6.3 Effectiveness of the targeted food assistance according to date of arrival

Prior to 2018, the values of food assistance had been reduced on several occasions based on date of arrival in Uganda. Revisions to the rations have usually been carried out following recommendations from Joint Assessment Missions (JAM). A JAM was carried out in 2011, which recommended reducing rations to 50-60 per cent for refugees who had arrived in Uganda before 2007, with these recommendations implemented in July 2012. The next JAM was carried out in 2014 and recommended reducing rations to 50 per cent for those who had arrived between April 2010 and March 2012, while completely stopping assistance to those who had arrived before March 2010. These recommendations were implemented from July 2015, although they did not apply to Oruchinga and Nakivale settlements.

In addition to these reductions, WFP have occasionally had to reduce food assistance in an *ad hoc* manner due to insufficient resources being available. These reductions are usually reversed within a few months once the food assistance pipeline is restored to normal. However, in August 2016, WFP was forced to reduce food assistance transfers by 50 per cent for all refugees who had arrived before July 2015 (on top of the reductions already carried out following the latest JAM). This reduction was implemented in all settlements, except for the newly opened settlements of Bidibidi, Palorinya, Imvepi and Palabek. This ration reduction has yet to be reversed.

This history of cumulative food assistance reductions had, by 2017, created a complex mix of cash transfer and food ration values, based on how long people had been in Uganda at the time of the ration reduction events, while varying between settlements.

During the qualitative research, many refugees indicated that the use of duration in country as an indicator of vulnerability was not an appropriate criterion. They argued that there were few meaningful differences between the needs of new arrivals and those that had been in Uganda for longer periods of time. Box 18 provides an example of some of the paradoxes of targeted food assistance by date of arrival, as experienced by refugees in practice.

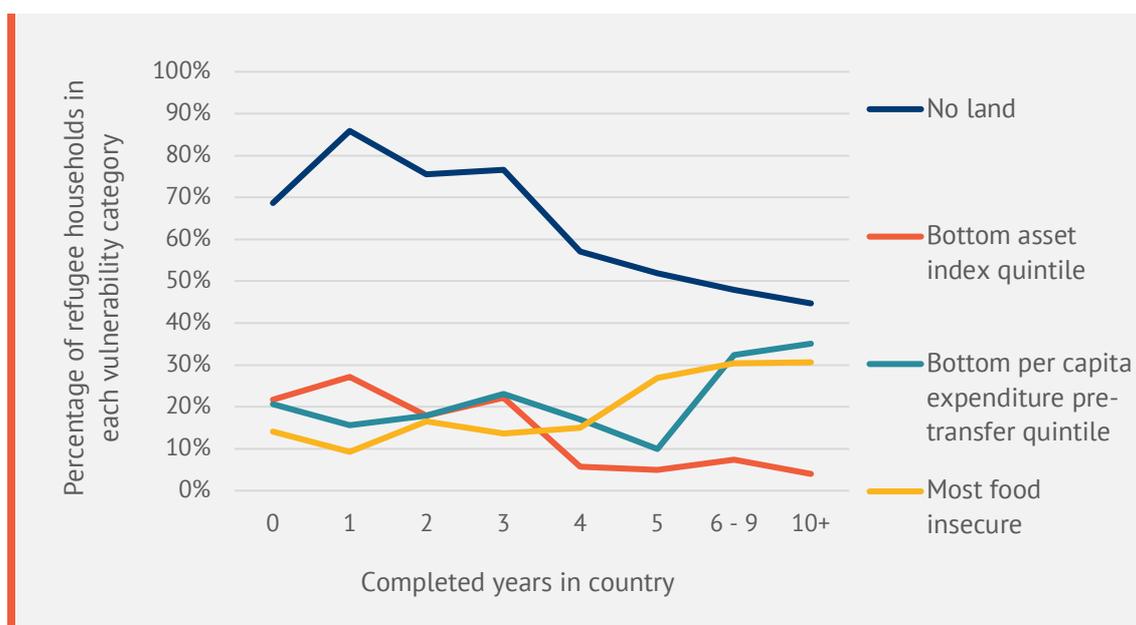
Box 18: Paradoxes of targeted food assistance by date of arrival

In Kyangwali, a young man was registered as a new caseload while his wife had arrived earlier and was registered as an old caseload. She, therefore, did not receive any food assistance. When they gave birth to a child, the new-born baby was added to the mother’s family attestation card and was, therefore, also not receiving any food assistance. The family was able to meet their basic needs as the husband worked as a teacher in the settlement. However, this illustrates the potential implications of using duration in-country as an indicator of vulnerability, which in this case resulted in a young man with a steady income being eligible for a full ration while a young mother with a new-born baby and no source of income receives no support.⁶²

As indicated in previous sections, the survey data confirms the perception of refugees that there are no systematic differences in vulnerability depending on date of arrival in Uganda.

Figure 49 shows some of the key vulnerability indicators depending on time in Uganda: the proportion of people scoring low on indicators – such as not having access to land, not having assets, being in the lowest quintile of per capita expenditure pre-transfers and being in the most food insecure group according to the food security index – are more or less equally distributed across the refugee population, regardless of how many years people have been in the country.

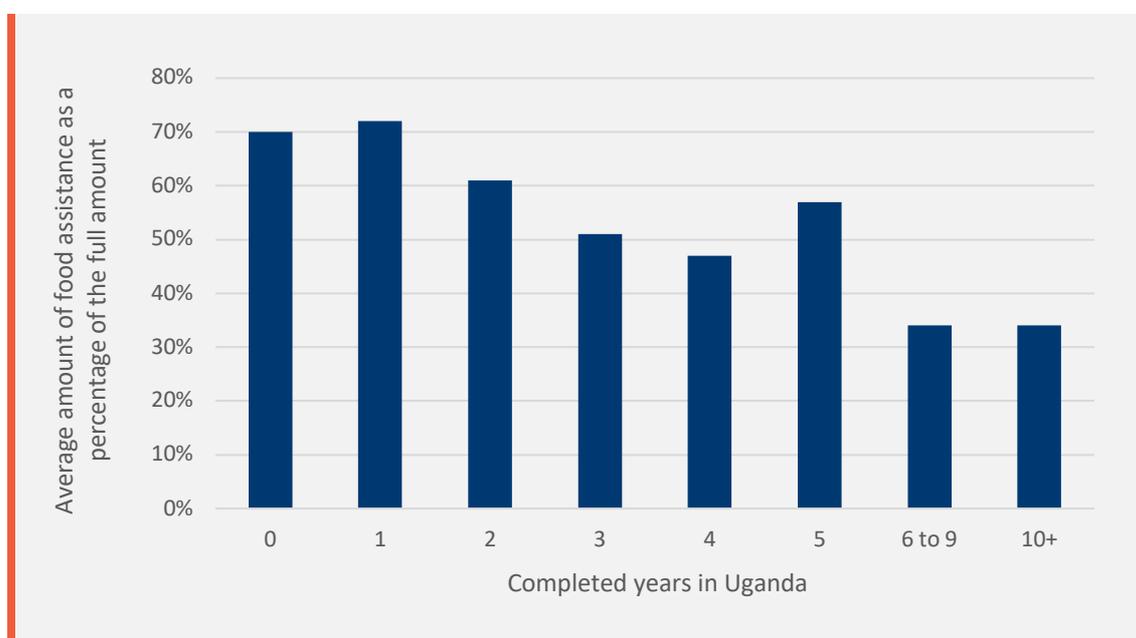
Figure 49: Vulnerability indicators by years in country



⁶² 24/07/2017, SSI, young adult male, new case, Kyangwali

Refugees that had been in Uganda for more than 5 years, on average, received a lower amount of food assistance (either food or cash) than those who had been in the country for less than 5 years (see Figure 50). Under the system of rationing food assistance by date of arrival, new arrivals (refugees that have been in Uganda for less than 2 years) were expected to receive full food assistance. However, new arrivals reported receiving, on average, approximately 70 per cent of the full ration size. It should be stressed that this is based on how much refugees stated they received and it may be that many made mistakes in reporting.

Figure 50: Average amount of food assistance as a percentage of full food assistance transfer by years in country



6.4 Effectiveness of the targeted food assistance according to vulnerability

The Extremely Vulnerable Individual/Household (EVI/H) criteria refers to the assistance given to individuals and households entitled to ongoing food assistance for as long as their condition of vulnerability remains unchanged. They were, therefore, not affected by the cuts in food assistance.

Box 19: WFP's EVI criteria

UNHCR identifies Persons with Specific Needs (PSNs) and, within this classification criteria, a PSN is considered an EVI when the nature of their vulnerability is considered severe, long term or permanent, such as old age, childhood, widowhood (life-cycle phases), disability and chronic illness. As the term suggests PSNs – including PSN-EVIs – is an individual vulnerability assessment. PSN-EVIs are entitled to support but not necessarily food assistance, as this has a narrower classification.

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The EVI/H eligibility criteria utilised by WFP are outlined in Table 17. The criteria use the UNHCR PSN-EVI assessment criteria as overarching guidelines for identifying vulnerable people but incorporate additional criteria linked to whether the individual EVI lives with others who could ‘support’ them, and whether people have reliable sources of food or income. Households with one or more person above the age of 18 years regarded as able-bodied (defined as not categorized as an EVI) should not be classified as WFP Extremely Vulnerable Households (EVH). In contrast to UNHCR, WFP’s assessment of vulnerability – when linked to eligibility for assistance – is, therefore, conceptualised at the household level.

Table 17: EVI/H criteria for WFP assistance⁶³

Selection Criteria for WFP EVI/H			
	Category	Sub-Category	Comments
1	Unaccompanied or separated child	Separated child, child in institutional care, child in foster care and unaccompanied minor	Orphans (without both parents) and children below 18 who have been separated from both parents and other relatives and are not being cared for by an institution, an adult who by law or custom is responsible for doing so.
2	Disabled	Sight impairment (including blindness), mental disability, chronic physical disability	A person qualifies for food assistance if he/she is unable to access food due to the direct consequence of his/her disability and does not have family and/or external support
3	Older person at risk	Only for persons 60 years and above	Without assets, reliable sources of food and income and/or without support from own household (sons and daughters).
4	Important medical condition	Serious chronic medical and psychological condition	A person qualifies for food assistance if he/she is unable to access food due to the direct consequence of his/her serious chronic medical and psychological condition. Medical evidence required.
5	Single parent: divorced, widows and widowers	Can be male or female	Only applies in special circumstances e.g. child mothers and single mothers/fathers with minor children below the age of 6 years without a reliable source of food and/or income.

Where the head of the household is identified as an EVI deserving food assistance then all dependent children below 18 years of age qualify to receive the EVI food basket.

⁶³ Source: WFP

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Where the household member is identified as an EVI but lives with other members of the household above the age of 18 years not qualifying as EVIs then such a person does not qualify.

Several sources of potential confusion are apparent from the criteria, which limit transparency and potentially cause issues with the identification of vulnerable refugees for assistance. Some examples are given below:

- When compared to the PSN categories, the WFP EVI/H categories appear to include several PSN classifications under one category. For example, the first category places unaccompanied (foster care and child-headed) and separated children under one category which risks causing confusion.
- The use of the term 'EVI/H' makes it unclear whether the eligibility for the EVI food assistance is at a household or individual level, even though the guidance specifies that the vulnerability criteria for assistance applies to the household.
- The criteria provide limited guidance to assessors as they are not specific enough to ensure that each case is assessed in the same way by different assessors.
- It is unclear how it is determined whether a household is 'without assets' or 'reliable' source of food and income. This is, therefore, a subjective assessment.
- It is unclear how many children should belong to single headed households in order for them to be classified as EVI/H.
- It is not clear what the phrase 'and/or' means for the definition of 'older persons at risk'.

Box 20: Interpretation of the EVI/H category 'single parent'

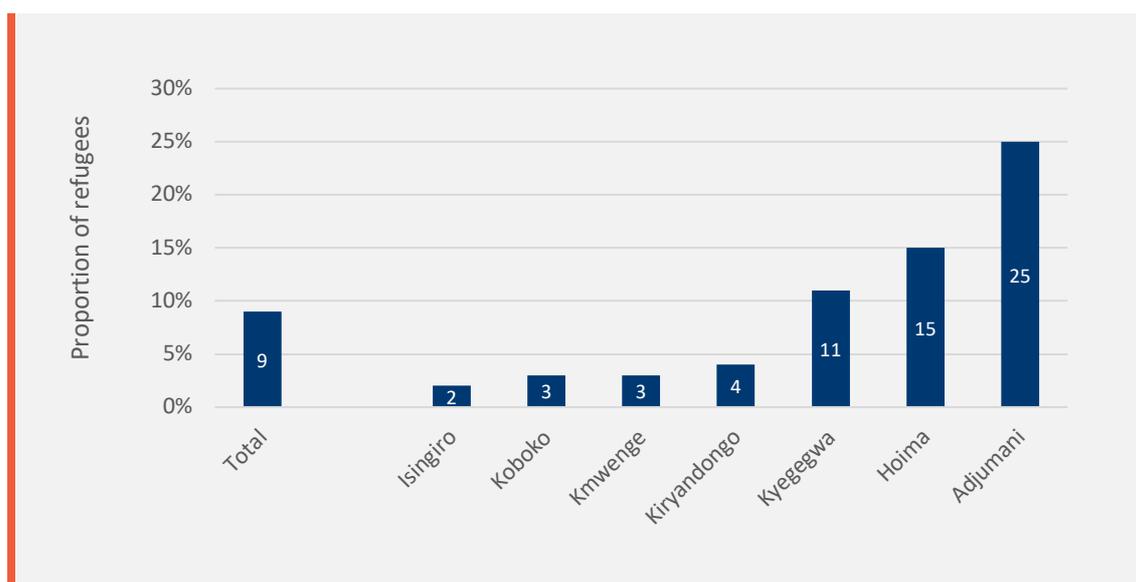
The term 'widow/widower' – which is most commonly used for assessment instead of single parent – excludes unwed parents of young children and young mothers who may or may not be living with their parents or other relatives. In the case of West Nile, for example, it was found that many married young women were still living with their parents as their husbands could not afford the bride price. On the other hand, the term 'single parent' is also exclusionary since it excludes single guardians of children who may not be the next of kin or older people who are caring for their grandchildren. Given the range of familial arrangements that occur in refugee contexts, it is important to acknowledge the prevalence of multiple categories of single 'carers'.

During the research, programme managers in the settlements exhibited some confusion about how to apply the EVI/H criteria, while large differences were observed between the

settlements in how the criteria were used.⁶⁴ It is, therefore, not surprising that the number of EVI/Hs varies considerably between settlements. Furthermore, respondents in key positions gave different interpretations on whether all household members in an EVI/H household should receive the same ration or whether – incorrectly – the higher ration is only given to the EVI individual (and refugees reported receiving both modalities of payment).

Overall, according to the administrative data, around 9 per cent of the refugee population was receiving EVI/H food assistance in distribution cycle 8, August to October 2017. However, as Figure 51 indicates, the proportion of refugees receiving EVI/H food assistance varied widely across settlements. While 25 per cent of refugees received EVI/H rations in Adjumani, only 2 per cent of refugees in Isingiro (Nakivale) had been classified as EVI/Hs.

Figure 51: Proportion of refugees in each district receiving EVI/H food assistance, according to the administrative data (Cycle 8, 2017)



Overall, refugees perceived the EVI/H assessment process to be arbitrary while there was broad agreement among both refugees and programme managers that there were high levels of inclusion and exclusion errors in the UNHCR's EVI/H lists, as discussed further in the next Section.

⁶⁴ See the qualitative research report for more detail.

6.4.1 Comparing the proportion of EVI/Hs according to the URVS data with the administrative data

Since the EVI/H guidelines are ambiguous and to some extent subjective, it is not possible to know exactly which of the refugees in the URVS dataset should qualify for EVI/H status. Therefore, a precise analysis of exclusion and inclusion errors cannot be provided. Nonetheless, it is possible to operationalise a version of the EVI/H guidelines in the URVS dataset in order to obtain an estimate of the extent of exclusion and inclusion errors. Box describes the method used to identify the respondents considered as EVI/Hs in the URVS dataset.

Box 21: Measurement of EVI status according to WFP's EVI/H criteria

Responses from the Uganda Refugee Vulnerability Survey data set indicate that it is likely that refugees are not fully informed about which individuals or households are EVI/Hs under WFP's criteria. Those reporting that they were EVIs often appeared to use the PSN classification rather than the WFP classification (during the qualitative research, many refugees appeared not to be aware of the distinction between UNHCR's PSN status and the EVI/H status for WFP assistance). As a result, 21 per cent of the sample reported being EVIs, or a dependent household member, compared to the 9 per cent reported in the administrative data. Therefore, to determine which refugees (and dependent household members) meet the EVI/H criteria operated by WFP, the assumptions described in Table 17 were used to identify respondents who *should* be considered EVI/Hs.

Table 18: Operational measurement of refugees that should be eligible for EVI/H assistance according to WFP's criteria

	Category	Operational measurement (theoretical)
1	Unaccompanied or separated child	Households with no adult members (child-only households).
2	Disabled	Persons indicating 'a lot of difficulty' or 'can't do at all' in one of the following categories: 1) difficulty seeing; 2) difficulty hearing; 3) difficulty walking; 4) difficulty with self-care; 5) difficulty communicating. And, there is no working age labour capacity in the household (i.e. no adult member between the age 18-59 years that does not have a functional limitation or chronic illness).
3	Older person at risk	An older person, aged 60 years or above, that does not live with a son or daughter (either biologically, adopted/fostered, or through marriage).
4	Important medical condition	Persons reporting not to be in the labour force due to a chronic illness.
5	Single parent: divorced, widows and widowers	Single parent households with at least three children below the age of 15 years.

The entire household qualifies as EVI/H if a household member meets any of the above criteria and does not live with other adult members of the household (aged 18-59) who do not qualify as an EVI.

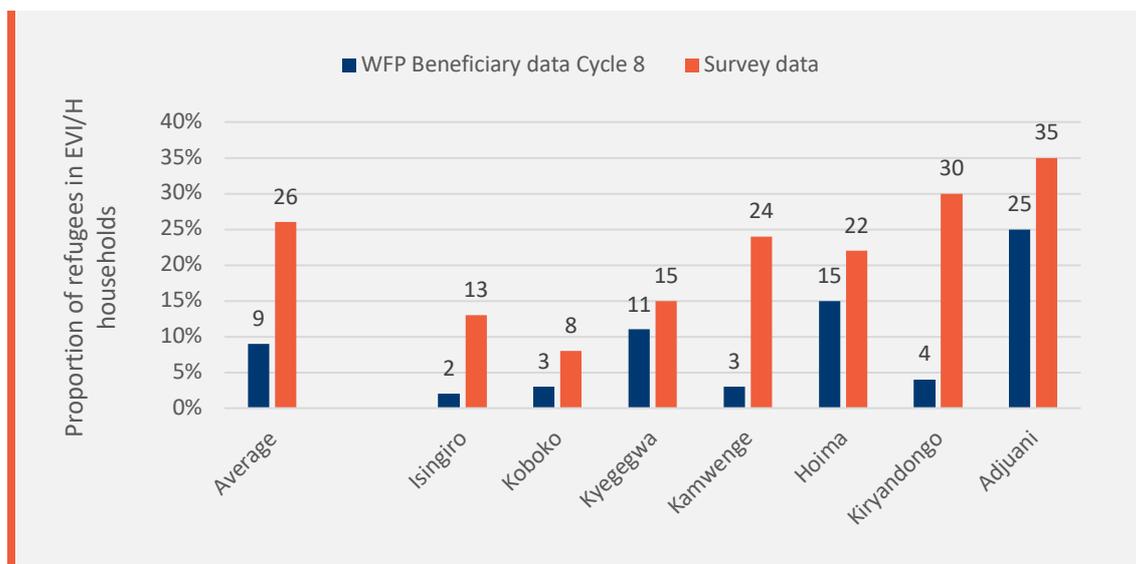
Using this operationalisation, Figure 52 outlines the proportion of refugees in the URVS dataset who were eligible for EVI/H food assistance. This is compared to the proportion receiving EVI/H food assistance based on WFP's beneficiary data from the same period of time. The measurements identify all refugees from households that should qualify as EVI/Hs across every district. However, EVI/H assessments have not become operational in every district, so WFP's beneficiary data does not include the districts of Arua, Yumbe and Moyo.

Across all districts, a much higher proportion of refugees were identified in the URVS dataset as eligible for EVI/H food assistance than in the administrative data. Across all the districts where EVI/H food assistance had been distributed, 26 per cent of refugees in the URVS dataset lived in households meeting WFP's EVI/H criteria, whereas the actual proportion of refugees receiving EVI/H rations was approximately 9 per cent.⁶⁶

⁶⁵ Note: Disability measurements are based on the international classification provided by the 'Washington Short Set of Disability Questions.'

⁶⁶ Source: WFP Beneficiary Data Cycle 8 2017.

Figure 52: Comparison between the proportion of refugees living in households that meet EVI/H criteria according to the URVS dataset and the registered proportion of beneficiaries of EVI/H assistance according to WFP administrative data (Cycle 8), by district (excluding Yumbe, Moyo and Arua)⁶⁷



This data confirms the findings from the qualitative research that many people should be categorised as EVI/Hs yet are not. Many refugees talked about the barriers they face in being considered for the EVI/H list. These are described in more detail in Annex 3.⁶⁸

⁶⁷ Source: URVS (2017) and WFP Beneficiary Data Cycle 8 2017. EVIs for food assistance have not been identified in Arua, Yumbe and Moyo. If we take into account all districts, 28 per cent of refugees in the URVS dataset lived in households meeting the EVI/H criteria. In Arua, Yumbe and Moyo, 28 per cent, 32 per cent, and 27 per cent of refugees lived in households meeting the EVI/H criteria.

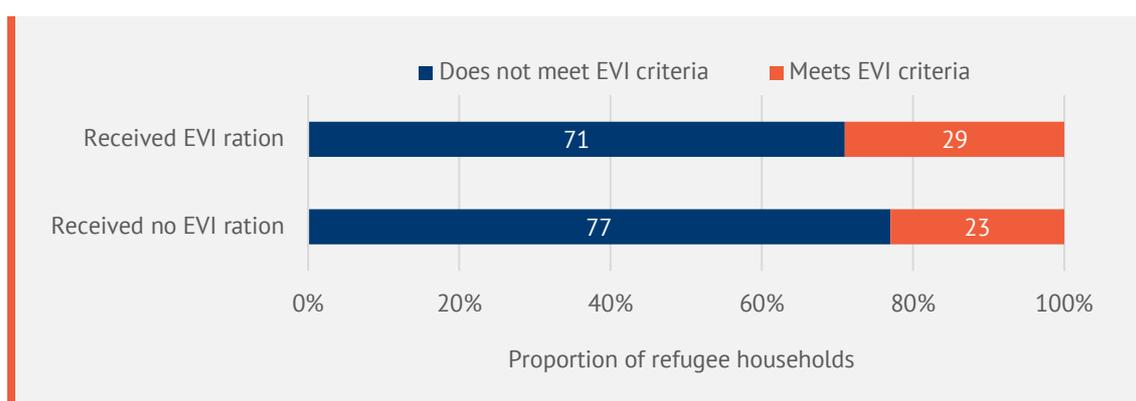
⁶⁸ See also the qualitative research report for more information.

6.4.2 Measuring inclusion and exclusion errors

Registration numbers were not collected from respondents in the URVS and, therefore, it has not been possible to identify exactly those registered as EVI/Hs. However, households identified as EVI/H are not affected by the ration cuts from August 2016 to date. It is, therefore, possible to identify refugees receiving EVI/H food rations as those receiving the full ration (12 kilogrammes) even though they had been in Uganda prior to July 2015. For the cash transfers, an EVI/H can be identified by the amount of UGX45,000 per month which is exclusively provided to EVI/Hs. Using these assumptions, households that reported receiving a per capita amount approximately equal to the full ration are identified as EVI/H households. The comparisons are made across the refugee population that has been in Uganda for at least 2 years.

Figure 53 shows a comparison between refugee households receiving EVI/H food assistance and households receiving less, among refugees that have been in Uganda for at least two years. It indicates the proportion of refugee households that should qualify for EVI food assistance, based on WFP criteria. Refugees receiving an amount equal to EVI/H food assistance were more likely to meet EVI/H criteria. Among households receiving EVI/H food assistance, 29 per cent meet the EVI/H criteria, whereas this is 23 per cent among households that are not receiving EVI/H rations.

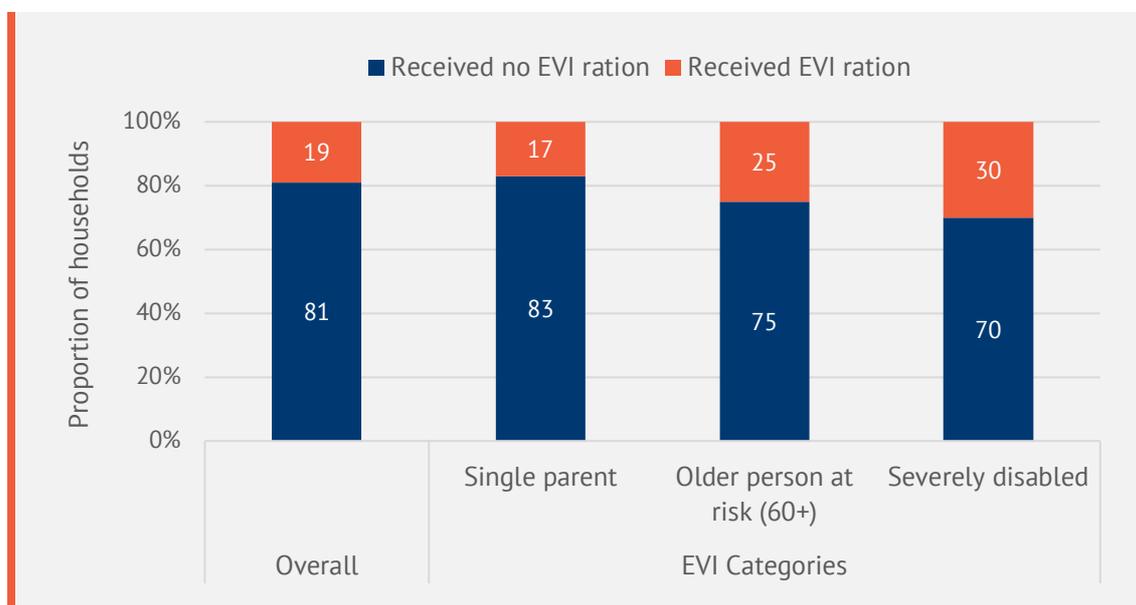
Figure 53: Distribution of refugee households, by receipt of EVI/H food assistance, and vulnerability status of household head (based on meeting WFP’s EVI/H criteria), as a proportion of households that have been in country for at least 2 years



Nonetheless, as Figure 53 indicated 71 per cent of refugees receiving EVI/H rations do not appear to meet WFP’s criteria. While recognising that the methodology used in the analysis to identify EVI/Hs in the URVS dataset is not a perfect operationalisation of the criteria, it indicates substantial inclusion errors in the EVI/H beneficiary lists. As indicated earlier, the qualitative research also found people receiving EVI/H rations who clearly did not qualify.

