Institutionalizing the CBMS Approach to Poverty Monitoring in Selected Countries

Proceedings of the 2003 CBMS Network Meeting

November 4-8, 2003
Hanoi, Vietnam

CBMS

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Politiques économiques et Pauvreté
Poverty and Economic Policy

De La Salle University
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for Economic and Business Studies

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The CBMS Network Meeting was organized by the CBMS Network Coordinating Team of the Angelo King Institute for Economic and Business Studies in cooperation with the National Economic University-Hanoi, Vietnam with the aid of a grant from the International Development Research Centre (IDRC), Ottawa, Canada.

Institutionalizing the CBMS Approach to Poverty Monitoring
Proceedings of the 2003 CBMS Network Meeting
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Preface

Institutionalizing and pilot testing the community-based monitoring system (CBMS) in developing countries basically sums up the theme of the various papers presented during the conference on CBMS experiences. Held on November 4-8, 2003 in Hanoi, Vietnam, the CBMS Network Meeting, which was part of the Poverty Economic Policy (PEP) Research Network Conference, brought together policy researchers and analysts as well as resource persons of the CBMS Network to present and discuss the accomplishments and recent developments in the research work as well as future activities of the network. The presentations and discussions therein are documented in this volume of proceedings.

CBMS can play a central role in helping local decisionmakers have the evidence to actually make decisions as seen in the presentations of the ongoing research in advocacy in six countries, namely, Burkina Faso, Nepal, Philippines, Senegal, Sri Lanka and Vietnam. The ongoing work in these countries is basically to scale up CBMS in their respective areas and highlight the various uses of CBMS such as the improvement of local governance and the provision of the tool for local poverty monitoring, among others.

To make sure that the CBMS will work in a particular country, it has to be pilot tested first before scaling it up in the whole country. This is the gist of presentation of the new projects in Bangladesh, Cambodia, Pakistan, Ghana and Benin. Potential partners Lao PDR and Thailand have, on the other hand, highlighted the need for a CBMS that will complement the existing poverty monitoring systems in their countries.

Other applications and uses of the CBMS have likewise been discussed during the conference and are included in this volume of proceedings. For instance, discussions on how to put a gender dimension

to some of the indicators that are being collected under the CBMS are part of the sessions. Thus, they are incorporated in this volume as well. Ditto with the discussions on how to localize the monitoring and assessment of the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs); the need to come up with the basic justification for the aggregation of multiple poverty indicators into a composite one; the use of Distributive Analysis/Analyse Distributive (DAD) software; and the conduct of a training workshop on the use of the Natural Resource Database, the software that enables an easier understanding of the data collected through mapping.

Participants in the conference meeting came from Asia, Africa, North and South America, and Europe. Selected policymakers from Vietnam, members of the donor community and nongovernment organizations also attended the conference.

The PEP Network Conference was jointly organized by the Angelo King Institute for Economic and Business Studies–De La Salle University, Manila, the Centre Interuniversitaire sur le Risque, les Politiques Économiques et l'Emploi (CIRPÉE)–University of Laval, Canada, and the National Economic University of Hanoi, Vietnam.

Program

November 4, 2003: PEP Network Plenary Sessions

Morning Session
Chair: Nguyen Van Chan

Opening Ceremony

Welcome Remarks

Dr. Nguyen Van Chan
National Economic University, Hanoi

Luc Savard
MIMAP Team Leader, IDRC

Introduction of Delegates/Overview of Meeting Program

Celia Reyes, PEP-Co-Director, CBMS Network
John Cockburn, PEP-Co-Director, MPIA and PMMA networks

Keynote Address

Tran Van Nhung
Vice Minister of Education and Training, Vietnam

Break

Plenary Session 1: Invited Speaker

Martin Rama (World Bank, Hanoi)
Globalization and Workers in Developing Countries
Discussants: Adrian Panggabean, Asian Development Bank
Ponciano Intal Jr., DLSU-Angelo King Institute for Economic and Business Studies

Lunch

Afternoon Session
Chair: Le Danh Vinh
Vice Minister of Trade-Vietnam

Plenary Session 2: Presentation from MPIA
Adjustment Costs in Labor Markets and the Distributional Effects of Trade Liberalization: Analytics and Calculations for Vietnam
Presentor: Nguyen Van Chan

Plenary Session 3: Presentation from PMMA
The Well-being of Indian Households (Book Based on MIMAP India Project)
Presentor: Basanta Pradhan
Discussant: Jean Yves Duclos
Université Laval, Canada