Figure 54 examines the specific categories of WFP’s vulnerability criteria and measures the proportion of refugee households within each category receiving EVI/H food assistance. Overall, 81 per cent of the refugee households that should have been receiving EVI/H support were not; further, in none of the categories were more than 30 per cent of refugee households actually receiving the correct food assistance. This indicates high exclusion errors for the EVI/H targeting mechanism.

Figure 54: Proportion of refugee households receiving EVI/H food assistance that should be receiving EVI/H food assistance, disaggregated by categories of WFP’s vulnerability criteria.⁶⁹



⁶⁹ The categories of ‘child-only’ and ‘important medical condition’ have not been included due to the limited number of observations.

Box 22: Impacts of the failure to identify EVI/Hs in Nakivale, during general registration

In Nakivale settlement – in Isingiro District – a particular challenge has been the widespread exclusion of EVI/Hs from the registration list following a settlement-wide registration in May 2017, leading to many missing names on the EVI/H food log. So, for example, according to a WFP source, in 2017, 132 EVI/Hs were entirely missing from the food log in just one community in Nakivale.⁷⁰ This probably explains why only 2 per cent of the population are classified as EVI/Hs in Nakivale. The proportion was almost certainly much higher before May 2017.

During the qualitative research, a widow was interviewed who lives with her 7 children, including her youngest daughter who has a severe disability. She had arrived with her husband and 6 children in Nakivale in 2005, but her husband died of an illness in 2008. In 2010, she was raped by a stranger in the settlement and gave birth to her disabled daughter. She has been taking care of her daughter since she was born but has received no support. She is, nonetheless, proactive and is now a member of the Food Management Committee. She and her disabled child have been listed as an EVI/H for WFP's food assistance, while her six other children are on 25 per cent food rations. Recently, their two names were missing from the EVI/H food log as she missed the verification process. She reported that there were seven such cases in her village alone and another 34 in the neighbouring village. They had approached the office of Samaritan's Purse in large groups to register their complaints and put pressure on them to correct these mistakes as quickly as possible.

The absence of an additional 24 kilogrammes of food grain per month has severely affected her family. She has land but there are no harvests because of the drought. Instead, she has to obtain money to buy food by working on the farms of nationals. She even washes clothes for some daily wages and does any work she can get in the area. She pointed out that her children are severely neglected, and they often miss school to take care of their sister when she has to work. They often go to school hungry: "My life is still very down since my husband died. I pray to God. For as long as I was with my parent and then with my husband I was fine. I became a widow, I was raped and then I gave birth to this child. My heart is burned, I am traumatized. I often stay here for 2 days [inside the house at a stretch] just sitting here, doing nothing". During our interview, a week before the food distribution, she was hoping to see their names back on the EVI/H food log.

6.5 Issues related to the targeting of refugee 'households'

Under the current targeting system for food assistance, the food or cash is given to the household rather than directly to individuals. In effect, it is the 'head of the household' who is regarded as the custodian of the food assistance. It is, therefore, implicitly assumed that the transfers are shared equally – or, at least, fairly – within the household. Yet, this cannot be known and, in reality, is likely to depend on power relations within the household. Some women, for example, complained that their husbands received the food assistance and sold it, purchasing goods for themselves. It was reported during the qualitative research that intimate partner violence (IPV) increases during harvests or cash

⁷⁰ 21/07/17, KII, WFP, Mbarara.

payments, with couples fighting over the use of the income. According to many interviewees – including community leaders who often deal with domestic issues – men often prefer to spend the money on leisure activities, including drinking and gambling.⁷¹ In addition, it is possible that some particularly vulnerable individuals – including those with severe disabilities and older persons – may be deprioritised for assistance in certain households.

The use of households as the key unit for the distribution of – and selection for – food assistance may also cause perverse incentives. For example, many older people live in households with people of working age and, as a result, are deprived of the opportunity of receiving EVI/H food assistance. A logical response would be for the older person to move out of the household, thereby becoming eligible for EVI/H assistance (or, merely, claiming to be a separate household). There is no evidence of this happening, but it would not be surprising if it did. Similarly, refugees have an incentive to register as new ‘households’ rather than joining family members who have arrived earlier and may have had their rations reduced. This may explain, in part, why the average household size is lower among the refugee population than across the general Ugandan population.⁷²

Household transfers deprive vulnerable people of direct control over financial and food resources, thereby making them dependent on others. Yet, most vulnerable people – in particular persons with disabilities and older persons – do not want to be dependent but wish to exercise as much autonomy as possible. Furthermore, it is critically important for them to have access to their own resources so that they can share cash and goods with others, thereby enabling them to build and strengthen their social relations.⁷³ If not, their social networks could be weakened and they could experience greater social exclusion. Ultimately, they will find that, when they are in need, they will be less able to ask others for help, which will affect their food security. Therefore, providing individual rather than household transfers could be an important means of supporting those who are more vulnerable and in danger of social exclusion, in particular older persons and persons with disabilities.

In households where couples are married and resources are given to the children or to the household, it is also important to assess whether the food assistance should be given to the man or woman, irrespective of who is regarded as the ‘head of the household.’ This could have important gender implications since, if resources are given to men, it may be less likely that the spouse – and others in the household – benefit, which could have

⁷¹ 19/07/2017, FGD, RWC, Kiryandongo.

⁷² Key informants claimed that recent arrivals have small households because they know that UNHCR assistance is given to households. Therefore, by splitting households on arrival in Uganda, refugees can receive additional assistance from UNHCR.

⁷³ See Kidd S.D. (2015) for further information.

implications for food security: for example, there is good evidence worldwide that transfers given to women are more likely to be used for children. During the qualitative research, refugees and key informants expressed different opinions about this issue: many (male) refugee community leaders reported serious issues of domestic violence in relation to conflicts over the use of household resources. However, they did not believe that the best solution would be to give women more control over resources but argued that the issues should be solved through counselling and mediation. On the contrary, many women expressed a desire to gain more control over resources and one implementing partner stated that it preferred registering women as heads of households for the food assistance, regardless of the identity of the actual head of household.

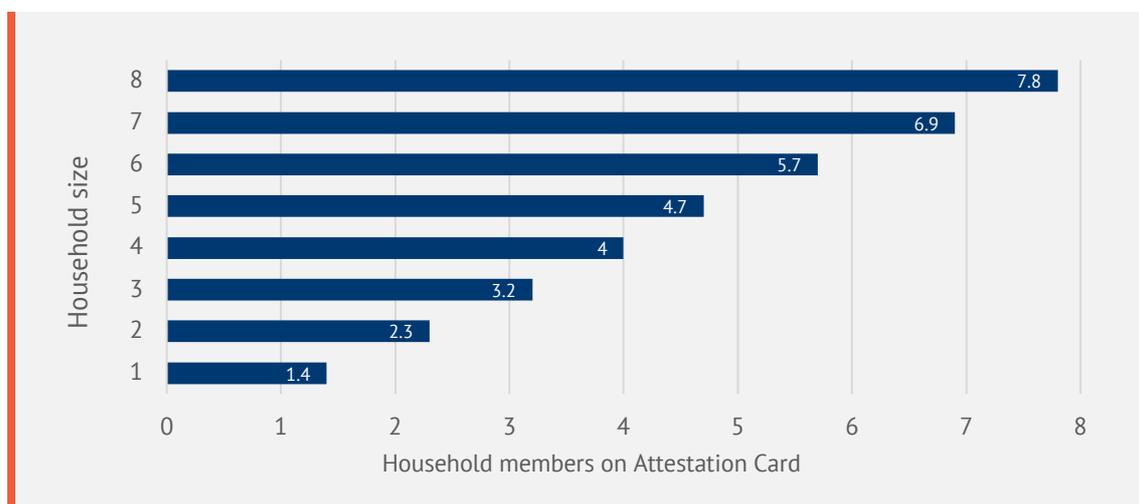
The use of households as a unit of targeting of food assistance creates further challenges for refugees since the registration system is not capable of handling the dynamic nature of refugee households. The disparity between the characteristics of a 'registered household' – as captured on the family attestation card – and actual household dynamics distorts the true picture of vulnerability of many refugee families and puts them at risk. In fact, the concept of what constitutes a 'household' is ambivalent in many contexts and not least in the context of refugee settlements. This is particularly the case for polygamous households where each wife is normally registered as a separate household, meaning that the targeting system is not actually capable of capturing the true nature of the household. The type of issues that household targeting creates for most refugees are outlined below:

- Refugees arriving and re-uniting with family members find it difficult to be included in household attestations and, therefore, have to share the rations of their family members. Alternatively, one household retains several family attestation cards instead of officially merging into one.
- Many refugees are caring for the children of missing or deceased family members but are facing challenges in registering the children on their attestation cards. They, therefore, end up having to care for a large number of children while receiving food assistance for only a fraction of the actual members in their households. During the qualitative research, a single mother caring for her own four children as well as three young children of her late sister was encountered. She had been desperately trying to register the children, but to no avail, since she had not been able to obtain a death certificate for her sister. She had to resort to survival sex in order to feed the children.
- Families wanting to split from existing households to begin their lives as separate households face challenges in being removed from existing attestation cards and having a new one created. This is, for example, the case for refugees growing up and marrying. Since they are unable to register their own household, this

eventually leaves either the young adults or their parents without access to food assistance unless they are able and willing to share across households. This is also a problem for older people who are being left on their own after their children marry but are not eligible for EVI/H status because their children remain registered on their attestation card. Similarly, in the case of separation and divorce, if the husband is registered as the household head and uses the attestation card for his new family, women are often left alone with children but without attestation and ration cards. This can make it difficult for women to leave abusive partners and, as a result, they are more vulnerable to domestic violence. During the qualitative research, we found examples of husbands continuing to collect the food assistance on behalf of the household when no longer residing with their wives.

- The registration of newborn babies is a challenge and it is likely that deaths are also not reported, as people have little incentive to do so.
- The amount of food assistance given to a household is dependent on the number of people on its attestation card. Yet, as Figure 55 indicates, there are discrepancies between the number of household members and the numbers on the attestation cards. For households of 1-3 persons, the average number of people registered on the attestation cards was higher than the number of household members but, from 5 members and above, it was less. Overall, 67 per cent of households had the same number of household members as the number registered on the attestation cards, 15 per cent had more people residing in the household than were registered on the attestation card(s) and 18 per cent had less people residing in the household than registered on the attestation card(s).

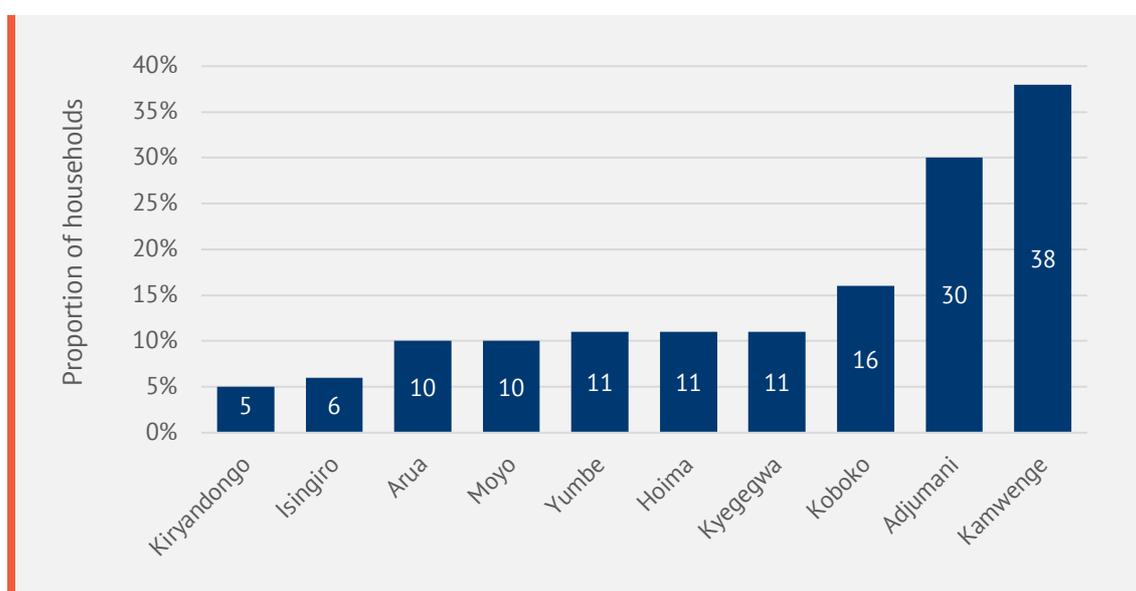
Figure 55: Average number of household members registered on attestation card, by household size



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For households with more members than the number of people registered on the attestation card, food assistance has to be shared, reducing the amount received per capita. Figure indicates the proportion of households within each district with larger household sizes than the number of people on the registration card. For instance, in Kamwenge, 37 per cent of households had members not registered for food assistance although, in Kiryandongo it was only 5 per cent.

Figure 56: Proportion of households with unregistered members (a larger household size than the number of people on the attestation card), by district



In addition, 8.7 per cent of households had more than one attestation card. This is likely to indicate that households had come across the border to Uganda at different times and were re-constituting as one household. This was noted by informants as particularly common in Bidibidi and among other new South Sudanese refugees. Some informants believed that, while many households may have split as they left South Sudan, other households may have deliberately come in as smaller units to receive more assistance from UNHCR. For many refugees, the current crisis is not the first time that they have been refugees and they may well have understood the registration system so as to be able to manipulate it.

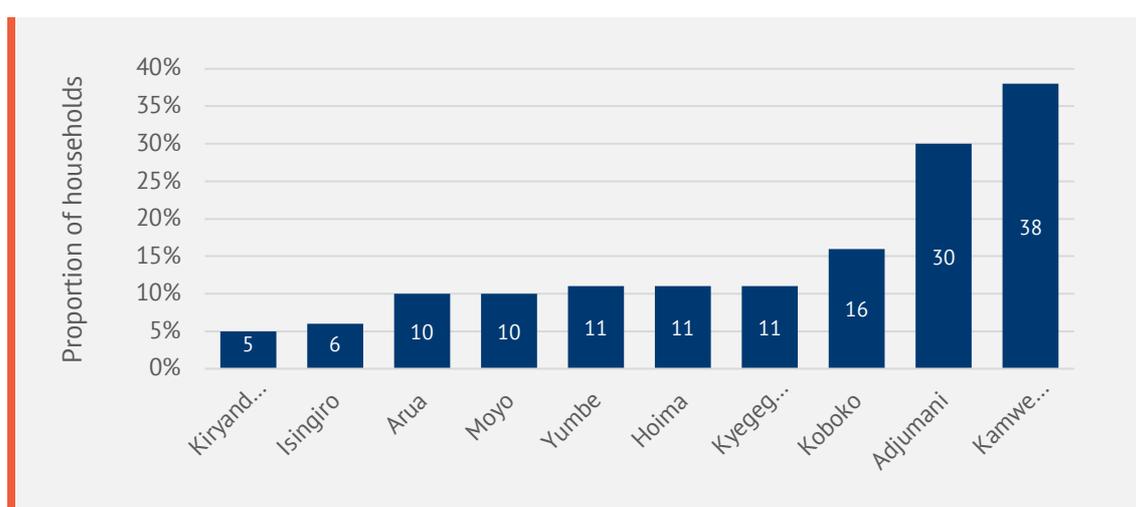
There are many reasons for inaccuracies in the attestation cards. A key challenge is likely to be the quality of the registration process either when refugees first enter Uganda or the updating process. In Bidibidi, there were reports of inaccurate entry of data, leading to the number of household members differing between the family attestation card and the food log. In Nakivale, the re-registration in May 2017 reduced the numbers in the settlement from 124,842 to around 95,576 and many informants argued that many people

had been missed off.⁷⁴ The research heard accusations that people needed to pay bribes to be registered but, of course, there is no proof that this happened. Annex 3 provides more details on issues related to the registration process.

6.6 Delivery issues

This Section considers whether refugees were receiving the food assistance amounts that they are supposed to, according to WFP administrative data and self-reporting by refugees. Figure compares data obtained through the URVS and WFP’s administrative data on beneficiaries of the 8th Cycle. Data on food ration sizes from the survey is measured as the average weight of the last food ration in each district, taking into account all individual refugees who reported receiving food assistance, or a mixture of both food and cash. The per capita value of the food ration is measured by the number of people in the household. Whereas refugees in Yumbe, Moyo and Hoima were meant to receive the full ration (100 per cent) according to the administrative data, the ration size reported by refugees within these districts was, on average, smaller. According to the administrative data, refugees were meant to have received 93 per cent of the full food assistance, on average, across all districts. However, responses from the survey indicate that refugees across all districts received approximately 71 per cent, on average. The discrepancies vary across districts and were highest in Isingiro, Yumbe, Arua and Adjumani.

Figure 57: Comparison between URVS data and WFP’s administrative data (Cycle 8) of the average per capita amount of food ration (as percentage of full assistance), by district

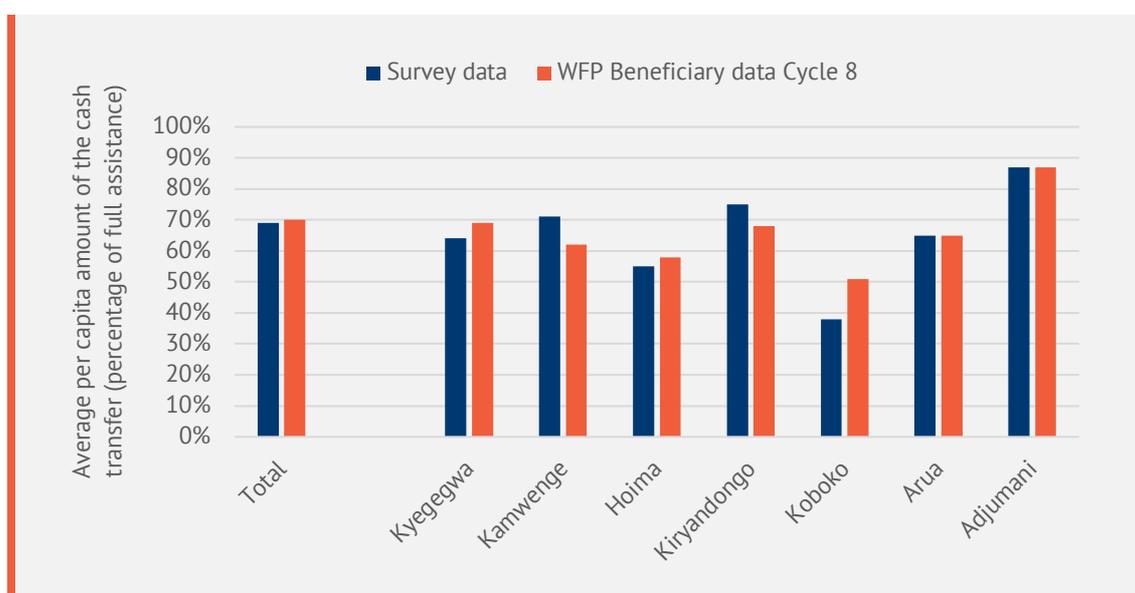


⁷⁴ In the URVS, 99 per cent of the population in Nakivale was found to be receiving food assistance.

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A comparison of the average cash transfer value indicates a few discrepancies between beneficiary data and the information in the URVS, however these are less than with food rations (see Figure 58). On average, refugees in the survey indicated receiving an amount of cash that was, on average, smaller in Kyegegwa and Koboko districts but larger in Kamwenge and Kiryandongo districts. Across all districts where cash transfers had been distributed, on average, refugees received approximately 70 per cent of the full food assistance in cash, according to WFP's administrative data of Cycle 8 as well as the URVS data.

Figure 58: Comparison between survey data and WFP's administrative data (Cycle 8) of the average per capita amount of the cash transfer (as percentage of full assistance), by district



Of course, this data comes from the answers of refugees and is limited to a sample. It is likely that some of the discrepancies are explained by respondents not being fully aware of the amount of food or cash they received.

A further issue is that, when food assistance is not delivered, the payment – in either food or cash – is not backdated. Yet, many refugees have had to take out debt to survive which is subsequently repaid when the transfer is received. While missing food assistance already undermines the food security of refugees, the non-backdating of the transfer means that their food security is also undermined in the following month.

6.7 Further issues to consider in the delivery of food assistance

While food assistance is provided to households and the amounts do not vary in response to outside conditions, there are a number of issues to consider which could further enhance the effectiveness of food assistance and strengthen food security. This Section examines three key issues: fostering; making food assistance shock-responsive; and addressing the food security needs of school-going children through school feeding.

6.7.1 Fostering

It is standard practice for unaccompanied children to be placed with foster parents. However, as discussed in Section 3.2, once unaccompanied children are placed with a family, they no longer receive the EVI/H food assistance and are given the same level of assistance as the family fostering them (which, in some cases, is nothing). Yet, the foster carers are, in effect, undertaking a job on behalf of UNHCR and partners and face significantly higher costs in caring for their families, which inhibits their capacity to achieve food security. The carers may even experience a reduced ability to gain an income for themselves, if they have to spend time caring for their foster children during the working day. If they do not receive additional support, the wellbeing of families will be placed at greater risk.

Therefore, there are strong arguments for providing foster carers with additional support from WFP or UNHCR to ensure the food security of the foster children and other members of their household and compensate the carers for the task they are undertaking. This could be set at the level of a full ration for each child fostered. Given that – according to the URVS – there are currently around 14,000 children being fostered, the cost of this measure would be only US\$119,000 per month but it would make a significant difference to the food security and wellbeing of many vulnerable households and children.⁷⁵

6.7.2 Shock responsive food assistance

As Chapter 4 described, a key challenge facing many refugees is that they have experienced a double crisis. In addition to the shock of becoming a refugee, many have also been subjected to co-variate shocks such as droughts and pests. This has had a significant negative impact on their capacity to engage in agriculture and is one of the

⁷⁵ The number of foster children is based on our survey data. The administrative data may give a different number. However, it is likely that the administrative data does not include children that were fostered some time ago and may well have been dropped from any records.

causes of greater food insecurity, in particular for those with minimal or no food assistance.

To adequately address food insecurity among refugees, it will be important to respond to these co-variate shocks by, in effect, making the food assistance system shock-responsive. One means of doing this would be to set up a system of triggers to indicate when a crisis has reached a level of severity that food security is threatened. When a trigger happens, the value of food assistance transfers to refugees living in the area covered by the trigger could be increased (vertical expansion). If there are refugees not on the regular transfers, they could also receive food assistance: however, this would imply that they are registered on the refugee administrative database so that they are eligible for food assistance when a trigger happens (horizontal expansion). The additional food assistance would be paid only for the period of the crisis.

For this to happen, donors would have to establish a shock-responsive fund that could be drawn upon when a crisis occurs. Alternatively, donors and WFP could examine the potential of developing an insurance product that would cover the costs of food assistance, during the crisis.

Varying the size of transfers during the period of a co-variate shock should make a significant difference to the wellbeing and food security of refugees. It would stop many of the challenges seen during the research, for example in Nakivale where the drought had had a significant negative impact on food security.

6.7.3 School feeding

The majority of refugee children attend school. During their time at school, they do not receive meals, which are supposed to be provided by their caregivers. Yet, offering school meals could be an opportunity to ensure that refugee children receive a nutritious meal daily, at least during school days. A lack of access to nutritious food for refugee children risks inhibiting their learning and the current food transfers do not offer adequate nutrition. A school feeding programme would ensure that children are able to perform better at school and it could encompass one or two meals (e.g. breakfast and lunch).

Well-designed school meal programmes that procure food locally can also act as a local economic stimulus by acting as a market for the produce of refugees and host communities. Another benefit is that the provision of school meals could attract more children to school.

School feeding would have to be provided to children from both refugee and host communities as it would be divisive to only support one group, since both refugee and host community children attend the same schools. While this would increase the cost, it

would help strengthen relations between refugees and host communities and would be a strong signal to host communities that they are also being supported. It would also follow the principle of allocating 30 per cent of humanitarian services to host communities.

However, there are potential challenges with introducing school meals:

- There is no evidence that it would necessarily impact on the food security of schoolchildren since they may forgo a meal at home (although school feeding could ensure improved children's nutrition if the meals are well-designed). Nonetheless, if schoolchildren were to receive less meals at home, someone else would potentially benefit.
- There is a danger that schools in the vicinity without school meal programmes may find they lose children, who move to those schools offering meals.
- If classroom sizes increase and there is no concomitant increase in investment in schools, then the quality of schooling could deteriorate. However, most refugee children are already in school.
- The Government of Uganda's policy is not to provide school meals, since it believes this is the responsibility of the carers. Therefore, WFP and partners would need to enter into dialogue with the Government since providing school meals in refugee areas could have national implications.

Nonetheless, the option of offering school meals should be considered and, potentially, piloted and evaluated.

6.8 Conclusions

The food assistance targeting mechanism used in 2017 was clearly failing. The scale of the recent influx of refugees helps explain why some newly arrived refugees were missing out and it would be surprising if current administrative structures could effectively cope in any event. However, there is also no evidence that the criteria of reducing food assistance in line with time in country and prioritising EVI/Hs was working well either. Many refugees were receiving more food assistance than they should while others were receiving less, with many highly vulnerable people not receiving what they needed. There may have been many reasons for this – and Annex 3 examines the practical challenges experienced in the registration of refugees – but it would appear that the system was too complex for the administrative capacity in place. Furthermore, because household rather than individual benefits were provided through the current targeting system, many vulnerable individuals living in households in receipt of food assistance may have been missing out or not accessing their fair share.

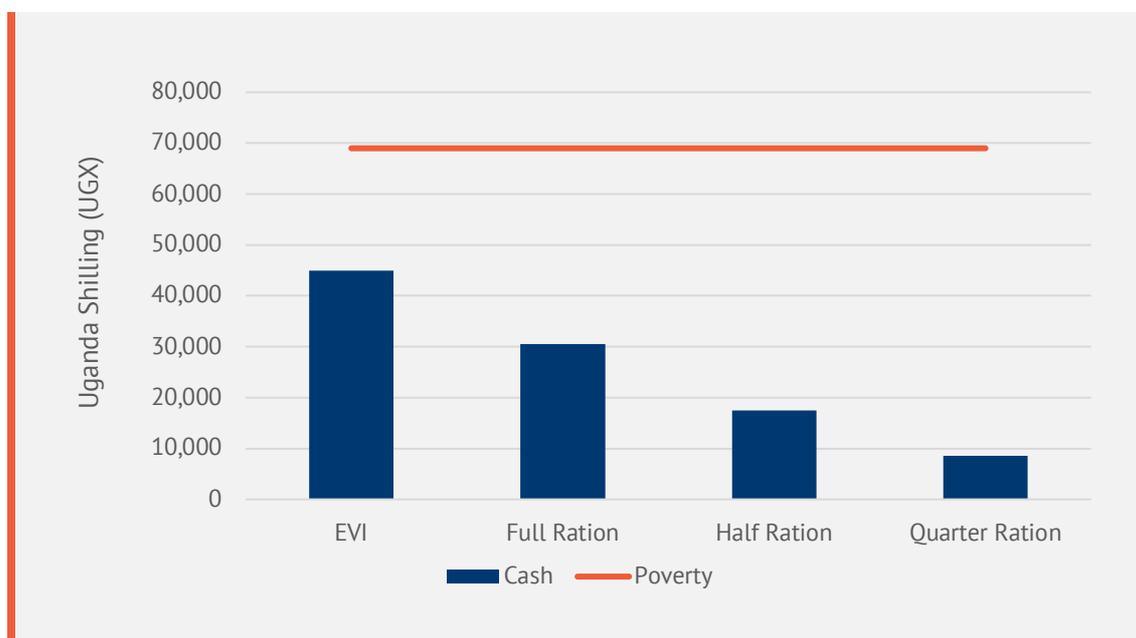
6 *Performance of the current targeting mechanism*

Since the survey was undertaken and the draft version of this report was presented to donors, WFP, UNHCR and the Office of the Prime Minister, the targeting of refugees has been discontinued. By 2019, all refugees across the settlements in Uganda were entitled to receive the full amount of food assistance.

7 Adequacy, Value and Purpose of Food Assistance Transfers

The transfers provided by WFP are for the purpose of offering food security. However, most respondents, even those receiving full rations, stated during the qualitative research that the food assistance was inadequate to meet their basic needs. This is even more so for the many who had had their food assistance reduced or were not receiving any assistance. Indeed, as Figure shows the cash transfer sizes are well below the international extreme poverty line of USD 1.90 per day.⁷⁶ Even the full ration size of UGX 31,000 is still only 45 per cent of the extreme poverty line. It should be noted that the food assistance is of course not meant to cover all household needs, only basic food needs. However, in the absence of other sources of cash income for the majority of refugees, and limited in-kind support, it makes sense to compare the transfer values with the extreme poverty line, as an indication of the unmet needs of most refugees.

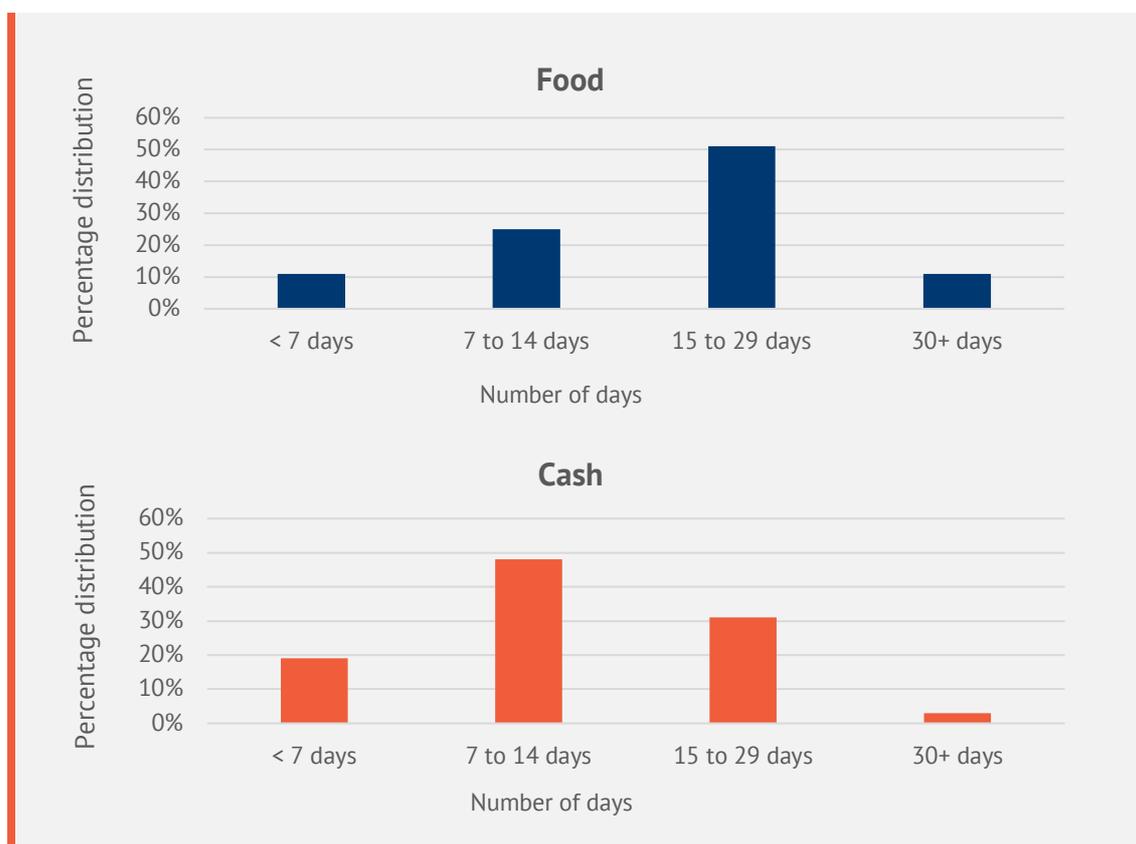
Figure 59: Cash transfer values compared with the international extreme poverty line



⁷⁶ The latest PPP conversion factor for private consumption for Uganda is for 2015. Then, one international dollar was equal to 1,185 Ugandan Shillings. So, the international \$1.90 poverty line was equal to approximately UGX 2,253 per day in 2017, or about UGX 68,716 per month. While WFP regularly calculates the cost of purchasing the food rations in the local markets in the settlements, this cost does not necessarily reflect the price that refugees can receive for their food rations in the markets, since the food rations are often of low quality. Therefore, the analysis does not include an estimate of the value of the food rations.

There is evidence that the amount of food assistance received in 2017 was insufficient to allow refugees to feed themselves during the month. As Figure 60 indicates, around 44 per cent of households in country for less than 2 years reported that the food transfer lasted only up to two weeks, while only a little under 14 per cent reported that the food lasted the whole month (30 days and over). So, for 86 per cent of households, the food rations must be considered as inadequate (although it is not possible accurately determine the real level of severity). For those receiving cash, the situation was worse: close to 67 per cent of recipients stated that the transfer lasts them two weeks or less and few reported it lasting the full month.

Figure 60: Distribution of refugee households in Uganda for less than 2 years by how long the latest ration lasted and by the type of assistance received

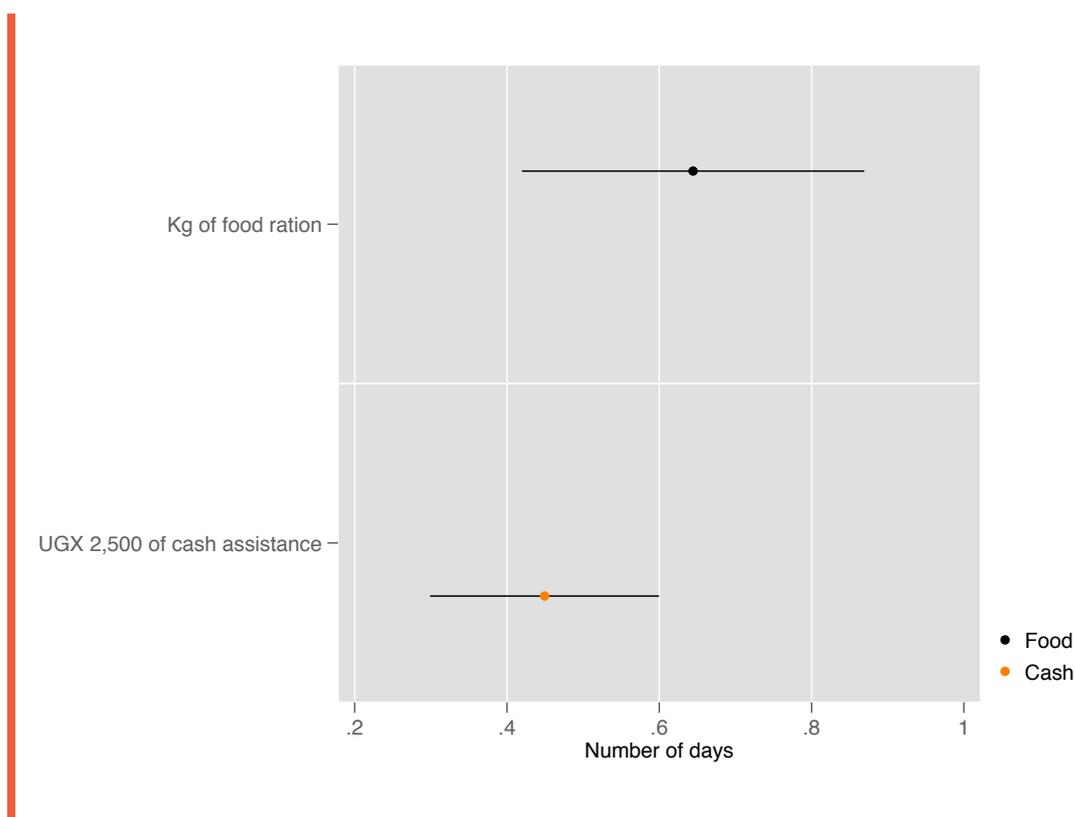


Estimates of how long a kilogramme of food and the equivalent amount (UGX 2,500) in cash lasted are presented in Figure .⁷⁷ It shows the estimates resulting from regressing the number of days the ration lasted on the amount received, conditional on a number of covariates. The results are from two separate regressions: one for cash and one for food.

⁷⁷ This is based on the full rations of food and cash.

As can be seen, an additional kilogramme of food or an additional UGX2,500 only lasted about half a day on average (a little longer for the food and a little less for the cash).

Figure 61: Separate estimates of regressing how long the last assistance received lasted by the amount received, for both food and cash⁷⁸



In the South-West settlements, the full food ration, which included the ration for new caseloads and EVIs, was reported in the qualitative research to last approximately between 1.5 and 2 weeks, depending on the number of meals consumed per day. Refugees often indicated eating twice a day – including porridge in the morning made from the CSB – in order to make the food staples last longer. One woman reported eating once a day so that the food lasted for three weeks. In the West Nile settlements, refugees also complained that full food rations were inadequate since they did not last a month, in

⁷⁸ These are ordinary least squares estimates of two separate regressions. Robust standard errors clustered at the primary sampling unit have been applied to both regressions. Regressions include controls on gender of the household head, the age (and age squared) of the head, household size (and squared), asset index quintiles, household disability status, household type, household head education level and district fixed effects. The two samples are restricted to only households that are currently receiving food or cash transfers only and answered how much they last received. The r-squared for both regressions are respectively 0.46 and 0.47.

particular as they have to sell part of the ration. As indicated earlier, many refugees noted that the cash assistance was not sufficient either, in particular as prices had risen.

The different experiences of recipients of food and cash is to be expected, since the administrative data from WFP indicate that the vast majority of those receiving food transfers were receiving full rations, while less than half of the refugee households receiving cash assistance were receiving the full amount, with many only receiving half the amount, at UGX17,000. Smaller families or single people receiving UGX17,000 per person per month also perceived the amount as inadequate and had to rely on farming or engaging in other income generating activities (which were also insufficient). In Kyangwali, a single elderly woman reported that her 25 per cent cash transfer only lasted her a week after which she was forced to beg. On some days, there was nothing for her to eat.⁷⁹

It needs to be noted that households receiving cash assistance are likely to be underreporting the extent to which the amount received lasts by only considering the number of days holding cash and not the number of days of consumed goods purchased with the cash. For example, a household might have spent everything received by the second week but might not have consumed all the goods bought.

It was clear from the interviews in the qualitative research that the reduction of rations implemented by donors constituted a severe risk to the food security of many refugees. In the South West settlements, respondents receiving quarter food rations complained of severe food shortages and, in fact, the food assistance was no longer considered a significant or reliable source of food. A single mother reported, for example, that the quarter food rations she received for four household members (1 kg for her and 3 children) lasted only a week with one meal a day. Refugees on reduced rations were also less inclined to sell what they consider to be paltry amounts of food

'The cash is not enough because prices have gone up a lot. Every year the food prices go up, due to the drought. I am receiving UGX45,000, but it is not enough to cover basic food needs.' (26/07/2017, FGD refugee leaders, Kyangwali).

'The money I get is not enough because I stay alone. I don't have someone to take care of me or to stay with, that money I eat once daily.' (25/07/2017, FGD, older women, Kyangwali).

'That money we get cannot be enough because first of all we have children. Whenever you get that money the children will see and ask for things and you also have to buy food at home. Our children want to go to school: they need fees they need uniform so that money cannot be enough.' (25/07/2017, FGD, older women, Kyangwali).

'We are looking after some orphans at home, but the money is too little.' (25/07/2017, FGD, older women, Kyangwali).

'UGX 7,000 will not help one person even for two weeks. The children go to school hungry and then we have porridge for lunch. We don't know if we will eat at night. We have no garden, there is no land to dig here. It is a life of suffering.' (19/07/2017, SSI, male, old case 25%, Kiryandongo).

⁷⁹ 25/07/2017, SSI, older woman, Kyangwali.

rations and, therefore, struggled to cover other basic needs. Further, persons with severe disabilities have additional costs related to their disability, which are not taken into account, while there are many persons with disabilities who were unable to receive necessary assistive devices.

Another major complaint from refugees in the South West settlements was that, apart from the inadequate quantities, there was a lack of dietary diversity and choice in the food staples. The vast majority of respondents reported eating high protein foods, such as meat or fish, only on special occasions. There were some indications that those receiving cash were better off than food beneficiaries. In Rwamwanja, among people receiving cash there was a reported increase in their ability to buy a variety of foods, which was hailed as a major benefit of switching to cash payments from food rations. Respondents reported eating meat and/or dried fish at least once a month. Cash beneficiaries also invested in small ruminants whenever possible, such as poultry. As mentioned in Section 3.2, the household survey also shows a small difference between food and cash beneficiaries on a number of indicators.

Box 23: Examples of income and expenditure of two families in Adjumani

Household of 9 members receiving full rations:

- Income: UGX 279,000/month in cash aid
- Expenses:
 - Maize flour, 50 kg: UGX 140,000
 - Beans, 30 kg: UGX 30,000
 - Milk for infant: UGX 1,000/cup = UGX 30,000
 - Meat: UGX 10,000
 - Oil and greens and miscellaneous items: UGX 9,000

Household of 7 members receiving half rations:

- Income: UGX 119,000 /month in cash aid
- Expenses:
 - Cereal, 25kg: UGX 70,000
 - Uniforms for 2 children: UGX 20,000
 - School term cost for 2: UGX 10,000
 - Cooking Oil 0.9 litre: UGX 3,000
 - 4 cups of beans: UGX 4,000
 - Grinding the cereal: UGX 5,000 (at UGX 200/kg)
 - Medicines: if money is leftover
 - Soap: if money is leftover

In the qualitative research, there were some indications that the adequacy of cash depended on the household size, which could be linked, in part, to economies of scale in larger households. For example, EVI/Hs living alone and receiving UGX45,000 a month still struggled to make ends meet as they were generally found to incur heavier healthcare costs on a monthly basis. However, for large households receiving EVI/H cash payments, as observed in Kyangwali, the scenario can look quite different (see Box 24).

Box 24: Example of income and expenses of a large EVH

A refugee with a disability in Kiryandongo received UGX 45,000 per person per month for 10 household members, including his wife and 8 minors. Among the children, 5 belonged to his brother who had a chronic illness. He reported that he had no other source of income. With UGX 450,000 in hand every month, he was able to afford the following expenses:

- Food: UGX 250,000 /month:
- Maize, 100 kg-UGX 100,000
- Cooking Oil, 5 litres-UGX 45,000
- Corn-Soy Blend (CSB), 50 kg-UGX 25,000 (at the food distribution, the food is given to groups of 30. In each group, people will donate a part of their CSB to pay for transporting the food home. This refugee buys some of this CSB).
- Beans-UGX 30,000
- Miscellaneous (for e.g. salt)-UGX 50,000
- School fees for private school for the school age children: UGX 150,000
- Savings for emergencies: UGX 50,000

However, refugees have other basic needs to address. The importance of addressing these needs is seen in the extensive sale of food rations – as noted above, for 25 per cent of refugee households it was their main source of income – which enabled them to purchase other goods (including more nutritious food and the cost of milling grains received from WFP). Among refugees in Uganda for less than 2 years and receiving full rations – yet with few options for alternative income – around 34 per cent of total expenditure was on non-food items, indicating again the potential high level of sale of food.

Not addressing these additional needs among refugees limits the capacity of food assistance transfers to offer food security since the effective food value of the transfers is reduced. Therefore, even if the full food assistance provided were sufficient for food security, in reality, they cannot currently offer food security due to these additional, necessary expenditures.

One option would be for WFP, UNHCR and partners to re-think the purpose of the food assistance transfers so that they become a transfer covering both food security and additional basic needs. Based on the ratio of the national food poverty line to the national poverty line, the proportion of overall expenditure that local Ugandans just above the poverty line are expected to invest in non-food items is 38 per cent. This would imply a 38 per cent increase in the value of the transfers. This additional transfer should be given in cash. WFP should continue to provide all transfers since there is little value in providing refugees with transfers from two sources.

Even if the value of the transfers were not increased, the fact that refugees – including recent arrivals – need cash should be recognised. Therefore, across all settlements, food assistance offered in the first three years should include, at a minimum, a component of cash. Based on current experience, in terms of the average share of non-food expenditure within the overall expenditure of refugees that have been in Uganda for less than two years, this would be UGX6,000 per person per month at a minimum. Alternatively, if assessed against the national basic needs poverty line of UGX50,500 per month, individuals would require an additional UGX20,000 per month.

On the other hand, in the long-term, there needs to be a consideration of whether transfers to refugees who have been in Uganda for a significant period of time should, ideally, be harmonised with those of Ugandan nationals. Uganda has an immature social protection system, with the Senior Citizens' Grant its only regular and predictable transfer, although it is still restricted to a minority of districts. Its value is only UGX25,000 per month, which is UGX6,000 below the value of a full food assistance transfer for refugees (and UGX20,000 below that given to EVIs). Further, this is the only transfer received by households – unless they have more than one older person – while refugee households receive transfers for each person. Of course, refugee households on half food assistance receive less per individual although the total transfer to the household is still likely to be higher.

The effective value of the Senior Citizens' Grant transfer has fallen over time since its introduction in 2011 and is regarded by many as too low. Indeed, it is set at only 11 per cent of GDP per capita while an average transfer value for a universal pension in low and middle-income countries is around 15 per cent of GDP per capita, with some rising to above 30 per cent. Therefore, a more appropriate value – in line with Uganda's fiscal capacity – would be at least UGX35,000 per month. Potentially, if there is to be alignment with refugee food assistance – in particular if it includes other basic needs – then this figure could be set as the appropriate value for a transfer for an adult in Uganda, whether a refugee or national. It should also be indexed, at a minimum, to inflation. In the long-term, transfers for children could also be set at an appropriate level for a child benefit (which would be around 5 per cent of GDP per capita, or UGX11,500 per child per month).

8 The Future of Refugees in Uganda and the Goal of Self-Reliance

The research has shown that a high proportion of refugees living in settlements in Uganda are living in extreme poverty and food insecurity. They are also in worse conditions – on average – than their neighbours from the national population. There are, of course, around 100,000 refugees living in Kampala but, since they were not included in the research, it has not been possible to assess their level of wellbeing.

Potentially of more concern is that there is no indication that many refugees living for a longer period of time in Uganda are in better conditions than new arrivals. Indeed, the challenges facing refugees in the oldest settlement of Nakivale (Isingiro district) are particularly worrying since this may indicate the future of refugees in Uganda within the current policy framework.

Uganda has progressive policies to support refugees, but they are not being adequately realised. As a result, the policy of ‘self-reliance’ is coming under stress, suggesting a need to radically re-think how to support refugees, in particular if there is little chance of their returning home in the next few years.

A major challenge undermining the self-reliance agenda is the fact that, while the self-reliance policy is based on refugees having access to agricultural land, in reality the majority have limited or no land for agriculture while many others have infertile land. As a result, a cornerstone of the self-reliance policy is undermined. Yet, to give every household in a settlement an average 2 acres of land would require approximately 690,000 acres of land for refugees across Uganda (corresponding to about 4 per cent of the total arable land in the country), a significant amount. And, in many cases, the land available is owned by host communities who are unlikely to accept the alienation of their land on a permanent basis.

Furthermore, refugees do not have land titles, while many feel insecure and fear they could lose their land at any time. Yet, international experience indicates that land titles play an important role in giving farmers the security to invest in their land. The absence of land titles, therefore, further undermines the goals of self-reliance and food security.

The research was not expected to examine the effectiveness of current livelihoods support to refugees. Yet, the impression gained from discussions with refugees and other stakeholders is that it is relatively *ad hoc* and piecemeal. Many livelihoods interventions appear to be based on a belief in ‘heroic’ individuals pulling themselves out of poverty through their own efforts. Recent enthusiasm for “Graduation” programmes among

refugees seems based on hype rather than evidence, given that there is no robust evidence of such schemes being successful in more propitious environments.⁸⁰

Current support for livelihoods activities does not appear to take into account the diversity of the refugee population, in particular their very different capabilities. It does not seem to adequately address challenges such as: the childcare needs of single parents; the many people with disabilities – including many older persons – who face additional costs linked to their disability which do not enable them to compete on an equal basis with non-disabled people; the effects of trauma experienced by many people; the support needs of vulnerable older people; etc.

Furthermore, the fact that the majority of the refugee population is food insecure and living in extreme poverty – many without adequate financial support from food assistance – impedes their ability to engage effectively in livelihoods activities. The prevalence of covariate shocks such as droughts and pests – with minimal outside support to address the effects – further undermines the capacity of refugees to build sustainable livelihoods.

The settlement of Lobule in Koboko district appears to be the best example of success, although this is relative. The qualitative research for this study did not visit Lobule so there is only information from the URVS dataset. It would be useful for a further study to be undertaken in Lobule to understand why it is more successful, but it does seem to have characteristics that set it apart from other settlements: greater access to land, vicinity to a major town, small household sizes, most people have been in Uganda for more than 2 years, the receipt of cash transfers rather than food, and a lower population of children. Yet, even in the case of Lobule, success is relative since 58 per cent of households are experiencing some degree of food insecurity (medium or most insecure) and 22 per cent of households live on less than US\$1.90 (PPP) per capita per day.

Overall, agriculture will not be the solution for many refugees. Even among those with over one acre of land, 30 per cent are in the most food insecure group while 60 per cent live on less than US\$1.90 (PPP) per day, signalling extreme poverty. There is also a proportion of refugees who do not have backgrounds in agriculture and cannot be expected to suddenly become productive farmers.

Having a job seems to be associated with a better chance of food security. Yet there are few jobs available in refugee areas and, of those, many are low paid or offer insecure employment. The use of food rather than cash in many areas potentially undermines

⁸⁰ Kidd and-Athias (2017).

markets and limits opportunities for entrepreneurs – despite the widespread sale of food – which inhibits the generation of further employment.

Furthermore, refugees live in areas experiencing high levels of poverty and insecurity among the host populations, so expectations for the refugees' future well-being should be limited since most are unlikely to surpass their Ugandan neighbours.

At the same time, it is almost certainly fiscally unsustainable for refugees – in particular those of working age capable of work – to receive financial support indefinitely, unless international donors change their policies and commit to long-term financial support to Uganda, in recognition that Uganda has taken on a challenge that is ultimately the responsibility of the international community. Yet, even if financial assistance to refugees were to continue, there would be the political challenge of providing significant assistance to refugees while ignoring the local population that is also experiencing poverty and in real need of social protection.

Given all these challenges facing the self-reliance agenda, there needs to be a fundamental re-think on refugee policy with a willingness to introduce innovative interventions. These should be based on the following realities:

- ***The future for many refugees must be outside the settlements.*** Rather than encouraging refugees to stay within the settlements, a policy of active dispersion across the country should be encouraged, with a broader integration of refugees within the national population where they are likely to find greater work opportunities. Yet, the current policy of withdrawing food assistance from refugees leaving the settlements acts as a disincentive for refugees to move. Therefore, consideration should be given to: allowing refugees to keep their food assistance – as cash – for a period of time after they leave the settlements, to enable them to establish themselves (perhaps over three years); offering support packages to those who wish to migrate to other parts of Uganda, linked to finding jobs or income generation; and, providing land to refugees across Uganda and not just in settlements, including within Ugandan communities.
- ***Refugees who wish to practise agriculture must be given access to sufficient land of good quality.*** As noted above, this will be a significant challenge and may require alienating land from Ugandan communities. Rather than leaving the responsibility only to the Ugandan Government, the international community should consider compensating local landowners – and the Government in the case of state-owned land – for the loss of their land, which may make alienation more palatable and would increase the chances of refugees accessing good quality land. If Uganda – and its communities – are not compensated, this places a significant burden on a poor country.