Break

Plenary Session 4: Presentation from CBMS
Community-Based Poverty Monitoring: A Pilot Implementation in Poverty Observatories in Vietnam
Presentor: Vu Tuan Anh

Application of MIMAP Poverty Assessment to Project Monitoring
Presentors: Flora Ann Hillis and Francis Cauchon (CECI)
Discussant: Mr. Nguyen Manh Cuong
Deputy Director
International Cooperation Department
Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs

Welcome Dinner

November 5, 2003

CBMS Session 1: CBMS Initiatives in Asia
Presentation/Discussion on Ongoing CBMS Work
Chair: Prosper Somda
Team Leader, CBMS-Burkina Faso Project

CBMS in Nepal: Collection and Use of Information
Presentor: Shiva Sharma
Discussant: Ponciano Intal Jr.

Open Forum

Dimensions of Indigenous People's Poverty (Philippines)
Presentor: Celia Reyes and Anne Bernadette Mandap
Discussant: Evan Due
Senior Program Officer, IDRC

Open Forum

Coffee Break

Community-Based Poverty Monitoring: The Sri Lankan Case
Presentor: Siripala Tellambura Hettige
Discussant: Shiva Sharma

Open Forum

Lunch

CBMS Session 2: CBMS Initiatives in Africa
Presentation/Discussion on Ongoing CBMS Work
Chair: Vu Tuan Anh
Team Leader, CBMS-Vietnam Project

Rural Poverty in Burkina Faso: The Case of the Department of Yako/ Province of Passore
Presentor: Prosper Somda
Discussant: Anyck Dauphin

Open Forum

Proposed System to Monitor Local Living Conditions in Senegal
Presentor: Momar Sylla
Discussant: Louis Marie Asselin

Open Forum

End of Session

November 6, 2003

CBMS Session 3: New CBMS Initiatives in Asia and Africa Presentation/Discussion on Ongoing CBMS Work
Chair: Momar Sylla

Local Level Poverty Monitoring System in Bangladesh: An Instituional Approach
Presentor: Ranjan Kumar Guha
Discussant:Vu Tuan Anh

Open Forum

Establishing a Commune-Based Poverty Monitoring System in Cambodia
Presentor: Sophal Chan

Open Forum

Coffee Break

A Community-Based Poverty Monitoring for Pakistan
Presentor: Rashid Memon

Open Forum

Implementation of a Community-Based Poverty Monitoring System in Ghana
Presentor: Felix Asante

Open Forum

Lunch

CBMS Session 4: Poverty Alleviation Policies and Programs
Chair: Celia Reyes

Statistical System and Poverty Monitoring in the Case of Lao PDR
Presentor: Phonesaly Souksavath
Discussant: Louis Marie Asselin

Open Forum

Coffee Break

Poverty Analysis in Thailand : Data Producer Perspectives
Presentor: Jirawan Boonperm
Discussant: Ponciano Intal Jr.

Open Forum

End of Session

November 7, 2003

CBMS Session 5: Training Workshop on CBMS Applications of Geographic Information System (GIS) and the Natural Resources Database (NRDB)

Resource Persons: Richard Alexander
Dirk Heinrichs
Jasminda Asirot

CBMS Session 6: Planning for Future Activities

November 8, 2003

Roundtable Discussion: Moving the CBMS Forward: Other Applications of CBMS

Chair: Celia Reyes

DAD Software
Jean Yves Duclos

Localizing the Millennium Development Goals
Koen Van Acoleyen

Engendering the CBMS
Swapna Mukhopadhyay

Composite Indices
Louis Marie Asselin

CBMS Steering Committee Meeting

PEP Network Plenary Session: Closing Ceremony

Farewell Cocktail

Plenary Session

Community-Based Poverty Monitoring: A Pilot Implementation in Vietnam's Poverty Observatories

Vu Tuan Anh and Vu Van Toan

Introduction

Carrying out surveys and collecting data to assess the current state of and changes in poverty, and analyzing the impacts of poverty reduction policy and solutions are important activities in the process of poverty reduction. They make the policymaking agencies, social organizations, communities and the poor themselves more aware of poverty.

Several questions on the poverty situation, trends and reasons need to be addressed. For instance, what is the poverty rate? Has the number of poor households changed? What is the poverty depth (or quality of life) of the poor and different social groups? How has the gap between different strata changed in the current economic growth? What proportion of the poor can benefit in the whole social welfare?

Theoretically, these questions can be addressed by analyzing data from regular household living standard surveys. However, in practice, the scale, content and frequency of these surveys can not fully meet the information requirement of the multidimensional approach of poverty assessment. Government agencies, social organisations, especially at the provincial and community levels, must keep a close eye on poverty, requiring other approaches to collect more data in addition to the information from household living standard surveys.