- **Relevant support needs to be given to those refugees with skills that are currently not being utilised.** Measures need to be taken to help those refugees with qualifications that are currently not recognised in Uganda, so that they can gain work aligned to their skills. Similarly, they should be given support to search the labour market for jobs across Uganda and be given assistance to move. Measures should also be taken to ensure that refugees do not suffer from discrimination in the labour force.
- **A review should be undertaken on the access of refugees to jobs within the settlements.** A major complaint of refugees is that they are denied jobs with support agencies, which are often given to Ugandans from other areas. At the same time, local Ugandans make the same complaint. It would, therefore, be useful to review this issue and set out guidance.
- **Sustainable livelihoods must be underpinned by access to high quality public services and utilities, as demonstrated by international and historical experience.** These include not only health, education, social protection, childcare, water and sanitation and electricity, but agricultural extension services, cold chains to support livestock, financial services, good transport links, etc. Rather than prioritising interventions for supposed 'heroic' individuals, interventions should also focus on the development of broader support structures and systems that are either provided by the state or private sector. This will require enhancing support to local governments.
- **Access to income support through food assistance or social protection should not be understood as incompatible with self-reliance.** There is significant international experience demonstrating that well-designed income support can underpin income generation and jobs by giving people the security to take risks and invest. This can be achieved through, for example, financial support to the children of working age refugees so that they know that, even if their livelihoods activities fail, they can at least put food on the table.
- **Food assistance should be used as a tool to stimulate local markets.** This will be achieved by a gradual move to providing cash to refugees – except for new arrivals for a limited period – and an immediate move to providing all refugees currently receiving food transfers with a cash component. The circulation of the cash in markets will stimulate economic activities and opportunities among both refugees and the national population.
- **Many refugees will require financial support for long periods or indefinitely.** It is recognised internationally – including in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) – that social protection is essential for long-term poverty reduction and

income security, in particular for more vulnerable categories of the population such as older persons, persons with disability, children, single caregivers and foster carers. This same realisation applies to refugees and, if these categories of the population do not receive financial support, many will continue to experience extreme poverty and social exclusion or will act as a financial drain on the working age population, impeding them from investing in their own families and income generating activities (including searching for jobs). Single caregivers of children require not only financial support but also access to childcare services, to enable them to access the labour market.

- **Food assistance to refugees needs to be incorporated eventually within a national social protection system.** One of the challenges facing refugees, donors and the Government is the very limited national social protection system in Uganda. Ideally, refugees – after a period of time in a country – should be able to access social protection schemes on an equal basis to the national population. A long-term solution to the refugee challenge will require the development of a comprehensive national social protection system, into which they can transition. Therefore, the Government and development partners should ensure that they engage actively in social protection policy to build a comprehensive system, which will mean working in collaboration with the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development and other key stakeholders. If the national social protection system is not adequately strengthened, donors will have to continue to fund food assistance separately. If the national system were available, donors could transfer their funds to refugees through the national system, using a national Single Registry to facilitate the process.
- **High quality secondary and vocational education need to be provided to all refugee children.** A long-term solution to the challenges faced by refugees will require investing in the skills and capacity of refugee children, in particular secondary schooling and vocational training. This will help them gain jobs and higher incomes. A key aspect of this will be the removal of all fees for secondary school, in addition to support for those children who have to board. Successful students should also receive support to access further education, including at universities.

These innovative approaches to refugee support should go alongside other proposals in Chapter 6 and 7 on shock-responsive social protection, incorporating an element of non-food expenditures in the financial assistance to refugees, and support to foster carers. They will require investment but, over time, the measures should result in greater self-sufficiency among those refugees in a position to engage in the labour market and enterprises, including agriculture.

9 Conclusion

The study has demonstrated that the majority of refugees in Uganda in 2017 experienced food insecurity and poverty, despite most receiving food assistance. Even those who had been in Uganda for a substantial period of time were struggling to be food secure (although it is possible that refugees living in Kampala were in a better position). Many refugees were striving to access other sources of income, but the study found only a small number managing to be relatively food secure in the absence of food assistance. And, even among this group, there was no clear pattern explaining their relative success and no evidence that it is sustainable.

Since the study was undertaken, the criteria for food assistance has changed, with all refugees eligible for full food assistance in 2019. However, this is unlikely to be sustainable and a different long-term strategy for providing food assistance to refugees will have to be devised. This will include finding more reliable mechanisms to prioritise more vulnerable refugees for assistance. However, it is likely to also require vulnerable refugees to be incorporated in Uganda's social protection system. Unfortunately, this is still underdeveloped and so, for this to be an option, the national social protection system will have to be significantly strengthened.

Finally, the food security challenges of the vast majority of refugees indicate that the aim of 'self-reliance' – with refugees achieving food security and secure livelihoods without food assistance – is only feasible for a small proportion of refugees. Therefore, it will be important for the current 'self-reliance' strategy to be reviewed and measures taken to further strengthen it. However, this is likely to require some radical changes, including actively supporting refugees to settle across Uganda and outside settlements.

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Annex 1 Terms of Reference for the Assignment

Refugee Household Vulnerability and Targeting Study (2017)

West Nile, Mid-West and South Western Uganda Refugee Settlements

Concept Note

This paper lays out the analytical framework for a study to be commissioned by the UN World Food Programme (WFP) country office, the UN High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR), and the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM), Government of Uganda in order to determine the level and nature of vulnerability of refugees to food insecurity. This activity follows from a recommendation of the 2014 UNHCR/WFP/OPM Joint Assessment Mission (JAM).

Accordingly, WFP, UNHCR and OPM will undertake a comprehensive study to obtain a better understanding of vulnerability among refugee households and the socio-economic dynamics in the settlements.

Annex 1.1 Background

Due to its progressive refugee policy and political stability, Uganda is a refuge of choice for refugees and asylum seekers in east and central Africa⁸¹. Uganda currently hosts the third largest refugee population in Africa at over half a million refugees. Those displaced from Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) and South Sudan make up the largest percentage of this population – almost 90 percent of total – although the caseload from Somalia and Rwanda is significant and increasing numbers of Burundians entered Uganda in 2015.

Refugees from South Sudan continue to arrive in Uganda and more than 149,248 have crossed the border since end of July 2016. The total refugee influx to Uganda as end of July 2016 is 192,951 (South Sudan 149,248, DR Congo 24,589, Burundi 12,233, Somalia 4,287 and other 2,594). Most South Sudanese refugees in Uganda reside in the West Nile settlements (Adjumani, Kiryandongo, Arua Rhino camp, Bidibidi and Palorinya). These refugees need relief assistance to guarantee minimum food consumption and prevent deterioration of their nutrition status.

⁸¹ Uganda provides generous allocation of land to refugees for farming, enabling refugees to develop their livelihoods and achieve certain levels of self-reliance.

Where cash transfers are provided, the selection of beneficiaries is guided by a set of criteria agreed by WFP, OPM and UNHCR. Extremely Vulnerable Households (EVH) however receive a full ration of food assistance for as long as the household is vulnerable. Identification of EVHs is guided by WFP EVH criteria during joint verification/identification of PSNs, a process organized by OPM and UNHCR. In addition to general food assistance, WFP also supports the management of acute malnutrition with a focus on management of MAM in all settlements and reception centres.

Annex 1.2 Reasons for the study

Annex 1.2.1 Rationale

In the context of the protracted nature of the refugee situation in Uganda it is a common belief that following a prolonged period of displacement not all refugees have the same needs for humanitarian assistance. In light of increasing global competition over funds, it is envisaged that the Uganda refugee operation will receive less funding in the coming years.

Annex 1.2.2 Objectives and scope

The study aims to fill knowledge gaps regarding the level, nature and differences of vulnerability to food insecurity that are found in all the refugee settlements in Mid-West, West Nile and South Western Uganda. This is understood to be critical to inform policy and guide programming in order to improve humanitarian response to those in most need and guide policies that can improve livelihoods and enhance refugee households' self-resilience.

Specific objectives and questions to be answered by the study:

- How do refugees define 'vulnerability' and how applicable is their understanding of vulnerability to food assistance targeting?
- What type and proportion of households are currently partly supporting themselves?
- What type of livelihood activities are refugee households engaging in and which of those are sustainable?
- What additional services are available to people which can help address food insecurity and undernutrition?

- What are the gender and diversity (disability, age, widows etc) dynamics of the households and communities and how are these diversities positively or negatively affecting livelihoods?
- Are there seasonal aspects around the livelihood activities and vulnerability in Mid-West, West Nile and South-Western Uganda?
- What type and proportion of humanitarian assistance could some households cover from their own resources?
- How effective is the current targeting mechanism for food assistance?

Annex 1.3 Methodology

The methodology will be proposed by the study/research team during the tendering phase and further designed during the inception phase, in collaboration with the TSC. Overall, the study should be based on a statistically valid sampling, reliable secondary and primary data, well demonstrated analysis, and practical recommendations. The methodology used should effectively combine participatory approaches (to define vulnerability in the refugee settings) with globally agreed vulnerability indicators. The methodology should also adequately address heterogeneity across the refugee settlements.

The study should demonstrate impartiality by relying on a cross-section of information sources (secondary and primary) and use mixed methods (e.g. quantitative, qualitative, and participatory) to ensure triangulation of information through a variety of means.

The coverage of the study is primarily the refugees living in settlements, but through secondary data and linkages with the FSNA (December 2016) and the LEWIE study (conducted in 2016), it will also capture information from the host community related to livelihood aspects of the refugees.

As much as possible all objectives and questions should be disaggregated by age, sex and diversity. Any challenges or gaps in providing this disaggregated analysis should be documented.

Quality Assurance

The Technical Steering Committee (TSC) defines the quality standards expected from this study and sets out processes with in-built steps for quality assurance, templates for assessment of products and checklists for the review thereof.

At the start of the study, the TSC will orient the evaluation manager and share related documents. The study company/institution is ultimately responsible for the quality of the

assessment products. If the expected standards are not met, the study company will, at its own expense, make the necessary amendments to bring the products to the required quality level.

Annex 1.4 Deliverables

- Inception report with desk review, defined data collection requirements and methods
- Analysis plan with indicators
- Sampling plan
- Detailed budget and schedule
- Assessment plan (logistics needs, teams, tools, security)
- Preliminary assessment report for each settlement
- Presentation of findings
- Final report

Annex 1.4.1 Tentative work plan and time frame

A tentative workplan is outlined below, but should be revised during the Inception Phase, while maintaining the same length of time over which the assignment will take place.

Activity	March	April	May	June	July	Aug
Tendering and hiring of experts	■					
Secondary data review, gap identification and inception report		■				
Initial analysis of available data		■	■			
Study design, development of tools			■			
Logistical arrangements/training			■			
Fine tuning of tools, analysis				■		
Primary data collection – South Western Uganda				■		
Primary data collection – West Nile				■		
Analysis					■	
Draft report and presentation of preliminary findings					■	■
Final report						■

Annex 1.4.3 Users

The primary users of this study will be WFP, UNHCR, OPM and their partners (including the donors); in short, agencies that are involved in decision-making related to programme implementation and/or design, country strategy and partnerships.

Given the Regional Bureaux's (RB) core functions of strategic guidance, programme support and oversight, the RBs of UNHCR and WFP are also expected to use the study findings in other refugee operations in the Region.

Annex 2 Refugee Policy in Uganda

Uganda has a progressive refugee policy which, in theory, is well-aligned with the recent international focus on moving from short-term humanitarian aid to longer-term assistance and the integration of refugees into the local economy and society. The Ugandan government has for many years pursued a strategy aimed at enabling refugees to make a living for themselves in Uganda. The 1999 Self-Reliance Strategy (SRS) aimed to move support for refugees from a strategy based on relief to a long-term development strategy. It implied that refugees would receive, upon arrival, a set of non-food items, a plot of land and seeds and food rations for two to four seasons, after which people were supposed to be self-reliant (in other words, no longer relying on food assistance).

In 2004, the SRS was replaced by the Development Assistance for Refugee-Hosting Areas (DAR) programme which largely maintained the same focus as the SRS. A further change was undergone with the Refugee Act of 2006 which recognised the right of refugees to work, move around the country and integrate into host communities, rather than having to settle in special areas. The Act gives refugees the right to freedom of movement, the right to work and own a business, and equal access to social services such as primary education and health care (Center for Global Development, 2017).

Furthermore, land is allocated to each refugee household in order to facilitate the economic independence of refugees through agricultural livelihoods (Omata & Kaplan, 2013; Center for Global Development, 2017). The Act aims to integrate refugees and host communities by making services such as health and education available to both refugees and host communities. This means that refugees can benefit from the services provided by local authorities while host communities can benefit from services for refugees funded by humanitarian aid. These requirements were further specified in the 2010 Refugee Regulations (see Box A1).

Box A1: Excerpt from the GoU refugee regulations, 2010

60. Integration of refugees in host communities.

(1) The Commissioner shall ensure that refugees are integrated into the communities where the refugee camps or the refugees are settled.

(2) For the purposes of sub regulation (1), the Commissioner shall sensitise the host communities about the presence of refugees and any other matters relating to their co-existence with each other.

61. Integration of refugee matters in development plans.

The Commissioner shall liaise with the national, local and regional planning authorities for the purposes of ensuring that refugee concerns and related matters are taken into consideration in the initiation and formulation of sustainable development and environmental plans.

62. Affirmative action in favour of women, children and persons with disabilities.

In the integration of refugees in the host communities, the Commissioner shall, in cooperation with the UNHCR and the other organizations involved in the assistance of refugees, ensure that special attention is given to women, children and persons with disabilities.

The Government has moreover included refugee management and protection within its domestic planning in the National Development Plan (NDP II). The NDP II mandates the development of a 'Settlement Transformative Agenda (STA)' to assist refugee and host communities by promoting socio-economic development in refugee-hosting areas. The STA recognises that refugee hosting areas are in need of special attention due to the added demands of hosting displaced populations, and aims to integrate refugee services structures with government structures (Government of Uganda, 2016).

A Government of Uganda directive commits humanitarian actors to ensure that 30% of assistance services, where appropriate and feasible, benefit the host community. However, this directive does not apply to food assistance, which is only provided to refugees.

Indeed, this indicates a challenge with the current proposals on refugees and host populations sharing the same access to services and the commitment to self-reliance. Social protection is a core public service but is almost non-existent in Uganda, apart from a small number of districts in which the Senior Citizens Grant is active. Therefore, if refugees are moved off food assistance, there is no equivalent GoU social protection scheme onto which they can move.

In 2016, the Ugandan government, in collaboration with UN agencies and the World Bank, developed the Refugee and Host Population Empowerment (ReHope) strategy, which provides a framework for joint programming of up to US\$350 million over the next five years. While rollout of the strategy is in its early stages, it could potentially play an important role in bringing about better coordination and integration of humanitarian aid

with longer-term development programmes (Center for Global Development, 2017). The main aims of the programme are to:

- Move from short-term single agency response to multi-year and multi-sectoral approaches;
- Ensure seamless coordination that spans both humanitarian aid and development aid;
- Ensure that the government is in the lead, and actively strengthen its ability to lead;
- Move away from a project-based approach, and collectively address the refugee and host community needs;
- Prioritise community engagement and empowerment and place refugees and host communities within a development context;
- Ensure active and intense participation of both refugee and national communities; and,
- Transition refugees and host communities into strengthened government services.

Annex 3 Issues Related to the Registration of Refugees for Food Assistance

Annex 3.1 The registration processes

The identification and registration of refugees happen in three ways: at the time of initial registration upon arrival in Uganda; through a census-based registration; and, through an on-demand process. All data used for targeting of food assistance is captured during these registration processes, and potential issues related to the registration can therefore have an important impact on access of refugees to food assistance.

Initial refugee registration: In the registration process for asylum seekers, the identification and registration of PSN-EVIs happens simultaneously with the time of registration of approved refugees. For prima facie refugees on the other hand, the first registration of EVIs happens at the transit centres. The first registrations are re-confirmed during a verification process at the reception centres, where refugees may be taken off the EVI list and others may be included.

Census-based registration: There are two types of census-based verifications that are scheduled to be periodically conducted:

- a) *General verifications every 2 years:* this is a verification survey of all refugee households to ascertain their existence, re-confirm household details or capture any changes to the household. The general verification is also referred to as 're-registration' as fingerprint biometrics are taken again. During this process, there is no re-assessment for EVI eligibility of refugees. Instead, the status of already registered EVIs is simply confirmed and validated. Refugee households, as mentioned earlier, may be taken off the database, if it is found that they have left the settlement without authorised permission.
- b) *PSN/EVI verifications once a year:* The annual verification or a re-assessment of the sub-population of PSNs and PSN-EVIs that occurs separately from the standard verification process. The questionnaire that is used is finalised by the inter-agency working group on protection. During an PSN/EVI verification survey, refugees are assessed on whether their situation has improved or remains unchanged and therefore eligible to remain on the list. New refugees may be added to the list as PSNs or PSN-EVIs, and others may be removed based on the assessment. Households headed by PSN-EVIs are required to be assessed to determine the EVH status for the eligibility of special rations.

In practice, general verifications rarely take place every two years; for example, in Nakivale, the verifications were carried out seven years apart, one in 2010 and then again in 2017⁸². In Rwamwanja on the other hand it was last conducted in 2015, and the next verification is expected to take place next year. Similarly, EVI verifications rarely occur on an annual basis due to the costs involved. According to UNHCR in Kyangwali, this is a significant issue for the extremely vulnerable refugees who are excluded from benefits.⁸³

*'The main issue is that it takes a long time between they check, it has now been two years. So, there are many people with disabilities who are missing out now.'*⁸⁴

'General verification should happen more often: it should have started in July. When they do verification they will discover many things-for example people who do not have land, and all of the complaints about EVIs.' (Samaritan's Purse staff, Kyangwali).⁸⁵

Both the general verifications and PSN/EVI verifications are jointly conducted as an inter-agency exercise and is supposed to be carried out by teams consisting of representatives from OPM, UNHCR, and WFP and designated medical staff. Announcements are made regarding the scheduled verifications so that refugees are present and available for the survey. PSN/EVI verifications which are crucial to the implementation of the food assistance are also supposed to be conducted by IPs of UNHCR and WFP⁸⁶.

According to the WFP Technical Lead in Mbarara, the EVI verifications may be conducted by a focal person instead of a team and the process usually lasts for three days.⁸⁷ The EVI verification form consists of names, household details, the type of vulnerability, the kind of assistance required etc. For PSN/EVI verification, no medical expertise is used to determine physical or mental disability and chronic illnesses. Instead, age, disability and illness are determined on the basis of how a person appears to be, or what they are told by the concerned refugee. In some cases, it may come down to a vote by the refugee authorities who are present⁸⁸. There are no specific guidelines for disability assessment. In practice, this is therefore best seen as a survey, rather than a proper test of eligibility.

On-demand registration: Registrations are also supposed to take place on a rolling basis; refugees can make a request to be registered as an PSN-EVI if they were missed during the initial registration or subsequent verification exercises, or if changes to their household circumstances make them eligible for EVI registration. The PSN-EVI

⁸² 21/07/17, KII, UNHCR, Rwamwanja

⁸³ 28/07/2017, KII, UNHCR, Kyangwali

⁸⁴ 27/07/2017, FGD, CMC members, Kyangwali

⁸⁵ 22/07/2017, KII, Samaritan's Purse, Kyangwali

⁸⁶ 21/07/17, KII, WFP, Mbarara

⁸⁷ 21/07/17, KII, WFP, Mbarara

⁸⁸ 18/07/17, KII, WFP, Mbarara

assessments are conducted by a panel consisting of staff from OPM, UNHCR and WFP as well as implementing partners. There are no fixed days for the meetings, and they were reported by key informants to often be delayed because there are no dedicated staff for the assessment and all agencies have to be represented for meetings to take place. Potential EVI cases are identified and referred to the assessment panel by RWC, FMCs/CMCs and social workers. The RWCs and social workers play an important role as they are supposed to be sensitized and aware of the eligibility criteria and assessment procedures. In Kyangwali and Rwamwanja, respondents mentioned that RWCs, including disability representatives and social workers act as the real gatekeepers and/or facilitators for the on-demand registration process.

Annex 3.2 Issues related to the registration processes

Annex 3.2.1 Lack of capacity to assess work capacity

As described above, the EVI/H selection criteria, in theory, is designed for a subjective assessment of an individual's functional capacity in their environment. This is not necessarily a bad principle for assessment of vulnerability. However, in the refugee context in Uganda, the implementation of the subjective EVI/H selection criteria is fraught with inclusion and exclusion errors, as it is conducted as a survey by untrained enumerators rather than as a comprehensive assessment of work capacity by trained experts, following detailed guidelines.

Enumerators and assessors, for example, were described as simply checking if one *appears* to be 'able-bodied', which was confirmed by a number of respondents with mild or minor physical disabilities not classified as EVIs, mostly arising out of injuries from war, such as paralysis of hands, hearing impairments, bullet injuries that limited their functionality and/or permanently weakened the body. On the other hand, refugees reported that people living with HIV, heart diseases, tuberculosis – even those with medical papers – are rarely identified by enumerators as extremely vulnerable.

*'People doing the verification have no knowledge of whom they must identify. They do it hurriedly and they only receive one day training. UNHCR/OPM/WFP should prioritize the training. Don't expect quality in the verification without training.'*⁸⁹

*'Being on that list is like a lottery, one widow may be on the list, another is not.'*⁹⁰

⁸⁹ 25/07/17, KII, OPM, Rwamwanja

⁹⁰ 27/07/2017, FGD, CMC members, Kyangwali

*'They come and just look at you, and then register you [as EVI].'*⁹¹

*'They should consider people whose disability is hidden. For example, someone who is shot badly. But the people from the office do not consider it if they are unable to 'see' your disability and your injuries.'*⁹²

In this sense there is a mismatch between the intention of the vulnerability concept and the way it is operationalised in practice. It is clear that the assessment process is not capable of accurately identifying the vulnerability categories or assessing work capacity, and we found many examples of obviously eligible people having been excluded.

There is an obvious absence of rigour in the assessment process, which results in many extremely vulnerable households being excluded from the WFP's EVI/H rations or cash payments. In practice, the vulnerability assessment seems to boil down to whether a person appears to be 'visibly' fit enough to work, or not, based on an untrained assessor simply having a quick look at the person.

Annex 3.2.2 Multiple registrations

A major issue with refugee registration in the south-west has been reported to be the error of registering a household multiple times on the RIMS database. This leads to an inflated figure of refugees which fails to match with general verification figures, duplicate names on the food log and many households having multiple family attestation cards, and therefore ration cards. Such errors occur due to the rapidly dynamic and erratic nature of refugee life, which include family members arriving at different times, recyclers, households attempting to merge or split due to various reasons. This was reported by WFP Mbarara as a possible explanation for the vast disparity in the figures that were reported from the general verification exercise that took place in Nakivale this year (approximately 140,000 vs. 98,000), although others stated that it was the result of the poor quality of the enumerators. In Kiryandongo, it was reported during interviews that many refugees, including school-going children missed the general verification in 2016. The errors were so rampant that it provoked violent protests until the police intervened and the agencies agreed to do further rounds of registrations.⁹³

⁹¹ 26/07/17, FMC-Pesa Mahega, Rwamwanja

⁹² 26/07/17, FGD, FMC-Pesa Mahega, Rwamwanja

⁹³ 20/07/2017, FGD, male new cases, Kiryandongo

Annex 3.2.3 Time lag between refugee registration and updating of food/cash log

In Rwamwanja, OPM staff also reported an issue of a time lag that occurs between the updating of the food log and refugee registrations after the 15th of a month, resulting in newly registered refugees often missing their first month's food rations.⁹⁴ This was verified through our discussions with new case female refugees who had arrived in April 2017 and missed their first month's rations. In Kiryandongo, there is a severe time lag between registrations and updating of the food log, creating a gap of 2-3 months when new refugees do not receive food assistance. In Kyangwali, the OPM has insufficient capacity to register asylum seekers and new refugees within a reasonable period of time, which leads to problems in generating the food/cash logs. According to the AAH 2017 mid-year project performance report, challenges in generating up-to-date food/cash logs were mainly due to delayed registration of asylum seekers at the reception centre (causing a backlog), a lack of synchronization between the PProGres and RIMS databases, and physical addresses of refugee households not being updated in the RIMS database. In Bidibidi, as earlier mentioned, the limited staff capacity is unable to match the influx leading to severe delays in the registrations of existing refugees, even as new refugees keep arriving. As of August 2017, the biometric registration in Zone 1 had yet to begin.

Annex 3.2.4 Inaccurate data

The reliability of data across settlements has been questioned many times, such as age, actual family members versus registered household members, etc. At times, data is difficult to accurately determine due to the perverse incentives that refugees may have to qualify for PSN-EVI status or 'renew' their new caseload status for the food assistance. For example, it was reported that unaccompanied children often lie about their age to qualify as a separate household, since otherwise they would be required to be registered with a guardian⁹⁵. Due to the common phenomenon of recycling amongst refugees in the south west settlements, old caseload refugees are re-registered as new caseloads. However, a bigger challenge is that the refugee registration processes are not conducive for accurately capturing household details, thereby exacerbating the vulnerabilities of refugees. In Bidibidi, there were reports of data entry errors leading to the number of household members differing between the family attestation card and the food log, and even between the family attestation card and Family ID.

⁹⁴ 25/07/17, KII, OPM, Rwamwanja

⁹⁵ 18/07/17, KII, WFP, Mbarara

Annex 3.2.5 Lost or damaged registration documents

Although family attestation cards (which are in fact paper hard copies) and ration cards are supposed to be regularly replaced, this does not happen in practice. Both cards become excessively damaged and indecipherable over time leading to opportunities for identity theft and other forms of corruption. In Bidibidi settlement, for example, agency staff are speculating that the prevalence of complaints regarding the number of household members not matching the RIMS database could be due to a scam by some private vendors, who are being paid by families to scan family attestation cards and increase the number of household members. The verification of this issue is difficult due to the poor quality of the cards, which has made it challenging to confirm whether or not they have been tampered with.

Annex 3.2.6 Limited accessibility of on-demand registration

While at least some settlements have on-demand registration processes in place, we found that these are generally not accessible for most refugees. The process was not found to be adequately functioning in the south west and mid-west settlements. It can be difficult for refugees to approach OPM or the implementing partners, and many complained of ill treatment when they did, or being told to 'come back later'. Social workers may also act as gatekeepers rather than facilitators. The members of the CMC in Kyangwali reported that social workers act as the gatekeepers to place refugees on to the EVI list and often demand money, which was confirmed by AAH.⁹⁶ A refugee wanted his child with disability to be registered as an PSN-EVI, but he was asked to pay UGX 150,000 by the social worker. When he attempted to directly approach AAH, he was turned away saying he needed to come through the social worker⁹⁷ There were in fact some refugees that had been approved as EVIs even though they did not meet the criteria.⁹⁸ In Rwamwanja, there were similar complaints from elderly women⁹⁹ that the social workers were no longer following up in the villages to identify potential new EVIs that need to be urgently registered, unless they managed to pay a bribe. Instead, they are informed that those who want to be registered as EVIs are required to personally travel to the OPM office.

In Kiryandongo, while the Settlement Commandant explained that Community Services did verification visits and spot assessments based on referrals, there was no mention of

⁹⁶ AAH mid-year progress report 2017.

⁹⁷ 27/07/2017, FGD, CMC members, Kyangwali.

⁹⁸ 27/07/2017, SSI, older woman, Kyangwali.

⁹⁹ 25/07/17, Elderly women, Rwamwanja.

this activity by refugee respondents.¹⁰⁰ Instead we found that refugees who are vulnerable are sent back and forth between different offices as they attempt to request for EVI status, or they are asked to wait for the PSN/EVI verification survey. It is indeed a difficult, disempowering and demeaning experience for many of the extremely vulnerable refugees to access the registration process, often travelling to the office compounds multiple times in a month in the hope of being assisted. The registration issues in capturing household changes also make it difficult for vulnerable refugees to access the WFP EVI/H rations. Therefore PSN/EVI verification method is perceived to be relatively more effective for successful EVI registrations, although the lack of annual verifications is a challenge.¹⁰¹

¹⁰⁰ 13/07/2017, KII, OPM Settlement Commander, Kiryandongo.

¹⁰¹ 28/07/2017, KII AAH staff, Kyangwali; 27/07/2017, FGD, CMC members, Kyangwali

Annex 4 Overview of Main Statistical Indicators by Sub-Region

Table A1: Main indicators overall

Variable	Estimate (E)	Standard error (SE)	Confidence limits	
			E - 2xSE	E + 2xSE
Demographics				
Average age of refugees	35.38	0.41	34.57	36.20
Share of refugees under 5 years	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Share of refugees under 18 years	0.03	0.00	0.02	0.04
Share of refugees older than 59 years	0.10	0.01	0.09	0.11
Share of female refugees	0.62	0.01	0.60	0.64
Average household size	4.04	0.09	3.86	4.23
Average number of children in refugee households	2.29	0.09	2.11	2.47
Average dependency ratio of refugee households	1.48	0.05	1.37	1.59
Share of refugees with moderate or severe disabilities	0.38	0.02	0.35	0.41
Share of refugees with severe disabilities	0.10	0.01	0.09	0.11
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty seeing	0.22	0.01	0.20	0.24
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty hearing	0.11	0.01	0.10	0.12
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty walking	0.18	0.01	0.16	0.20
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty remembering	0.14	0.01	0.12	0.17
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty with self-care	0.09	0.01	0.07	0.10
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty communicating	0.06	0.01	0.05	0.07
Average number of years refugees have been in country	2.41	0.24	1.93	2.89
Share of refugee children (<5) orphan of at least one parent	0.65	0.00	0.65	0.65
Share of refugee children (5 - 17) orphan of at least one parent	0.59	0.00	0.59	0.59
Share of refugee children (<5) not living with of at least one parent	0.39	0.00	0.39	0.39
Share of refugee children (5 - 17) not living with of at least one parent	0.72	0.00	0.72	0.72
Share of refugee children of school age not in school	0.19	0.00	0.19	0.19
Share of young people (18 - 24) who have never attended school	0.19	0.02	0.15	0.23
Share of young people (25 - 60) who have never attended school	0.47	0.01	0.44	0.49
Share of young people (60+) who have never attended school	0.67	0.03	0.62	0.73
Share of young people (18 - 24) who have never married	0.67	0.02	0.64	0.70
Share of young people (25 - 60) who have never married	0.95	0.00	0.95	0.96
Share of young people (60+) who have never married	0.53	0.02	0.49	0.56
Food security, vulnerability and poverty				
Average refugee household probability of being moderate or severely food insecure according to FIES	0.90	0.01	0.89	0.92
Average refugee household probability of being severely food insecure according to FIES	0.70	0.01	0.68	0.72

Annex 4 Overview of main statistical indicators by sub-region

Average refugee household reduced coping strategy index (rCSI)	15.55	0.58	14.39	16.71
Average refugee household food consumption score	31.23	0.56	30.11	32.35
Average refugee household dietary diversity score	4.01	0.06	3.89	4.14
Average refugee household food expenditure share	0.80	0.00	0.79	0.80
Average refugee household monthly per capita household expenditure (in UGX)	73,473	2,981	67,511	79,436
Average refugee household monthly per capita household expenditure, pre-transfers (in UGX)	53,413	2,700	48,013	58,812
Share of refugee households considered food secure according to the food security index	0.02	0.00	0.02	0.03
Share of refugee households considered marginally secure according to the food security index	0.22	0.01	0.20	0.24
Share of refugee households considered moderately insecure according to the food security index	0.60	0.01	0.57	0.62
Share of refugee households considered severely insecure according to the food security index	0.16	0.01	0.13	0.18
Share of refugee households above the basic needs line	0.35	0.02	0.31	0.38
Share of refugee households between basic needs and food poverty line	0.17	0.01	0.15	0.18
Share of refugee households above the median asset index	0.50	0.02	0.46	0.54
Livelihoods				
Share of refugees 15+ years who work their land/livestock as main activity	0.18	0.01	0.15	0.21
Share of refugee households with land access for agriculture	0.29	0.02	0.26	0.32
Share of refugee households that own livestock	0.13	0.01	0.11	0.14
Average number of cattle owned by refugee households	0.25	0.06	0.13	0.37
Average number of sheep owned by refugee households	0.09	0.02	0.05	0.12
Average number of goats owned by refugee households	1.37	0.12	1.14	1.60
Average number of pigs owned by refugee households	0.21	0.04	0.13	0.28
Average number of poultries owned by refugee households	3.23	0.17	2.88	3.58
Share of working age refugees not in the labour force	0.50	0.01	0.48	0.53
Share of refugee households that have 'sale of food rations' as the most important source of income	0.25	0.02	0.20	0.29
Share of refugee households that receive support from other households	0.33	0.02	0.29	0.36
Share of refugee households that provide support from other households	0.20	0.01	0.17	0.22
Share of refugee households that have debit or credit to be paid	0.24	0.02	0.21	0.27
Food assistance				
Share of refugee households that received some form of food assistance	0.87	0.01	0.86	0.89
Average monetary per capita value of food assistance among beneficiary refugee households (in UGX)	22,970	575	21,820	24,120
Share of refugees who are EVI	0.27	0.01	0.25	0.30

Table A2: Main indicators in the West Nile region

Variable	Estimate (E)	Standard error (SE)	Confidence limits	
			E - 2xSE	E + 2xSE
Demographics				
Average age of refugees	34.65	0.50	33.64	35.66
Share of refugees under 5 years	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Share of refugees under 18 years	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.04
Share of refugees older than 59 years	0.10	0.01	0.08	0.11
Share of female refugees	0.68	0.01	0.65	0.70
Average household size	4.13	0.12	3.89	4.37
Average number of children in refugee households	2.39	0.12	2.16	2.63
Average dependency ratio of refugee households	1.57	0.07	1.42	1.71
Share of refugees with moderate or severe disabilities	0.37	0.02	0.33	0.41
Share of refugees with severe disabilities	0.09	0.01	0.07	0.10
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty seeing	0.20	0.01	0.18	0.23
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty hearing	0.10	0.01	0.09	0.12
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty walking	0.18	0.01	0.15	0.21
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty remembering	0.13	0.02	0.10	0.16
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty with self-care	0.09	0.01	0.07	0.11
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty communicating	0.05	0.01	0.04	0.07
Average number of years refugees have been in country	1.06	0.19	0.69	1.44
Share of refugee children (<5) orphan of at least one parent	0.71	0.00	0.71	0.71
Share of refugee children (5 - 17) orphan of at least one parent	0.61	0.00	0.61	0.61
Share of refugee children (<5) not living with of at least one parent	0.45	0.00	0.45	0.45
Share of refugee children (5 - 17) not living with of at least one parent	0.72	0.00	0.72	0.72
Share of refugee children of school age not in school	0.18	0.00	0.18	0.18
Share of young people (18 - 24) who have never attended school	0.13	0.02	0.09	0.17
Share of young people (25 - 60) who have never attended school	0.44	0.02	0.41	0.47
Share of young people (60+) who have never attended school	0.68	0.03	0.61	0.74
Share of young people (18 - 24) who have never married	0.68	0.02	0.65	0.72
Share of young people (25 - 60) who have never married	0.97	0.00	0.96	0.98
Share of young people (60+) who have never married	0.51	0.02	0.47	0.55
Food security, vulnerability and poverty				
Average refugee household probability of being moderate or severely food insecure according to FIES	0.90	0.01	0.88	0.92
Average refugee household probability of being severely food insecure according to FIES	0.68	0.01	0.66	0.70
Average refugee household reduced coping strategy index (rCSI)	12.42	0.50	11.41	13.42
Average refugee household food consumption score	33.29	0.71	31.88	34.71
Average refugee household dietary diversity score	4.21	0.06	4.08	4.34
Average refugee household food expenditure share	0.81	0.00	0.80	0.82

Annex 4 Overview of main statistical indicators by sub-region

Average refugee household monthly per capita household expenditure (in UGX)	66,320	3,520	59,279	73,360
Average refugee household monthly per capita household expenditure, pre-transfers (in UGX)	43,910	3,110	37,689	50,130
Share of refugee households considered food secure according to the food security index	0.03	0.00	0.02	0.04
Share of refugee households considered marginally secure according to the food security index	0.25	0.01	0.22	0.27
Share of refugee households considered moderately insecure according to the food security index	0.63	0.01	0.61	0.66
Share of refugee households considered severely insecure according to the food security index	0.09	0.01	0.06	0.12
Share of refugee households above the basic needs line	0.29	0.02	0.25	0.34
Share of refugee households between basic needs and food poverty line	0.18	0.01	0.16	0.20
Share of refugee households above the median asset index	0.41	0.02	0.37	0.46
Livelihoods				
Share of refugees 15+ years who work their land/livestock as main activity	0.10	0.01	0.08	0.13
Share of refugee households with land access for agriculture	0.21	0.01	0.18	0.24
Share of refugee households that own livestock	0.10	0.01	0.09	0.12
Average number of cattle owned by refugee households	0.32	0.10	0.12	0.51
Average number of sheep owned by refugee households	0.05	0.02	0.01	0.10
Average number of goats owned by refugee households	1.49	0.17	1.14	1.83
Average number of pigs owned by refugee households	0.08	0.05	-0.02	0.19
Average number of poultries owned by refugee households	3.11	0.22	2.67	3.55
Share of working age refugees not in the labour force	0.62	0.01	0.60	0.65
Share of refugee households that have 'sale of food rations' as the most important source of income	0.33	0.03	0.27	0.38
Share of refugee households that receive support from other households	0.30	0.02	0.25	0.35
Share of refugee households that provide support from other households	0.19	0.01	0.17	0.22
Share of refugee households that have debit or credit to be paid	0.16	0.02	0.12	0.19
Food assistance				
Share of refugee households that received some form of food assistance	0.92	0.01	0.90	0.94
Average monetary per capita value of food assistance among beneficiary refugee households (in UGX)	23,737	629	22,480	24,994
Share of refugees who are EVI	0.29	0.02	0.26	0.32

Table A3: Main indicators in the Mid-Western region

Variable	Estimate (E)	Standard error (SE)	Confidence limits	
			E - 2xSE	E + 2xSE
Demographics				
Average age of refugees	36.13	0.59	34.94	37.32
Share of refugees under 5 years	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01
Share of refugees under 18 years	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.03
Share of refugees older than 59 years	0.11	0.01	0.08	0.13
Share of female refugees	0.57	0.03	0.50	0.63
Average household size	4.28	0.04	4.19	4.37
Average number of children in refugee households	2.45	0.04	2.37	2.53
Average dependency ratio of refugee households	1.48	0.06	1.37	1.59
Share of refugees with moderate or severe disabilities	0.37	0.02	0.33	0.41
Share of refugees with severe disabilities	0.09	0.01	0.08	0.11
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty seeing	0.23	0.01	0.21	0.25
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty hearing	0.11	0.01	0.09	0.13
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty walking	0.15	0.01	0.13	0.18
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty remembering	0.12	0.02	0.08	0.16
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty with self-care	0.07	0.01	0.05	0.09
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty communicating	0.04	0.01	0.03	0.06
Average number of years refugees have been in country	7.12	1.04	5.05	9.19
Share of refugee children (<5) orphan of at least one parent	0.51	0.00	0.51	0.51
Share of refugee children (5 - 17) orphan of at least one parent	0.38	0.00	0.38	0.38
Share of refugee children (<5) not living with of at least one parent	0.25	0.00	0.25	0.25
Share of refugee children (5 - 17) not living with of at least one parent	0.62	0.00	0.62	0.62
Share of refugee children of school age not in school	0.35	0.00	0.35	0.35
Share of young people (18 - 24) who have never attended school	0.23	0.01	0.20	0.25
Share of young people (25 - 60) who have never attended school	0.50	0.03	0.45	0.56
Share of young people (60+) who have never attended school	0.68	0.04	0.61	0.76
Share of young people (18 - 24) who have never married	0.65	0.07	0.52	0.78
Share of young people (25 - 60) who have never married	0.95	0.01	0.94	0.97
Share of young people (60+) who have never married	0.56	0.07	0.43	0.70
Food security, vulnerability and poverty				
Average refugee household probability of being moderate or severely food insecure according to FIES	0.90	0.01	0.88	0.93
Average refugee household probability of being severely food insecure according to FIES	0.71	0.02	0.67	0.74
Average refugee household reduced coping strategy index (rCSI)	17.29	0.40	16.49	18.08
Average refugee household food consumption score	25.52	0.38	24.76	26.29
Average refugee household dietary diversity score	3.94	0.12	3.69	4.18
Average refugee household food expenditure share	0.79	0.01	0.77	0.82

Annex 4 Overview of main statistical indicators by sub-region

Average refugee household monthly per capita household expenditure (in UGX)	110,049	8,736	92,577	127,520
Average refugee household monthly per capita household expenditure, pre-transfers (in UGX)	98,356	8,585	81,187	115,526
Share of refugee households considered food secure according to the food security index	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.02
Share of refugee households considered marginally secure according to the food security index	0.16	0.01	0.13	0.18
Share of refugee households considered moderately insecure according to the food security index	0.57	0.01	0.54	0.60
Share of refugee households considered severely insecure according to the food security index	0.26	0.01	0.24	0.28
Share of refugee households above the basic needs line	0.49	0.03	0.44	0.54
Share of refugee households between basic needs and food poverty line	0.14	0.02	0.10	0.19
Share of refugee households above the median asset index	0.63	0.02	0.58	0.67
Livelihoods				
Share of refugees 15+ years who work their land/livestock as main activity	0.39	0.05	0.30	0.48
Share of refugee households with land access for agriculture	0.52	0.03	0.47	0.58
Share of refugee households that own livestock	0.16	0.03	0.10	0.21
Average number of cattle owned by refugee households	0.07	0.03	0.01	0.12
Average number of sheep owned by refugee households	0.06	0.03	0.01	0.11
Average number of goats owned by refugee households	1.33	0.31	0.72	1.95
Average number of pigs owned by refugee households	0.87	0.10	0.66	1.07
Average number of poultries owned by refugee households	3.81	0.53	2.74	4.88
Share of working age refugees not in the labour force	0.21	0.03	0.15	0.26
Share of refugee households that have 'sale of food rations' as the most important source of income	0.06	0.01	0.03	0.08
Share of refugee households that receive support from other households	0.49	0.03	0.43	0.54
Share of refugee households that provide support from other households	0.32	0.04	0.24	0.41
Share of refugee households that have debit or credit to be paid	0.33	0.04	0.25	0.41
Food assistance				
Share of refugee households that received some form of food assistance	0.58	0.05	0.48	0.69
Average monetary per capita value of food assistance among beneficiary refugee households (in UGX)	23,813	1,347	21,119	26,507
Share of refugees who are EVI	0.25	0.02	0.22	0.28

Table A4: Main indicators in the South Western region

Variable	Estimate (E)	Standard error (SE)	Confidence limits	
			E - 2xSE	E + 2xSE
Demographics				
Average age of refugees	38.08	0.69	36.70	39.45
Share of refugees under 5 years	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Share of refugees under 18 years	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.02
Share of refugees older than 59 years	0.12	0.01	0.10	0.14
Share of female refugees	0.40	0.03	0.34	0.46
Average household size	3.58	0.13	3.33	3.83
Average number of children in refugee households	1.81	0.09	1.63	1.98
Average dependency ratio of refugee households	1.11	0.04	1.03	1.18
Share of refugees with moderate or severe disabilities	0.46	0.03	0.41	0.51
Share of refugees with severe disabilities	0.16	0.01	0.14	0.19
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty seeing	0.29	0.02	0.24	0.33
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty hearing	0.14	0.01	0.12	0.15
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty walking	0.16	0.02	0.12	0.21
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty remembering	0.20	0.03	0.15	0.26
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty with self-care	0.09	0.01	0.06	0.11
Share of refugees with at least some difficulty communicating	0.10	0.01	0.08	0.11
Average number of completed years refugees have been in country	5.95	0.44	5.08	6.82
Share of refugee children (<5) orphan of at least one parent				
Share of refugee children (5 - 17) orphan of at least one parent	0.59	0.00	0.59	0.59
Share of refugee children (<5) not living with of at least one parent				
Share of refugee children (5 - 17) not living with of at least one parent	0.86	0.00	0.86	0.86
Share of refugee children of school age not in school	0.14	0.00	0.14	0.14
Share of young people (18 - 24) who have never attended school	0.50	0.04	0.42	0.58
Share of young people (25 - 60) who have never attended school	0.55	0.02	0.50	0.59
Share of young people (60+) who have never attended school	0.66	0.05	0.55	0.76
Share of young people (18 - 24) who have never married	0.64	0.04	0.56	0.73
Share of young people (25 - 60) who have never married	0.90	0.01	0.88	0.92
Share of young people (60+) who have never married	0.57	0.03	0.50	0.64
Food security, vulnerability and poverty				
Average refugee household probability of being moderate or severely food insecure according to FIES	0.93	0.02	0.89	0.97
Average refugee household probability of being severely food insecure according to FIES	0.75	0.02	0.71	0.80
Average refugee household reduced coping strategy index (rCSI)	27.75	1.08	25.59	29.91
Average refugee household food consumption score	27.47	0.70	26.06	28.88
Average refugee household dietary diversity score	3.44	0.13	3.19	3.70
Average refugee household food expenditure share	0.76	0.01	0.74	0.78

Annex 4 Overview of main statistical indicators by sub-region

Average refugee household monthly per capita household expenditure (in UGX)	78,497	6,677	65,143	91,851
Average refugee household monthly per capita household expenditure, pre-transfers (in UGX)	61,815	6,232	49,350	74,280
Share of refugee households considered food secure according to the food security index	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.03
Share of refugee households considered marginally secure according to the food security index	0.17	0.02	0.13	0.20
Share of refugee households considered moderately insecure according to the food security index	0.51	0.04	0.43	0.58
Share of refugee households considered severely insecure according to the food security index	0.31	0.02	0.26	0.35
Share of refugee households above the basic needs line	0.44	0.05	0.33	0.55
Share of refugee households between basic needs and food poverty line	0.12	0.01	0.11	0.14
Share of refugee households above the median asset index	0.79	0.02	0.75	0.84
Livelihoods				
Share of refugees 15+ years who work their land/livestock as main activity	0.41	0.04	0.34	0.49
Share of refugee households with land access for agriculture	0.50	0.05	0.40	0.59
Share of refugee households that own livestock	0.19	0.01	0.18	0.21
Average number of cattle owned by refugee households	0.17	0.06	0.06	0.28
Average number of sheep owned by refugee households	0.17	0.04	0.10	0.25
Average number of goats owned by refugee households	1.12	0.13	0.85	1.38
Average number of pigs owned by refugee households	0.20	0.04	0.13	0.28
Average number of poultries owned by refugee households	3.24	0.33	2.58	3.90
Share of working age refugees not in the labour force	0.15	0.02	0.10	0.19
Share of refugee households that have 'sale of food rations' as the most important source of income	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01
Share of refugee households that receive support from other households	0.34	0.03	0.28	0.41
Share of refugee households that provide support from other households	0.15	0.02	0.10	0.19
Share of refugee households that have debit or credit to be paid	0.52	0.01	0.49	0.55
Food assistance				
Share of refugee households that received some form of food assistance	0.84	0.02	0.80	0.88
Average monetary per capita value of food assistance among beneficiary refugee households (in UGX)	19,164	1,416	16,332	21,996
Share of refugees who are EVI	0.20	0.02	0.17	0.24

Annex 5 Additional Data on Demographics and Life Cycle Vulnerabilities

This Annex provides supplementary information to the main findings on socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the refugee population presented in Chapter 3.

Annex 5.1 Additional figures on the demographics of the refugee population

Figure A1: Comparison across age groups of numbers of males and females

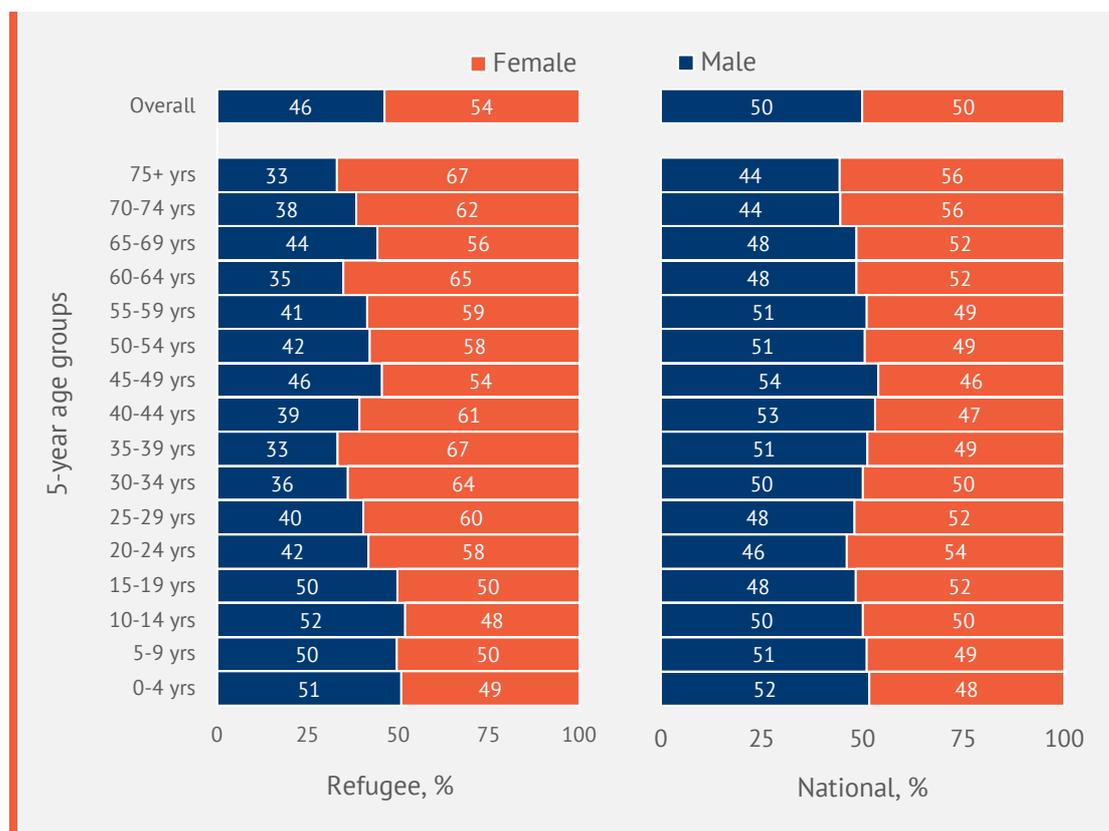


Figure A2: Disability prevalence in the refugee population by severity of functional limitation and background characteristics