One such approach is the community-based poverty monitoring system (CBMS).

A few years ago, the CBMS was piloted by the research project on "Rural Poverty Monitoring in Vietnam" under the Micro Impacts of Macroeconomic Adjustment Policies (MIMAP) Program sponsored by the International Development Research Centre (IDRC)—the research project is called MIMAP-Vietnam. In the first stage, the research group built up and piloted a set of simple and easy-to-understand indicators for multidimensional poverty assessment in local communities. Later, the CBMS was applied on a larger scale in two districts.[1]

In 2002, in cooperation with the Managing Office of the Vietnam National Target Programme for Hunger Eradication, Poverty Reduction and Job Creation (HEPRJC), a set of poverty observatories in 20 communes of 12 provinces which represent all large regional areas of Vietnam, was selected. CBMS was applied in these communes to collect data from more than 4000 households. The data were then processed by MIMAP-Vietnam and supplied to HEPRJC. MIMAP-Vietnam and HEPRJC then decided to continue carrying out CBMS on the same households of these 20 observatories at the same time in the next two years.

This report summarizes the preliminary results of the CBMS pilot in these observatories. It consists of four parts:

- Overview of poverty in Vietnam and the current poverty monitoring systems.

[1] The "Improved Livelihoods in Poor Mountainous Communities of Thanh Hoa (ILMC)" project is one of the three components of a rural poverty reduction program undertaken by the government of Thanh Hoa Province and CIDA. The implementation approach of the Program is one of participatory development. The implementing agency is CECI. The project is being carried out in 30 communes in two mountainous and poor districts. In accordance with the requirement of CECI, MIMAP-Vietnam used CBPM in the baseline survey in these 30 communes and four other communes for comparison in 2001. In the next two years—2002 and 2003—MIMAP-Vietnam trained local people, and provided tools and advice. The local communities carried out data collection. Data were processedd by MIMAP-Vietnam and results were submitted to the PMU and local communities.

- Selection of poverty observatories and application of CBMS.
- Rough analysis of the socioeconomic situation of households and poverty situation in selected poverty observatories.
- Evaluation of the first results and comments on the prospects of CBMS in Vietnam.

Poverty in Vietnam and the current poverty monitoring systems

Overview of poverty in Vietnam

Reforms in socioeconomic policies have dramatically improved in the Vietnamese economy in the past 10 years, with an economic growth rate ranging from 7 to 8 percent annually. This rapid growth has contributed considerably to poverty reduction. Based on the poverty line defined by the Vietnam Living Standard Surveys (VLSS) (expenditure per capita per year) at 1.2 million VND in 1993, 1.8 million VND in 1998 and 2 million VND in 2002, the poverty rate declined from 58 percent in 1993 to 37 percent in 1998 to 28.9 percent in 2002. The projection was about 25 percent in 2003. In addition, per the poverty line provided by the Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs of Vietnam (MOLISA) which lists the poorest who need help from the government, the poverty rate of Vietnam was seen to have declined from 30 percent in 1992 to 17.7 percent in 1997 to about 10 percent in 2000.

The Vietnamese government's policies and mechanisms encouraging job creation by communities and by the poor themselves proved to be efficient, creating jobs for 1.2 to 1.3 million persons each year on average. These remarkable results made Vietnam one of the best countries in dealing with poverty. The achievements, however, are seen to be fragile and Vietnam still has to overcome many challenges in the poverty reduction process such as:

a) The rate of poor households and the poor is still high.

According to the poverty standard stated by MOLISA on 01 November 2000, the proportion of the poor in early 2001 is more than 17 percent

with 2.8 million poor households in the whole country. The situation varies among different provinces and ethnic groups.

The mountainous areas have the highest rate of poverty. The great majority of the poor (90%) live in the rural areas while only 10 percent of the poor live in the urban ones. About 45 percent or roughtly 1 million households, accounting for one third of the total number of poor households in the country, are ethnic minorities.

The disparity in income and living standard between rural and urban, mountainous and plain areas, and poor and rich provinces, tends to increase.

b) There still exists many poor regions, communes and villages. There are about 2,300 communes, equivalent to 22 percent of the total number of communes in the country, that are in exceptionally poor situation. In particular:

- 10 percent do not have roads in the center of the communes;
- about 20 percent do not have enough classrooms;
- 2 percent do not have clinics;
- 50 percent do not have clean water;
- 30 percent do not have electric grid line in the center of the commune;
- 50 percent have to build small irrigational works; and
- about 30 percent do not have local markets.

c) Falling into poverty again is still common.
The achievements in poverty reduction are not firm enough, as shown in the high degree of possibility for those who have risen from poverty to fall into poverty again. Vietnam is located in an area where natural calamities and floods often happen and 80 percent of the poor work in the agricultural field sector which is greatly affected by these natural calamities. As such, the risk of becoming poor again is high. Each year, there are about 20,000 - 25,000 households falling again into the poor situation.

d) Living standard of most people is low.