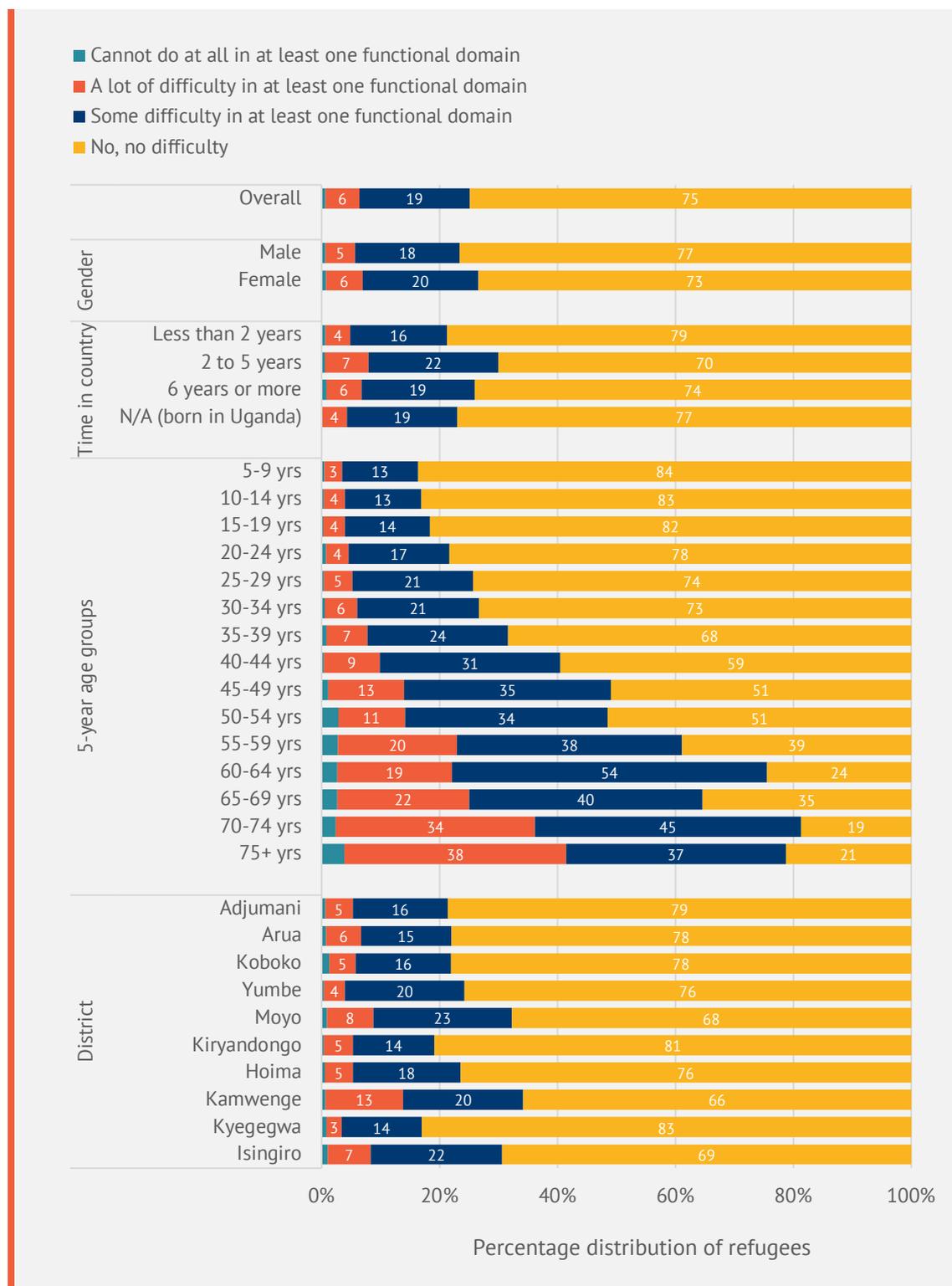


Table A5: Severe disability prevalence across age groups and districts

	District									
	Adjumani	Arua	Koboko	Yumbe	Moyo	Kiryandongo	Hoima	Kamwenge	Kyegegwa	Isingiro
10-year age group										
0-9	2.40	4.60	-	2.00	5.76	2.45	2.93	7.50	1.09	3.85
10-19	3.93	4.51	3.41	2.83	5.67	2.83	2.32	6.80	2.78	3.50
20-29	2.71	6.41	1.61	3.32	5.78	3.09	3.05	11.24	1.90	5.52
30-39	5.60	3.81	7.27	5.87	10.40	6.44	7.33	12.63	1.36	8.64
40-49	8.53	10.71	10.26	7.13	18.28	7.37	10.25	21.69	5.70	15.50
50-59	9.88	20.88	15.00	7.49	21.97	32.43	19.12	45.29	10.10	17.48
60-69	26.01	27.29	17.65	10.75	17.51	20.51	20.62	47.11	12.83	46.72
70+	34.77	44.94	-	29.08	47.90	43.33	36.36	53.12	20.50	34.92

Figure A3: Distribution of school age children by school attendance and background characteristics

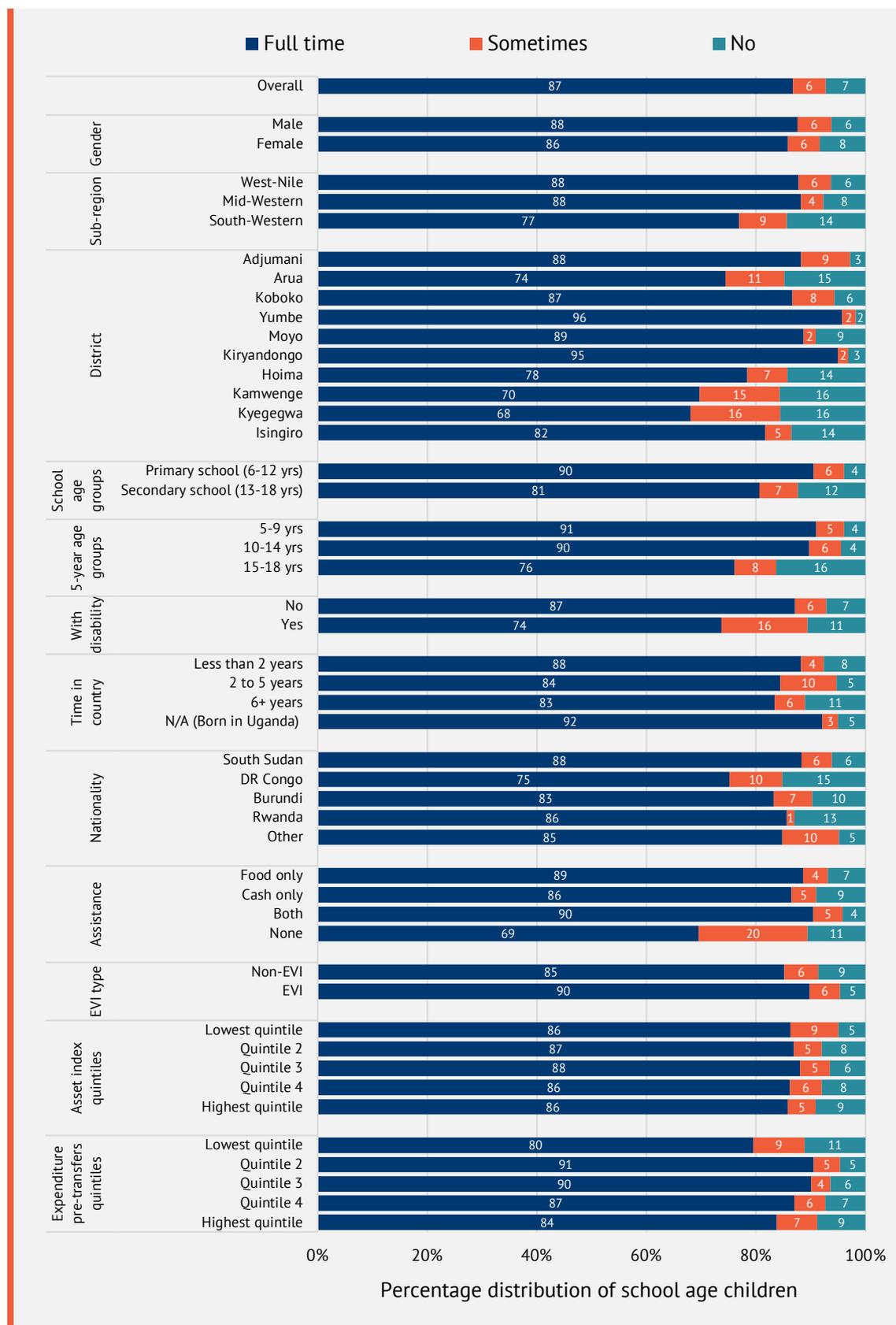


Table A6: Distribution of children aged 6-12 years and 13-18 years not attending school by reasons given for not attending

Reasons for not attending	Primary school age			Secondary school age		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Too far away	44.8%	31.5%	37.8%	14.6%	3.8%	8.3%
Not able to afford	29.0%	27.5%	28.2%	51.9%	39.4%	44.7%
Too young	4.8%	5.0%	4.9%	0.0%	0.4%	0.2%
Had to help at home	4.1%	4.8%	4.5%	2.2%	6.8%	4.9%
Sickness/calamity in family	1.9%	6.5%	4.3%	2.1%	5.8%	4.3%
Not willing to further attend	1.4%	4.0%	2.8%	4.1%	2.3%	3.1%
Completed desired schooling	3.2%	2.2%	2.7%	1.5%	0.3%	0.8%
Marriage	3.0%	1.3%	2.1%	1.5%	13.5%	8.4%
Lack of appropriate facilities for girls	0.0%	4.0%	2.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Death of sponsor	0.0%	3.7%	2.0%	7.5%	4.3%	5.7%
Poor school quality	0.0%	3.2%	1.7%	2.3%	0.0%	0.9%
Disability	1.7%	0.5%	1.1%	0.0%	0.6%	0.4%
Parents did not want	1.9%	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	0.4%	0.2%
Pregnancy	0.0%	1.5%	0.8%	2.4%	9.7%	6.6%
Further schooling not available	0.0%	0.8%	0.4%	3.8%	3.8%	3.8%
Poor academic progress	0.0%	0.8%	0.4%	1.3%	2.1%	1.8%
Had to help with farm work	0.6%	0.0%	0.3%	1.6%	1.1%	1.3%
Language barriers	0.6%	0.0%	0.3%	0.3%	0.6%	0.5%
Other	3.2%	2.6%	2.9%	3.0%	4.0%	3.5%

Annex 5.2 Disability among children

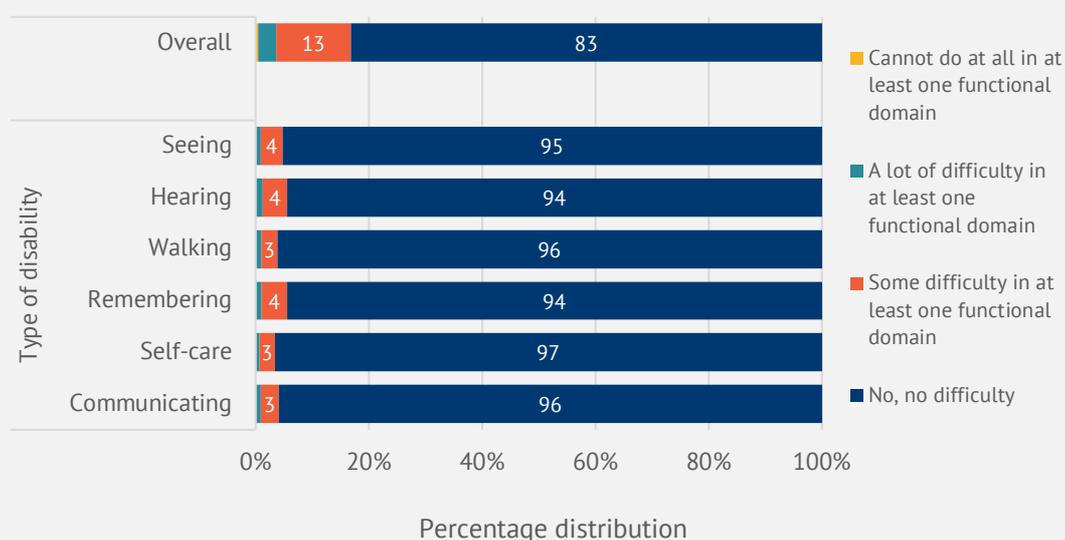
Around 4 per cent of all children live with a severe disability.¹⁰² The types of disability they experience are set out in Figure A4. Children with disabilities are likely to face the normal challenges experienced by other disabled children in Africa, such as discrimination, shame, lack of prioritisation by families, etc. Disabled children are often kept hidden away and unable to engage fully in society. Indeed, this may well even happen with the PSN assessment, since the numbers of children identified as PSNs with a disability far fewer than found in this survey. Furthermore, families that include a child with a disability are likely to experience much higher costs, which would reduce their overall standard of living (although, in reality, due to the local context and the low incomes experienced by families, they are not likely to be able to incur some of these costs, such as on medicine, transport, etc).

¹⁰² This is defined as at least 'a lot of difficulty' in one domain.

Figure A4: Proportion of children with a disability, by type and severity

Box A2: PSN assessment of children with disabilities

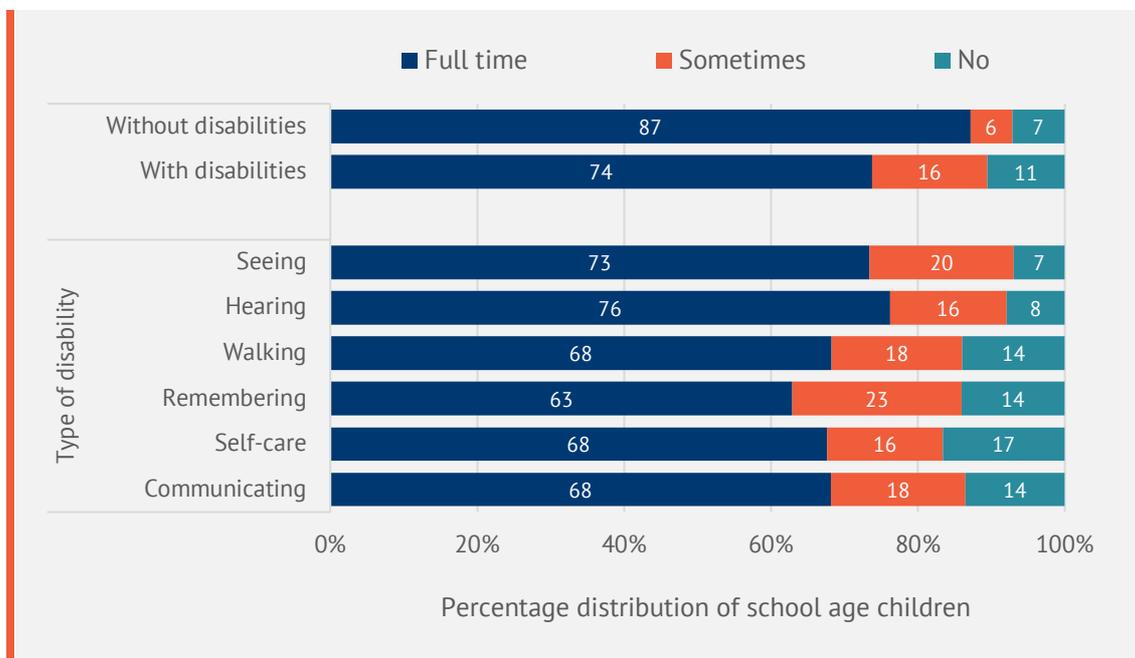
In Kyangwali, according to the UNHCR implementing partner AAH, only 78 children with disabilities are on the PSN list. With almost 25,000 refugees aged 0-17 in the settlement, this corresponds to a disability prevalence rate of 0.3 per cent. In the household survey, two per cent of children were found to have a severe disability in Kyangwali (Hoima) and 0.25% per cent were classified as 'unable to do.' This suggests that the PSN assessment only captures some children with very severe disability, while the vast majority of children with severe disabilities do not receive the support they need.



A particular challenge for children with disabilities is attending school. Schools are not disability-friendly and overcrowded classrooms are not conducive environments for children with disabilities.¹⁰⁵ As shown in Figure A5 children with disabilities are less likely to be attending school. While 87 per cent of school age children without a disability are full time students, only 74 per cent of school age children with disabilities are full time students. When looking at type of disability, 17 per cent of children that have at least a lot of difficulty in communicating are not attending school, and 7 per cent of children with severe difficulties in hearing are not attending school (Figure A5). Overall, children with intellectual challenges are less likely to be in school.

¹⁰⁵ 17/07/2017, FGD, adult/older women, Kiryandongo

Figure A5: Access of children with disabilities to school: percent distribution of children by school attendance and type of disability



Box A3: Experience of a child aged 14 years living with a disability

In Rwamwanja, a young man of 23 years is responsible for his 14-year old brother who has developed a disability over the last 10 months. They arrived earlier this year. Even though their parents are in the settlement, they are forced to spend long periods away from the settlement in search of work. He was always fine and moving well. According to the young man, his brother gradually became weak and immobile while they were still in DR Congo, and it was a struggle to bring him to Uganda. The young man is the primary carer of his brother, washing him and cooking for him, while also taking him to the health centres. He also mentioned that it is important for him to engage his younger brother in conversations so that he does not feel lonely. He, therefore, finds it difficult to leave his brother behind and look for work, even though the on-going treatment is costly. They moved closer to the health centre and are paying UGX 10,000 a month for the house. At present, they sell approximately 15 kg of their food rations to manage with the expenses: "Life here is very difficult, jobs are difficult to get, and we only wait for food every month."

Annex 5.3 Additional figures on the challenges across the lifecycle

Figure A6: Distribution of young people by highest level of educational attainment and background characteristics

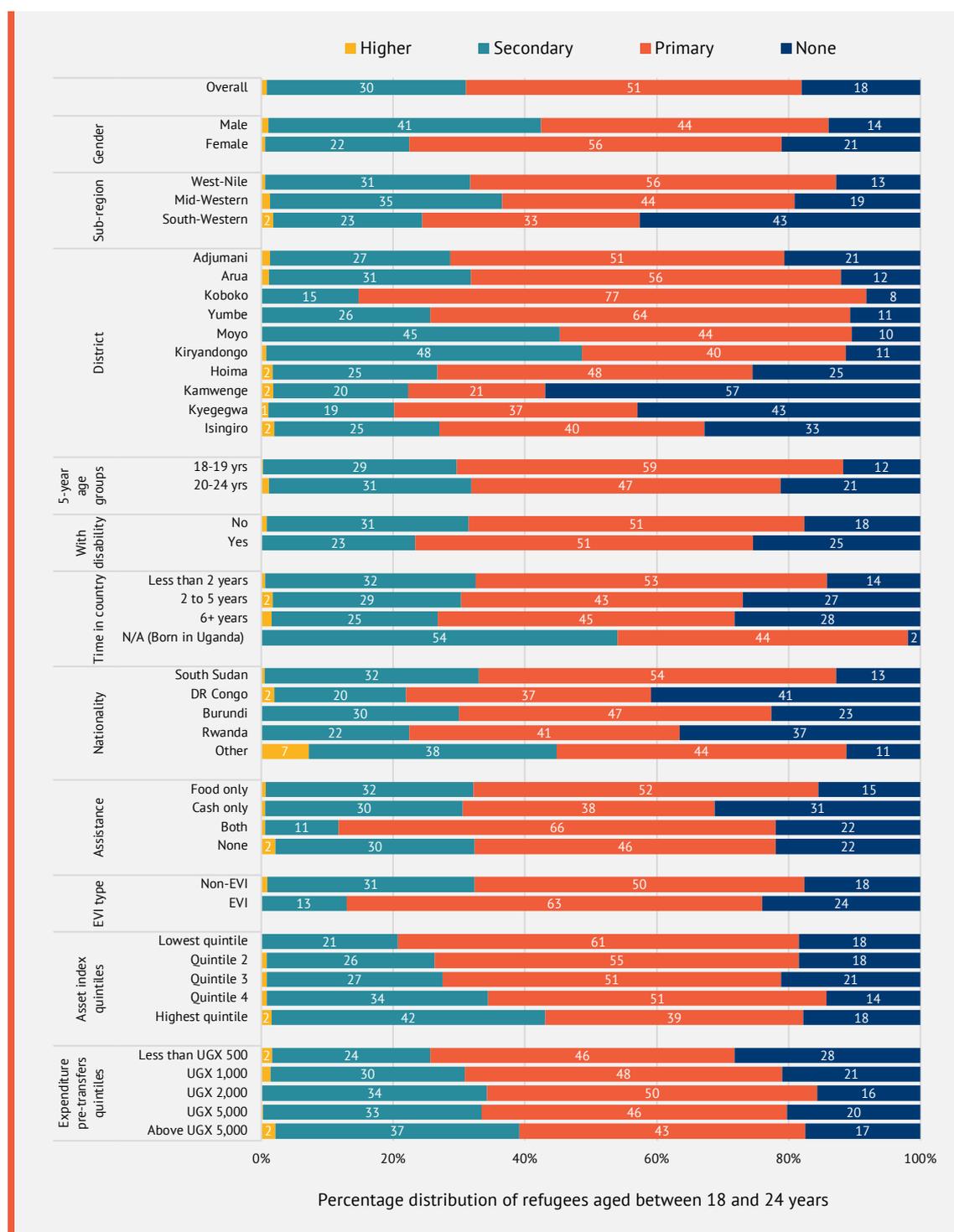


Figure A7: Distribution of working age refugees (25-59 years) by highest educational attainment and background characteristics

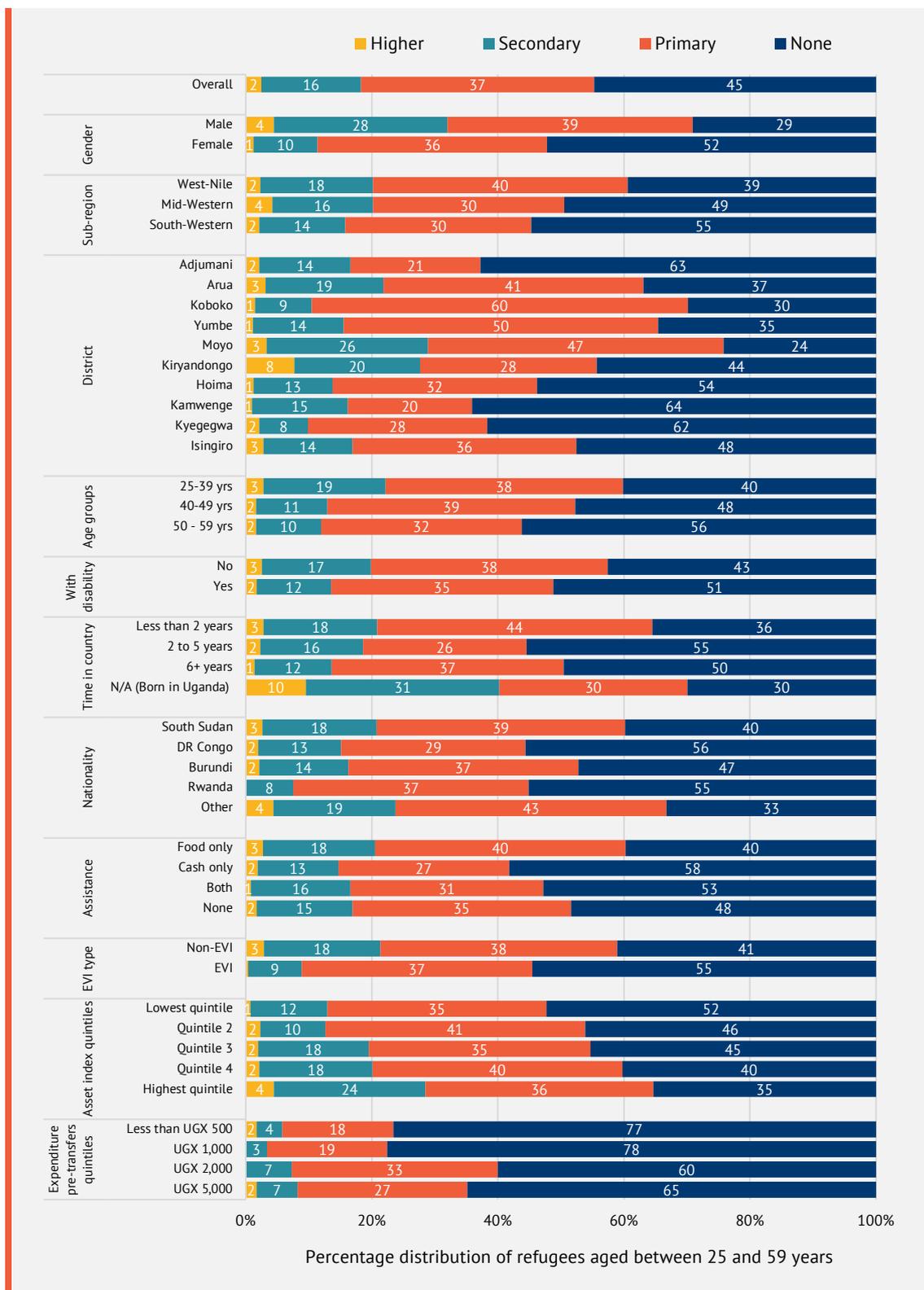
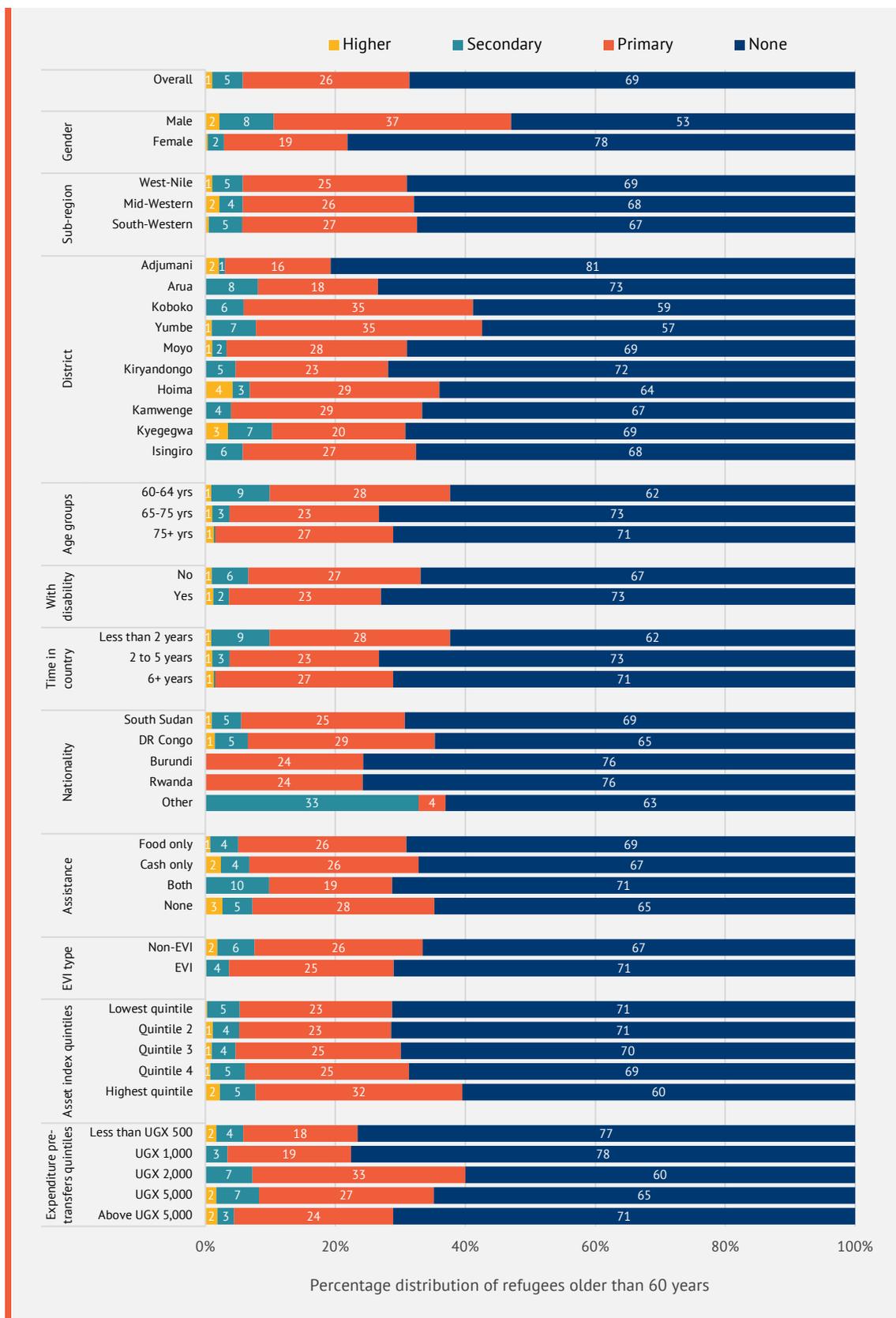
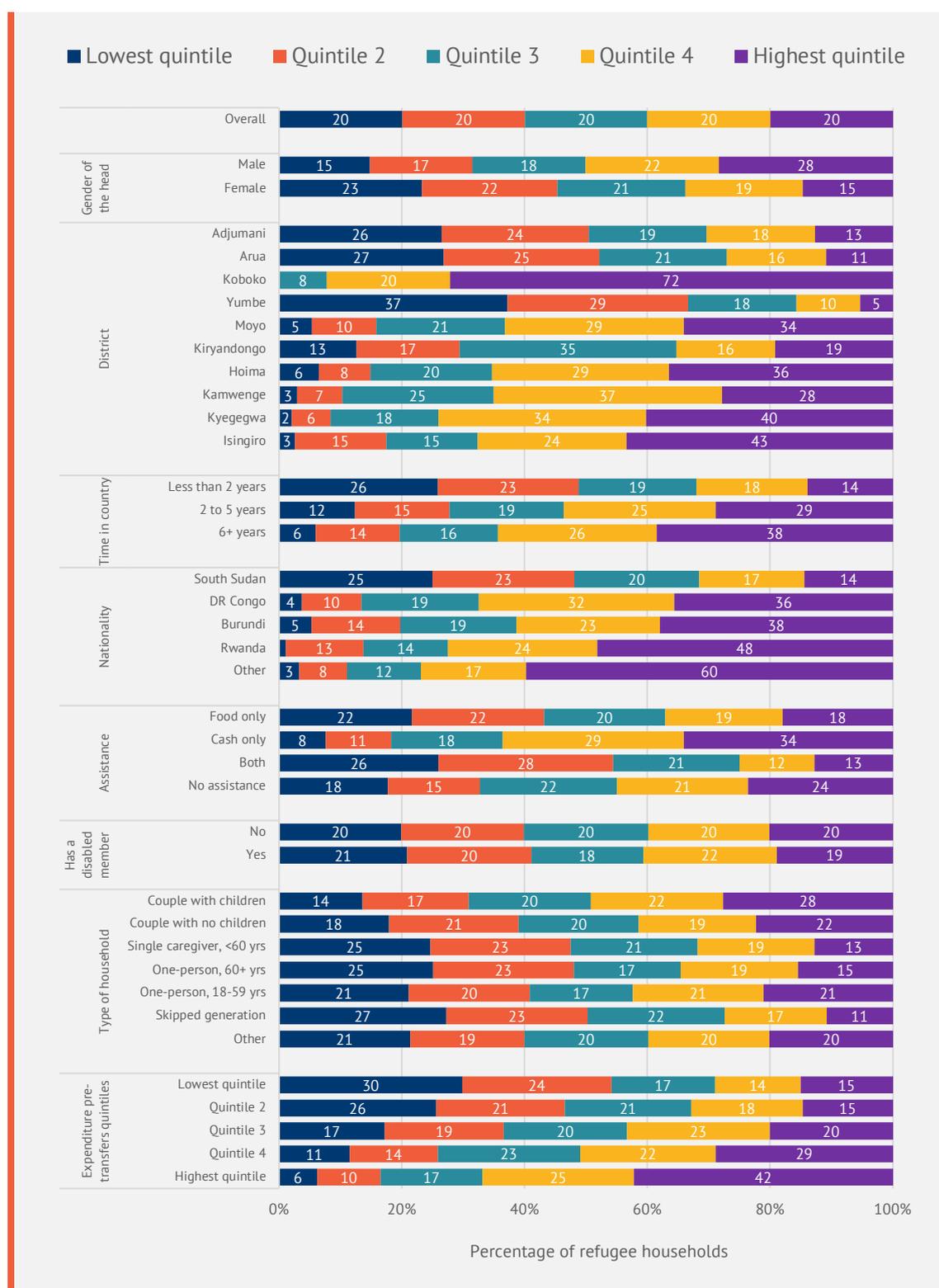


Figure A8: Distribution of old age refugees by highest educational attainment and background characteristics



Annex 5.4 Additional figures on household assets

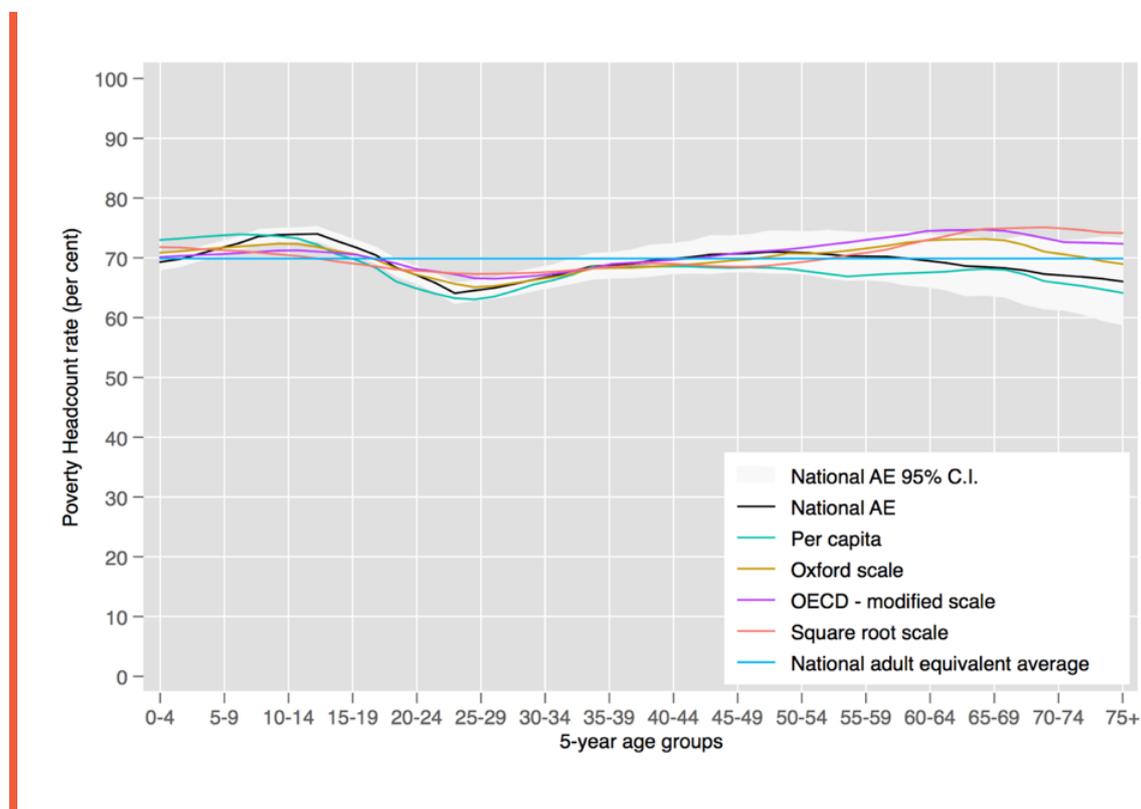
Figure A9: Distribution of households by asset index quintile and different background characteristics



Annex 5.5 Poverty across age groups, using alternative equivalence scales

The welfare measure underpinning this report is household expenditure per capita. Although this is a measure people can easily relate to, there are some drawbacks. It implicitly assumes that all household resources are equally distributed among its members and that there are no economies of scale. Internationally, a wide range of equivalence scales are used by different countries to measure poverty and there is no single universally accepted method. Among the refugee population, estimates of poverty are not significantly influenced by the choice of equivalence scales employed, as illustrated in the figure below. For example, when using the modified OECD scale in poverty calculation – which assigns a value of 1 to the household head, of 0.5 to each additional adult member and of 0.3 to each child, rates of poverty across different age groups are not that different from the adult equivalence scale used by UBOS. Four other alternative scales used internationally are also tested. Therefore, unless noted, for sake of simplicity this report uses household expenditure as measured in per capita terms.

Figure A10: Poverty across age groups, using alternative equivalence scales



Annex 5.6 Pre-transfer expenditure estimates

In order to obtain pre-transfer household expenditure, we need to first identify households currently receiving food assistance and second estimate the amount of food assistance received. Below is a description of the methods and assumptions used to undertake each of the two steps above.

1. Identify which households are currently receiving food assistance and the type of assistance given

We use question AS11 in the AS module of the questionnaire. This question produces the highest number of identifiable answers and is the most accurate of current receipts. One problem with this approach is that we are not able to distinguish whether the assistance is actually from the WFP.

Alternative forms of identifying beneficiary households also have limitations:

- I. Use question AS1b which asks directly which type of assistance was the registration certificate or attestation card entitled. However, by using this question we are uncertain whether the household is currently receiving food assistance or not.
- II. Use question AS5 which asks when was the last time the household received food or cash transfers. The problem in using this question is that 25-30 per cent answered 'don't know' and it is not possible to distinguish the type of assistance received.
- III. Use questions AS7 and AS9 that ask the amount received to identify those receiving food assistance. The issue with this approach is that question AS7 was not applied to all those who did not know the date of last receipt. Therefore, we are uncertain whether the many households with missing values are indeed receiving only food assistance. Furthermore, we are not certain whether many of the responses in AS9 are also receiving in-kind food assistance.

2. Measure the amount of food assistance received

For this step, we have to rely mostly on questions AS7 and AS9 that ask the amount received of each type of assistance respectively. Because there is the problem of many households not answering question AS7, we have imputed values for these households based on the averages of the amount received in each primary sample unit or settlement. Below we describe in detail each of the steps taken to produce the best estimate possible of the amount of food assistance received using this methodology.

- Step 1: Compute the reported values of those who answered to questions AS7 and AS9.
- We also remove some odd answers:
 - Only food amounts between 0 and 165 kilos were considered
 - Only cash amounts between 2,800 and 62,001 were considered
- Step 2: Monetize food amounts. This was done by simply multiplying the reported value and dividing it by 12 kilos.
- This is the simplest and perhaps best way of doing it.
- Step 3: Combine the monetized food transfers with the cash amounts.
- Step 4: Estimate per capita values by dividing the total amount received by the household size.
- Note that for many households the number of registered household members is smaller than the household size and therefore that amount per capita could be smaller than the individual amount received.
- Cap this value at 45,000.
- Replace all those with no assistance to have values equal to 0.
- Around 800 weighted households with per capita expenditure values have missing values
- Step 5: impute values for those households with missing values. This is done by considering the average transfer value of those in the same PSU.
- If there are less than 6 household observations in the PSU, consider the average value of the settlement.

Annex 6 Additional Data on Food Security

This annex provides supplementary information to the main findings on food security status among refugee households presented in Chapter 5.

Table A7: Detailed prevalence of food security, by food security classification grouping and selected background characteristics

	Food security classification groupings								
	Food secure		Marginally secure		Moderately insecure		Severely insecure		Total
	%	CI	%	CI	%	CI	%	CI	%
Sex of household head									
Male	2.5	[1.9-3.4]	24.3	[22.1-26.8]	57.1	[54.2-60.0]	16.0	[14.3-18.0]	100.0
Female	2.3	[1.5-3.5]	20.7	[18.2-23.3]	61.7	[58.4-65.0]	15.3	[12.2-19.1]	100.0
Total	2.4	[1.9-3.1]	22.1	[20.3-24.1]	59.9	[57.3-62.4]	15.6	[13.3-18.2]	100.0
Education of household head									
None	1.8	[1.1-3.1]	18.8	[17.1-20.8]	61.4	[57.2-65.3]	18.0	[14.8-21.6]	100.0
Primary	2.2	[1.4-3.5]	21.8	[17.8-26.5]	59.9	[56.0-63.7]	16.1	[13.0-19.7]	100.0
Secondary	4.1	[2.5-6.6]	28.7	[25.1-32.7]	57.4	[53.1-61.6]	9.8	[7.3-12.9]	100.0
Higher	4.1	[1.2-12.7]	39.7	[28.0-52.8]	50.2	[38.7-61.6]	6.0	[2.8-12.4]	100.0
Total	2.4	[1.9-3.1]	22.1	[20.3-24.1]	59.9	[57.3-62.4]	15.6	[13.3-18.2]	100.0
Sub-region									
West Nile	2.7	[2.0-3.6]	24.8	[22.3-27.5]	63.3	[60.7-65.9]	9.1	[6.5-12.6]	100.0
Mid-Western	1.5	[0.9-2.3]	15.8	[13.5-18.3]	56.8	[54.0-59.5]	26.0	[23.6-28.5]	100.0
South Western	1.8	[1.0-3.4]	16.8	[13.5-20.8]	50.5	[43.3-57.7]	30.8	[26.4-35.6]	100.0
Total	2.4	[1.9-3.1]	22.1	[20.3-24.1]	59.9	[57.3-62.4]	15.6	[13.3-18.2]	100.0
District									
Adjumani	4.5	[2.6-7.5]	24.2	[20.5-28.3]	61.9	[57.2-66.4]	9.4	[5.7-15.1]	100.0
Arua	1.7	[0.8-3.7]	20.6	[14.0-29.1]	66.5	[61.3-71.3]	11.3	[5.4-22.1]	100.0
Koboko	4.4	[3.4-5.7]	59.3	[43.8-73.2]	33.0	[21.7-46.6]	3.3	[1.6-6.8]	100.0
Yumbe	2.2	[1.8-2.8]	29.2	[25.8-32.8]	63.6	[61.2-66.0]	5.0	[3.6-6.9]	100.0
Moyo	2.2	[1.5-3.3]	23.3	[20.2-26.6]	62.3	[51.9-71.7]	12.3	[6.4-22.1]	100.0

Annex 6 Additional data on food security

Kiryandongo	2.4	[1.4-4.0]	21.5	[17.3-26.5]	59.3	[52.4-65.9]	16.7	[12.9-21.5]	100.0
Hoima	1.0	[0.4-2.3]	13.1	[12.0-14.4]	55.6	[52.7-58.4]	30.3	[27.6-33.1]	100.0
Kamwenge	3.8	[1.8-8.1]	18.7	[15.2-22.7]	48.6	[40.7-56.5]	28.9	[23.7-34.8]	100.0
Kyegegwa	2.5	[1.7-3.7]	23.4	[12.9-38.5]	62.6	[47.1-75.8]	11.5	[9.0-14.7]	100.0
Isingiro	0.0		13.1	[7.5-22.0]	47.9	[36.2-59.9]	38.9	[33.9-44.2]	100.0
Total	2.4	[1.9-3.1]	22.1	[20.3-24.1]	59.9	[57.3-62.4]	15.6	[13.3-18.2]	100.0
Time in country									
Less than 2 years	2.2	[1.5-3.0]	23.6	[20.5-27.1]	63.0	[60.3-65.6]	11.2	[8.5-14.8]	100.0
2 to 5 years	2.2	[1.1-4.2]	22.8	[18.8-27.4]	57.9	[52.3-63.3]	17.1	[13.4-21.7]	100.0
6+ years	1.1	[0.5-2.7]	13.6	[10.4-17.6]	53.6	[47.3-59.8]	31.6	[27.3-36.3]	100.0
Total	2.0	[1.5-2.7]	22.1	[19.7-24.8]	60.4	[57.7-63.0]	15.5	[12.9-18.4]	100.0
Nationality									
South Sudan	2.6	[1.9-3.4]	24.1	[21.7-26.6]	63.7	[61.1-66.2]	9.7	[7.2-13.0]	100.0
DR Congo	2.0	[1.2-3.5]	17.6	[14.1-21.8]	53.1	[47.8-58.2]	27.3	[24.3-30.4]	100.0
Burundi	0.0		17.4	[8.7-31.7]	39.1	[32.2-46.5]	43.5	[27.4-61.1]	100.0
Rwanda	1.0	[0.4-2.8]	7.7	[4.7-12.3]	44.8	[38.0-51.8]	46.5	[36.7-56.6]	100.0
Other	8.6	[2.2-27.7]	32.8	[18.2-51.7]	46.9	[37.5-56.5]	11.7	[3.0-36.0]	100.0
Total	2.4	[1.9-3.1]	22.1	[20.3-24.1]	59.9	[57.3-62.4]	15.6	[13.3-18.2]	100.0
Household has child									
No	3.4	[2.1-5.4]	29.9	[24.7-35.8]	54.0	[48.1-59.8]	12.7	[10.1-15.9]	100.0
Yes	2.2	[1.6-3.0]	20.2	[18.1-22.5]	61.3	[59.0-63.6]	16.3	[13.8-19.2]	100.0
Total	2.4	[1.9-3.1]	22.1	[20.3-24.1]	59.9	[57.3-62.4]	15.6	[13.3-18.2]	100.0
Household has elderly									
No	2.4	[1.9-3.0]	22.8	[20.7-25.1]	59.5	[57.0-62.0]	15.2	[12.9-17.8]	100.0
Yes	2.5	[1.2-5.3]	17.2	[12.9-22.6]	62.1	[55.3-68.5]	18.2	[14.1-23.2]	100.0
Total	2.4	[1.9-3.1]	22.1	[20.3-24.1]	59.9	[57.3-62.4]	15.6	[13.3-18.2]	100.0
Household has disabled person									
With no difficulty	2.7	[2.0-3.6]	24.4	[21.2-27.9]	58.8	[55.8-61.7]	14.1	[11.7-16.8]	100.0
With some difficulty in 1+ domain	1.9	[1.0-3.8]	20.0	[17.4-22.8]	62.5	[57.8-67.0]	15.6	[12.6-19.3]	100.0
With a lot of difficulty in 1+ domain	2.7	[1.3-5.4]	21.2	[18.6-24.1]	57.8	[53.2-62.2]	18.4	[14.2-23.5]	100.0

Annex 6 Additional data on food security

Cannot do at all in 1+ domain	2.3	[0.3-14.8]	13.0	[6.7-24.0]	51.1	[38.8-63.2]	33.6	[21.5-48.4]	100.0
Total	2.4	[1.9-3.1]	22.1	[20.3-24.1]	59.9	[57.3-62.4]	15.6	[13.3-18.2]	100.0
Household type									
Couple household, with children	2.0	[1.2-3.5]	20.8	[17.8-24.3]	59.0	[54.7-63.1]	18.2	[15.4-21.3]	100.0
Couple household, with no children	2.4	[0.8-6.9]	21.5	[14.3-30.9]	62.3	[52.9-70.9]	13.9	[9.3-20.3]	100.0
Single parent/caregiver (<60 years)	2.1	[1.4-3.2]	20.9	[16.9-25.5]	61.3	[56.7-65.6]	15.7	[12.4-19.7]	100.0
One-person household, 60+ years	2.3	[0.5-9.1]	26.5	[15.1-42.2]	52.5	[34.2-70.1]	18.8	[11.1-30.0]	100.0
One-person household, 18-59 years	5.4	[3.2-9.0]	35.1	[29.8-40.8]	48.3	[43.4-53.3]	11.3	[8.8-14.3]	100.0
Skipped generation	1.5	[0.3-6.7]	17.2	[10.4-27.1]	65.9	[57.2-73.7]	15.3	[10.1-22.7]	100.0
Other household types	2.4	[1.4-4.0]	20.9	[17.2-25.2]	63.6	[58.3-68.6]	13.1	[9.2-18.2]	100.0
Total	2.4	[1.9-3.1]	22.1	[20.3-24.1]	59.9	[57.3-62.4]	15.6	[13.3-18.2]	100.0
Assistance received by household									
No assistance	4.6	[2.9-7.4]	26.3	[22.0-31.0]	53.0	[47.5-58.4]	16.1	[12.9-19.9]	100.0
Food assistance	2.1	[1.5-2.9]	22.4	[19.7-25.3]	61.6	[58.1-64.9]	14.0	[10.7-18.0]	100.0
Cash assistance	1.8	[0.8-4.2]	16.9	[13.6-20.8]	57.6	[51.1-63.9]	23.8	[19.8-28.2]	100.0
Both	2.7	[1.1-6.5]	21.0	[12.6-33.0]	59.5	[49.8-68.5]	16.8	[9.6-27.6]	100.0
Total	2.4	[1.9-3.1]	22.1	[20.3-24.1]	59.9	[57.3-62.4]	15.6	[13.3-18.2]	100.0
Asset-based quintile									
Lowest	2.5	[1.7-3.6]	21.5	[14.8-30.2]	65.1	[58.8-71.0]	10.9	[7.0-16.4]	100.0
Second	1.4	[0.7-2.6]	19.8	[16.2-24.0]	65.2	[60.0-70.0]	13.6	[9.5-19.1]	100.0
Third	1.9	[1.0-3.3]	25.5	[21.4-30.1]	58.7	[52.8-64.3]	13.9	[10.8-17.7]	100.0
Fourth	1.4	[0.9-2.2]	18.6	[15.9-21.6]	57.7	[53.1-62.2]	22.3	[18.4-26.7]	100.0
Highest	4.4	[3.1-6.2]	24.6	[19.8-30.1]	54.8	[47.2-62.1]	16.2	[12.0-21.7]	100.0
Total	2.4	[1.9-3.1]	22.1	[20.3-24.1]	59.9	[57.3-62.4]	15.6	[13.3-18.2]	100.0
Expenditure-based household quintile									
Lowest	1.0	[0.4-2.4]	11.7	[9.4-14.5]	67.5	[61.7-72.7]	19.8	[15.2-25.4]	100.0
Second	0.3	[0.1-1.6]	15.3	[11.4-20.3]	68.4	[63.3-73.2]	15.9	[12.1-20.7]	100.0
Third	1.0	[0.5-2.2]	21.6	[17.6-26.1]	61.2	[57.1-65.1]	16.2	[12.0-21.6]	100.0
Fourth	3.7	[2.3-5.7]	27.9	[25.0-31.1]	52.9	[48.5-57.3]	15.5	[12.0-19.7]	100.0

Annex 6 Additional data on food security

Highest	5.9	[4.3-8.1]	34.0	[26.6-42.3]	49.5	[41.7-57.3]	10.6	[8.7-12.8]	100.0
Total	2.4	[1.9-3.1]	22.1	[20.3-24.1]	59.9	[57.3-62.4]	15.6	[13.3-18.2]	100.0
Main source of cash income									
No cash income	1.9	[1.0-3.4]	22.9	[18.7-27.7]	62.6	[58.6-66.5]	12.6	[9.7-16.2]	100.0
Sale of food rations	1.6	[0.9-2.9]	19.3	[15.3-23.9]	68.3	[63.5-72.8]	10.8	[7.1-16.2]	100.0
Sale of agricultural/natural products	2.2	[1.1-4.3]	23.8	[20.0-28.1]	56.6	[52.0-61.1]	17.4	[13.2-22.6]	100.0
Wage labour in agriculture	0.6	[0.1-3.1]	18.2	[14.3-22.9]	56.0	[51.6-60.2]	25.2	[21.1-29.7]	100.0
Wage labour in other sector	4.9	[1.9-12.5]	37.2	[25.7-50.3]	52.4	[39.8-64.8]	5.5	[2.0-14.1]	100.0
Casual workers	3.1	[1.9-5.1]	21.0	[14.3-29.7]	48.5	[41.1-55.9]	27.4	[19.6-36.8]	100.0
Petty trade/business	8.6	[4.7-15.2]	30.7	[24.1-38.3]	53.6	[42.8-64.0]	7.1	[2.6-18.1]	100.0
NGOs and/or humanitarian agencies	2.7	[1.2-6.0]	14.8	[10.5-20.6]	57.2	[50.1-64.0]	25.3	[19.3-32.4]	100.0
Remittances	7.4	[4.9-11.1]	27.1	[15.2-43.7]	46.4	[26.4-67.7]	19.0	[6.6-43.9]	100.0
Other	1.5	[0.4-6.1]	23.4	[13.2-37.9]	60.3	[48.3-71.1]	14.8	[8.4-24.8]	100.0
Total	2.4	[1.9-3.1]	22.1	[20.3-24.1]	59.9	[57.3-62.4]	15.6	[13.3-18.2]	100.0
Reported size of land									
No land for agriculture	2.6	[1.9-3.5]	23.9	[20.8-27.2]	61.2	[58.9-63.5]	12.3	[10.1-15.0]	100.0
Less than 0.5 acre	1.2	[0.6-2.6]	18.7	[13.2-25.8]	58.8	[50.0-67.2]	21.2	[16.7-26.5]	100.0
Approximately 0.5-1 acres	2.9	[1.1-7.0]	14.2	[11.5-17.4]	56.6	[49.3-63.6]	26.4	[18.8-35.7]	100.0
Approximately 1-2 acres	4.6	[1.7-12.1]	30.2	[17.8-46.4]	46.6	[33.3-60.5]	18.6	[10.0-31.8]	100.0
More than 2 acres	15.7	[6.2-34.6]	19.3	[7.4-41.7]	56.6	[35.2-75.7]	8.4	[2.0-28.8]	100.0
Total	2.4	[1.9-3.1]	22.2	[20.3-24.2]	59.9	[57.4-62.4]	15.5	[13.2-18.1]	100.0