Vietnam is still a poor country with a low average income per capita (annual GDP per capita is about 400 USD). In the entire country, some basic needs of the inhabitants are not met adequately. On the whole, the situation may be characterized as follows:

- The proportion of rural people having access to clean water is 37 percent.
- The proportion of urban people having access to clean water is 73 percent.
- The proportion of schools having clean water and sanitary equipment is 66 percent.
- The proportion of children of age going to primary school is 95 percent.
- The proportion of children having completed primary education is 76 percent.
- The proportion of malnourished children under the age of five is 33 percent.

The objective of hunger elimination and poverty reduction should be extended, aiming not only at having sufficient food but also at meeting other needs such as clothing, housing, education and healthcare. In order to meet these targets, production must be encouraged and investment in poor villages' infrastructure should be promoted.

Existing poverty monitoring systems in Vietnam

There are currently two sources in Vietnam that provide parallel data on poverty, namely, (i) Household living standard surveys (VLSS) carried out by the General Statistics Office (GSO), and (ii) community-based poor household identification and reporting system conducted by localities under requirements of MOLISA.

a) Household living standard surveys

Household living standard surveys have been carried out by the GSO for quite some time now. Some changes in the method have been

incorporated, however, since the first VLSS in 1992-93. The basic data collected in these surveys are household income and expenditures. The two kinds of household surveys carried out by the GSO in the last several years are the VLSS and multipurpose household surveys.

VLSS was conducted three times: in 1992-1993, based on 4,000 households; in 1997-1998, based on 6,000 households; and in 2002-2003, based on 75,000 households (of which 30,000 were surveyed on both income and expenditures while the rest were focused solely on income).

Multipurpose household surveys were carried out by the GSO in 1994, 1995, 1997 and 1998 with a sample of 47,700 households in 1,590 rural communes and urban wards, representing 61 provinces and cities. The content and method of these surveys were similar to the VLSS but was funded by the government.

The household living standard surveys provided crucial general information to assess the situation of the people in the whole country as well as in each region. They also provided valuable data to estimate the poverty level of inhabitants in urban and rural areas. Many scientific studies using these data have provided useful recommendations for international sponsors to orient their strategy of sustainable poverty alleviation and hunger eradication in Vietnam.

For these surveys, the data collection is done by GSO officials in collaboration with local officials while data analysis is done solely by GSO officials because the data system and analysis techniques are quite complicated.

Albeit the usefulness of this kind of survey, it also has some disadvantages. A major one is that the survey sample does not represent provinces and social groups by occupation and ethnicity. In order to overcome this disadvantage, the third living standard survey (conducted in 2002-2003) increased the sample scope to 75,000 households, expecting that the indicator set would represent the situation of all 61 provinces. Unfortunately, this made the survey cumbersome and has the possibility of making the supply of original data to different users much more complicated.

Another disadvantage is the limitation in the participation of local people in collecting and analyzing information. They have no chance to make use of the data because of the complexity of technique. At the same time, the cost of surveys is relatively high (especially for VLSS) so they cannot be implemented regularly. Moreover, the result of data processing is released after a long period of time (1-2 years).

Of course, as sample surveys, these living standard surveys (LSS) cannot supply the exact addresses and names of poor households in each area as well as the particular information about poverty. As a result, they do not meet the information requirement of planning, implementation and monitoring of poverty alleviation in each local area.

b) Community-based identification of poor households

This kind of poverty assessment has been carried out annually by the MOLISA and its local offices at provincial and district levels, and by the commune governments since 1995. The assessment collects information on housing, property, land and above all, household annual income in order to sort out and update the list of poor households in each village and commune.

In order to carry out this survey, MOLISA states a poverty line for each period and provides the survey methods and sample questionnaires.

While preparing for the survey, communes tentatively classify households by the living standard, primarily based on individual observations of the commune's and village's leaders. All households, which have low incomes or are considered to have lower than average level of living standard, will be on the list of the survey.

The government staff and representatives of mass organizations in each village and communes directly interview the households. The main conclusion drawn from the questionnaires is the average income per capita in a month. This is the main indicator which is used by MOLISA as poverty line.