Table A8: Descriptive statistics of demographic indicators by food security classification groupings

	Mean	Std. Err.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Household size				
Food secure households	3.45	0.32	2.81	4.09
Marginally food secure households	3.75	0.14	3.47	4.03
Moderately food insecure households	4.16	0.08	3.99	4.32
Severely food insecure households	4.23	0.11	4.01	4.45
Dependency ratio				
Food secure households	0.99	0.21	0.56	1.43
Marginally food secure households	1.20	0.07	1.05	1.35
Moderately food insecure households	1.54	0.05	1.44	1.64
Severely food insecure households	1.58	0.10	1.37	1.78
Number of children < 18				
Food secure households	1.64	0.24	1.15	2.14
Marginally food secure households	1.99	0.11	1.76	2.22
Moderately food insecure households	2.38	0.08	2.22	2.54
Severely food insecure households	2.45	0.10	2.25	2.64
Number of adults of 18-59 years				
Food secure households	1.69	0.15	1.39	1.98
Marginally food secure households	1.70	0.04	1.63	1.78
Moderately food insecure households	1.67	0.03	1.62	1.72
Severely food insecure households	1.68	0.06	1.56	1.79
Number of elderly 60+ years				
Food secure households	0.12	0.05	0.02	0.23
Marginally food secure households	0.06	0.01	0.03	0.08
Moderately food insecure households	0.10	0.01	0.08	0.12
Severely food insecure households	0.11	0.02	0.07	0.14
Number of persons with disabilities				
Food secure households	0.19	0.07	0.06	0.33
Marginally food secure households	0.17	0.02	0.13	0.20
Moderately food insecure households	0.18	0.01	0.15	0.21
Severely food insecure households	0.24	0.02	0.20	0.28
Percentage of members who are male				
Food secure households	51.8	4.13	43.46	60.22
Marginally food secure households	49.0	1.13	46.67	51.26
Moderately food insecure households	47.7	0.66	46.41	49.08
Severely food insecure households	44.6	1.42	41.69	47.47
Percentage of members who are female				
Food secure households	48.2	4.13	39.78	56.54
Marginally food secure households	51.0	1.13	48.74	53.33
Moderately food insecure households	52.3	0.66	50.92	53.59

Severely food insecure households	55.4	1.42	52.53	58.31
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Table A9: Multivariate logistic regression odds ratio by food security group¹⁰⁴

Variables	(1) Food secure or marginally secure	(2) Severely insecure
Female headed household (base Male)	0.903 (0.100)	1.276 (0.206)
Number of working age adults 15+ years	1.046 (0.0571)	0.920 (0.0636)
Number of children under 15	0.823** (0.0655)	1.576*** (0.159)
Number of children under 15, squared	1.022 (0.0140)	0.928*** (0.0160)
Number of elderly 60+ years	0.783 (0.234)	2.159** (0.781)
Number of elderly 60+ years, squared	0.917 (0.205)	0.696* (0.141)
<i>Has a member with disabilities (base no member with disabilities)</i>		
With some difficulty	0.809 (0.113)	1.056 (0.121)
With a lot of difficulty	0.980 (0.109)	1.048 (0.208)
Cannot do at all	0.514 (0.231)	3.247*** (0.993)
<i>Time since arrival in Uganda in completed years (base 0 to 1 year)</i>		
2 to 5 years	1.108 (0.225)	0.694* (0.134)
6+ years	1.087 (0.200)	0.796 (0.146)
<i>Education of household head (base no education)</i>		
Primary	1.063 (0.180)	1.011 (0.0906)
Secondary	1.380** (0.208)	0.660** (0.105)
Higher	2.403*** (0.592)	0.370*** (0.118)
<i>Employment main activity (base working own plot/livestock")</i>		
Working for pay	1.018 (0.376)	0.776 (0.190)
Self-employment	0.904 (0.155)	1.039 (0.454)
Helping family member without pay	2.510 (1.423)	1.267 (0.906)
Not in labour force	1.015 (0.233)	0.786 (0.201)
Unemployed	0.952 (0.311)	0.930 (0.335)

¹⁰⁴ Exponentiated coefficients; and standard errors in parentheses. Standard errors account for complex multi-stage survey design.

Annex 6 Additional data on food security

Main source of cash income (base no cash income)		
Sale of food rations	0.665** (0.128)	1.462 (0.364)
Sale of agricultural/natural products	0.910 (0.161)	1.302 (0.250)
Wage labour in agriculture	0.717 (0.196)	1.319 (0.243)
Wage labour in other sector	1.319 (0.338)	0.530 (0.326)
Casual workers	0.992 (0.286)	1.706** (0.444)
Petty trade/business	1.541*** (0.191)	0.785 (0.340)
NGOs and/or humanitarian agencies	0.586** (0.143)	1.444* (0.309)
Remittances	1.150 (0.681)	2.540 (1.698)
Other	0.910 (0.368)	1.069 (0.431)
Approximate size of land in acres (base no land)		
Less than 0.5 acre	0.573** (0.137)	1.452* (0.281)
Approximately 0.5-1 acres	0.597*** (0.0785)	1.211 (0.233)
Approximately 1-2 acres	1.363 (0.454)	0.750 (0.309)
More than 2 acres	0.917 (0.507)	0.429 (0.324)
Pre-transfers expenditure-based household quintile (base Lowest quintile)		
Second quintile	1.185 (0.240)	0.945 (0.160)
Third quintile	1.940*** (0.345)	0.981 (0.213)
Fourth quintile	3.238*** (0.560)	0.797 (0.179)
Highest quintile	4.684*** (0.978)	0.481*** (0.110)
District (base Adjumani)		
Arua	0.758 (0.218)	1.084 (0.468)
Koboko	2.013* (0.712)	0.579 (0.334)
Yumbe	1.314 (0.291)	0.388*** (0.127)
Moyo	0.797 (0.194)	0.859 (0.354)
Kiryandongo	0.467*** (0.0853)	2.368** (0.847)
Hoima	0.390*** (0.0919)	4.071*** (1.330)
Kamwenge	0.617** (0.138)	4.181*** (1.423)
Kyegegwa	0.648 (0.288)	1.303 (0.414)
Isingiro	0.389	6.578***

Annex 6 Additional data on food security

	(0.227)	(2.128)
Constant	0.289***	0.0822***
	(0.112)	(0.0367)
Number of observations		
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1	3,298	3,298

Figure A11: Distribution of refugee households by food consumption score (FCS) groups and different background characteristics

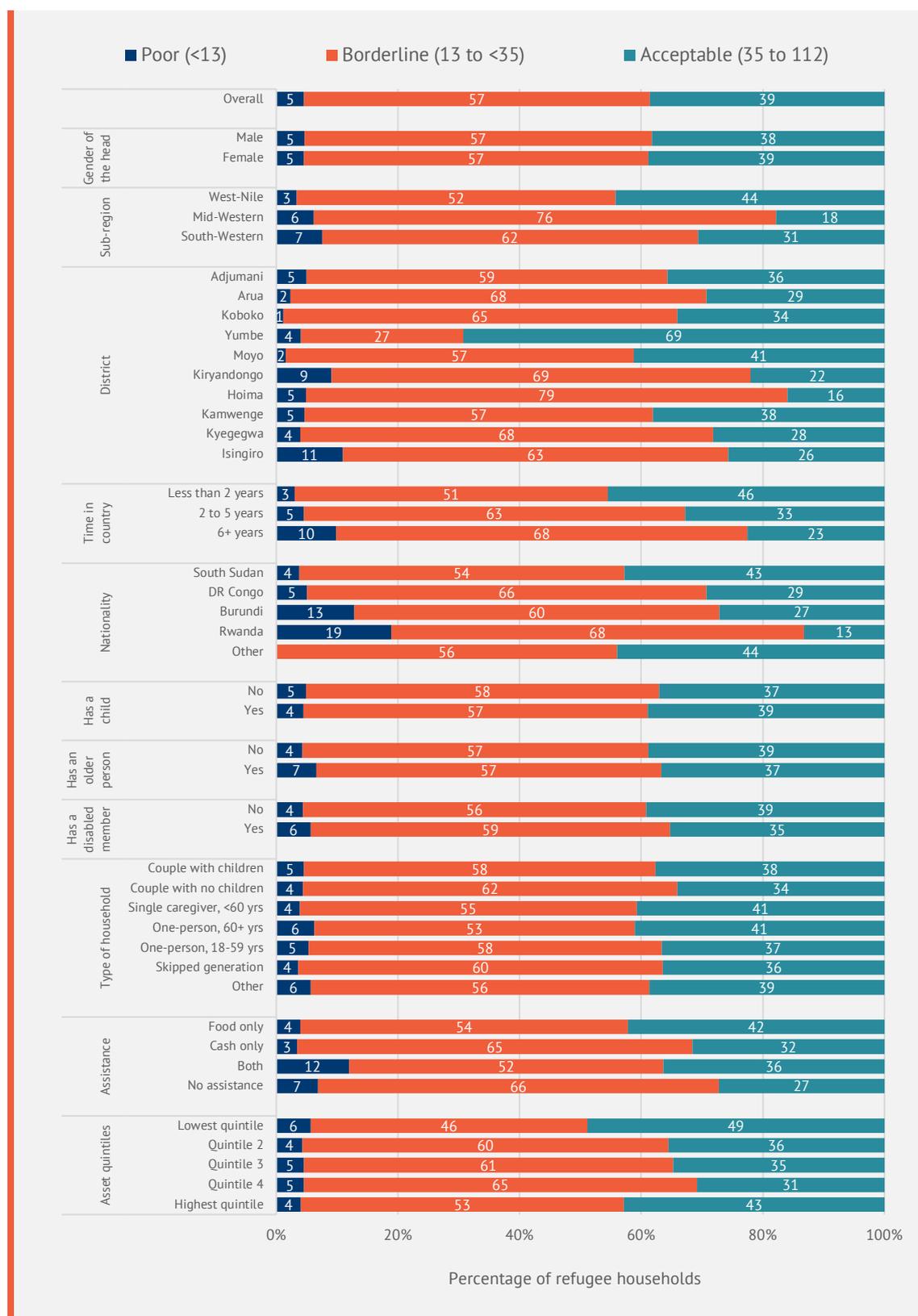


Figure A12: Distribution of refugee household by dietary diversity score groups and different background characteristics

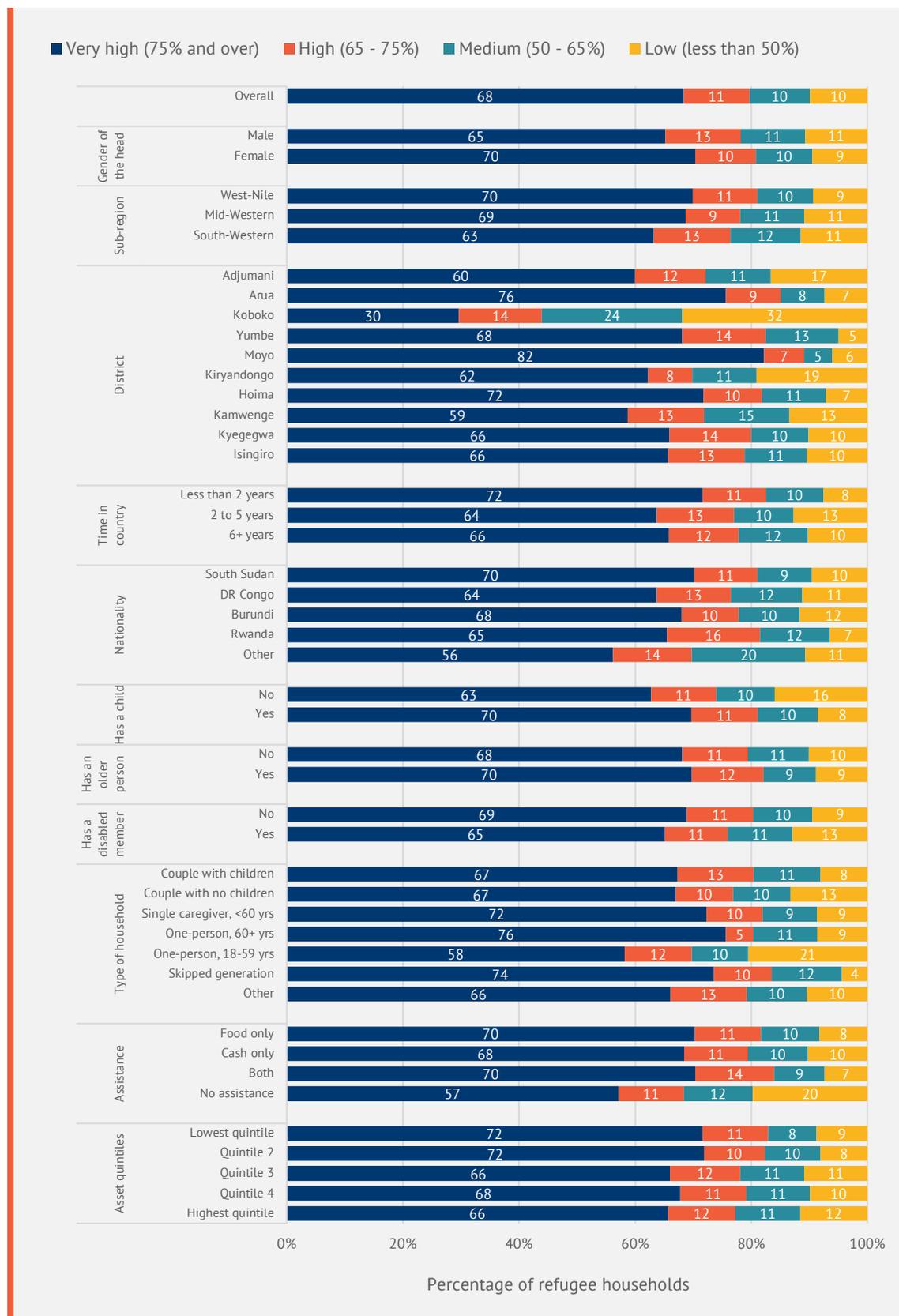


Figure A13: Distribution of refugee households by food expenditure share groups and different background characteristics

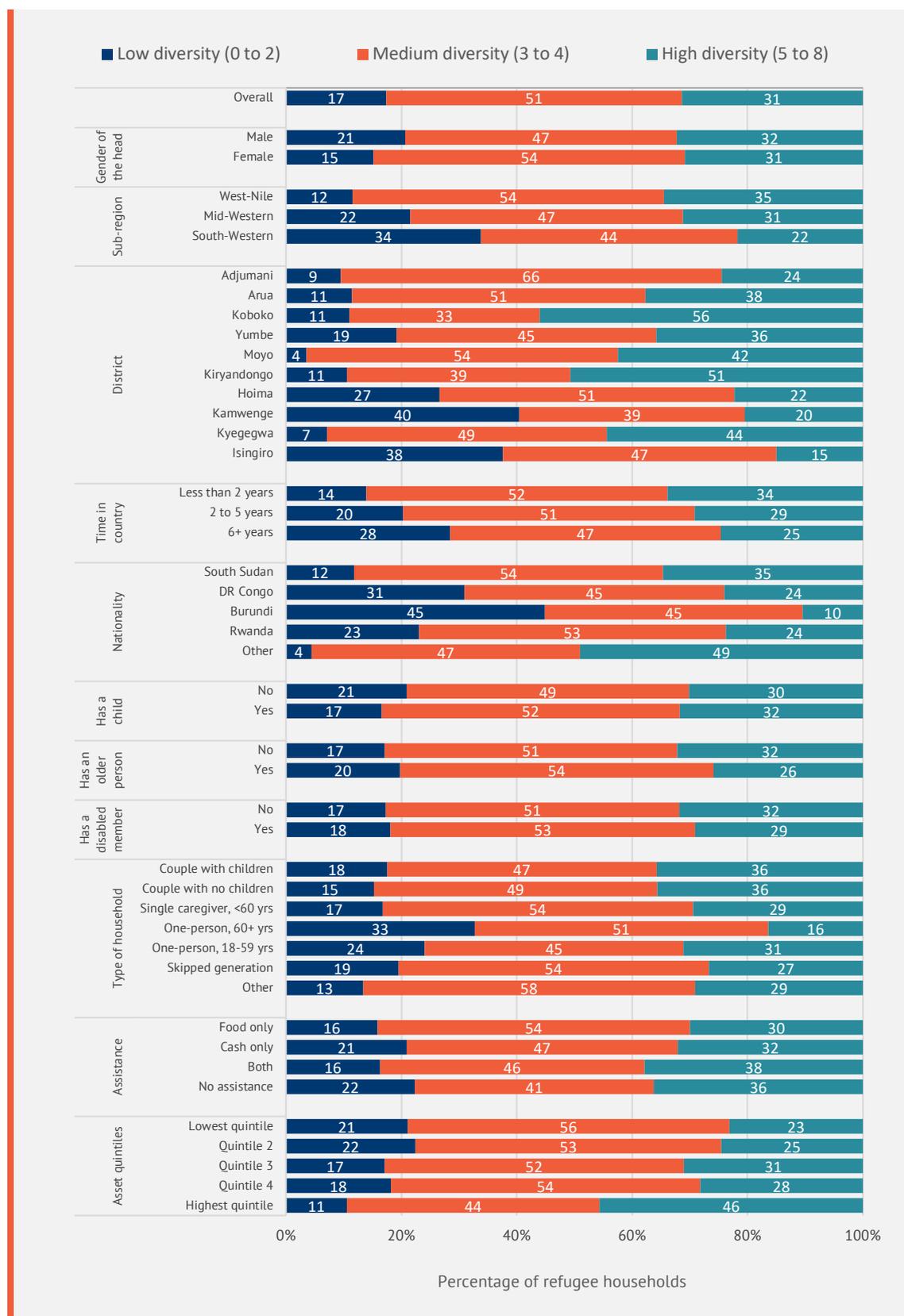


Figure A15: Distribution of refugee households by Food Insecurity Experience Scale groups and different background characteristics

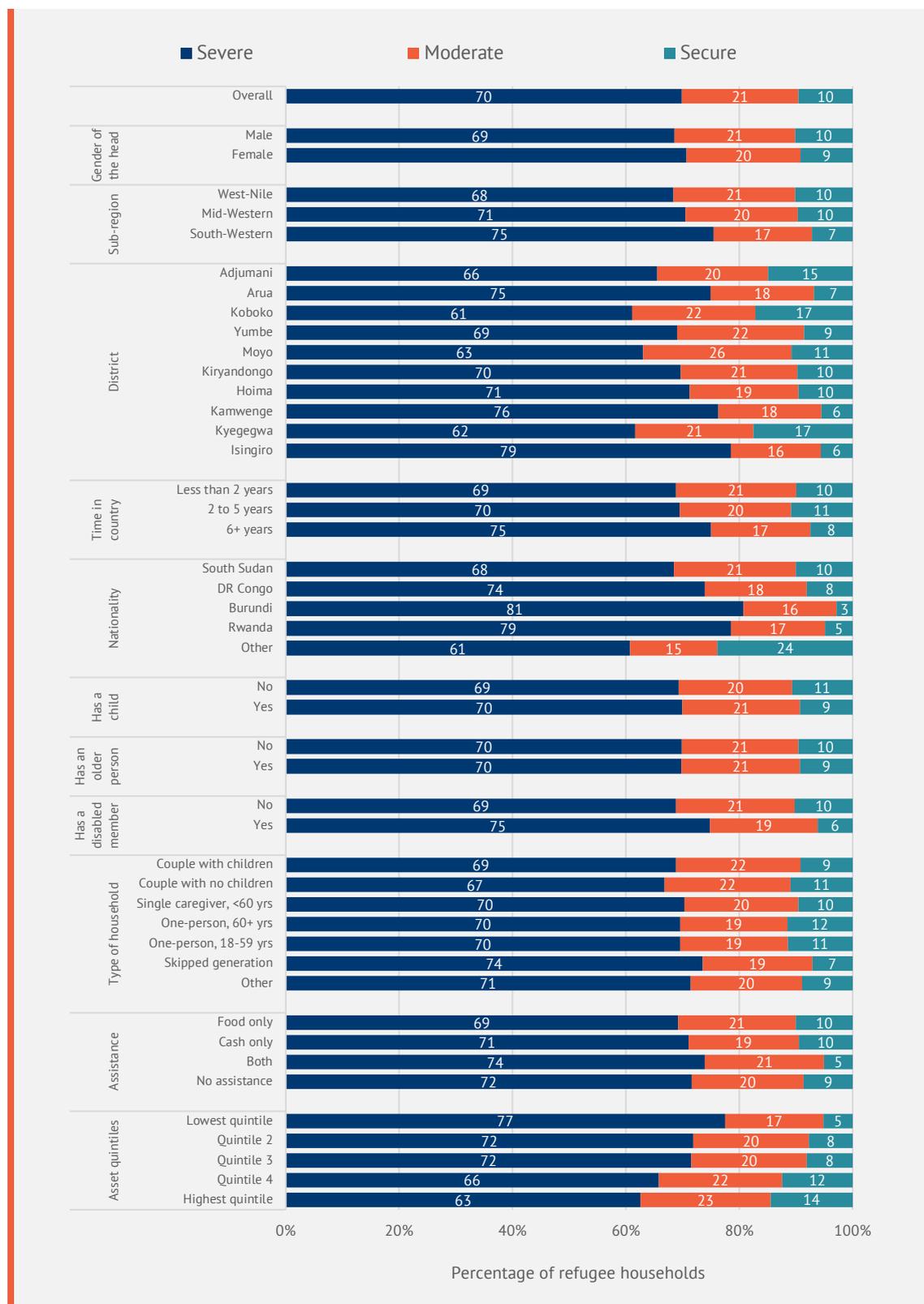
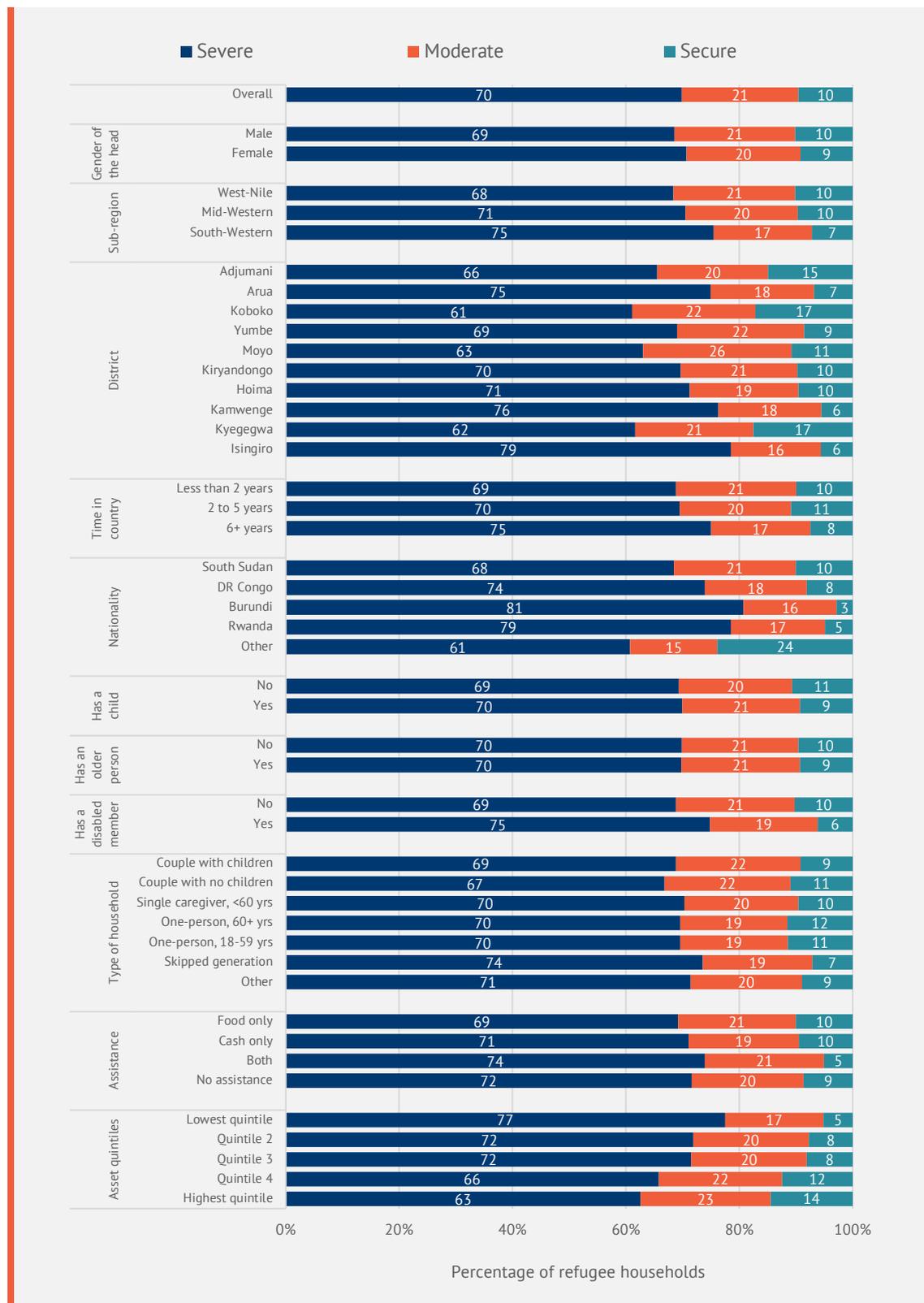


Figure A15: Distribution of refugee households by Food Insecurity Experience Scale groups and different background characteristics





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