After completing the questionnaires, the Council for Poverty Alleviation in every village and commune holds a village meeting to get the residents' opinion on which household may be considered as poor.

In this meeting, the list of under poverty line-households is given an assessment by the residents' respective neighbors and living standard is made by the residents themselves. The outcome of this meeting is a final list of poor households in a particular village. The commune then gathers the lists of all villages in the commune and reports them to the district.

This kind of poverty census is not implemented annually but only in years when a new poverty line is given. Survey on income is rarely implemented and is done only when there is a household which has either just overcome poverty or fallen into poverty. The list of poor households in each village, which includes the addresses and names of all members in the poor household, is kept in three copies, namely, one for the commune, another for the district and another for the provincial government agencies. Households considered as poor receive a certificate to show that they need support in, for example, getting free health care and preferential loans, among others.

The system has several advantages, to wit:

- The communities have a good understanding of the living conditions of poor households and can thus be directly involved in analyzing the poverty causes of each household and guaranteeing the transparency and democracy in implementing policies and using resources provided for the poor. The people participate in the discussion of poverty reduction activities in their communes and villages, thereby enhancing their position in deciding community affairs. They also take part in identifying the list of poor households and as such, can easily monitor the implementation of supporting policies and ensure that the government's support goes to the right addresses.
- The expense for this system is not big because it uses local human resources and integrates the poverty monitoring activity into the responsibilities of local authorities and social organizations.

On the other hand, there are also disadvantages of the system, namely:

- The information collected in the survey is simple—mainly relating to household income—and does not meet the demand of analyzing the real situation of multidimensional poverty. Neither does it show the impacts of poverty reduction policies and solutions.
- The collected information is not processed according to strict procedure and may therefore not be accurate, especially because cadres in villages and commune without much training on the procedure are the ones who do the processing.
- The subjectivity in the identification of poor households is unavoidable. When making reports on achievements, one tends to reduce the poverty rate but when applying for support from government, one tends to raise the poverty rate.
- Due to different living conditions in various localities, some local authorities decided to use the locally defined poverty lines which differ from the MOLISA standards, thereupon creating difficulties for data synthesis and comparison.[2]

The two abovementioned systems of poverty assessment exist side by side and are used for different purposes.

For instance, the results of the living standard surveys are used in the analysis and design of macro socioeconomic policies and in international comparison. The results of community-based poverty assessment, meanwhile, are used in the daily management of the government system toward poverty reduction policies.

Because of the different methods of survey, data collection and processing as well as the different poverty lines, the estimates for the poverty rate also differ. This causes certain problems in the assessment of the poverty situation and the evaluation of poverty reduction policies. Since the second living standard survey (1997-1998), therefore, the food poverty line which is approximately equal to the standard used by

[2] For example, the poverty line used in Ho Chi Minh City is per capita income of 250,000 VND while the MOLISA poverty line for urban areas is 150,000 VND.

MOLISA was also established together with the overall poverty line. The food poverty rate is not much different from that of MOLISA.[3]

Different opinions on the figures to be used for poverty assessment, however, still exist among various authorities and individuals.

Developing a community-based poverty monitoring system (CBMS)

In Vietnam, as in other developing countries, more specific information about target groups are needed at the lower management level. Unfortunately, the reality of the situation is that such kind of information—official or otherwise—are sorely lacking.

How is Vietnam's administrative system set up in the first place? And what kind of information are needed by which level?

The structure of Vietnam's administrative system includes:

- The central government;
- 61 provinces and cities;
- 602 districts and towns;
- 10,510 rural communes and urban wards.

At the provincial and district levels, the statistics offices collect, compute and process the major indicators about socioeconomic development of provinces and districts. Such figures are hardly available at the commune level, though, where data are not kept systematically and where the statistics staff do not have enough skills to undertake such tasks.

When data for policy planning or policy impact evaluation are needed, the officers of administration or leaders of social organizations in the commune have to collect the information themselves and keep them in their diary or private profiles. But because most of the officers of administrative authorities and social organizations at the commune

[3] VLSS2 stated that food poverty rate in 1998 was 15 percent and aproximatelly 10 percent in 2002. In the same period, the poverty rate calculated based on MOLISA's poverty line was 15.7 percent in 1998 (the previous poverty line) and 11.1 percent in 2003 (the new poverty line).

level are voted by term election, a constant change of the personnel takes places and the basic data are not kept systematically.

Moreover, the results of the VLSS and other nation-wide surveys reflect the situation of the whole nation and large areas and do not serve directly the work at grassroot levels. The community-based identification of poor households, on the other hand, provides local officers with constant information about the poverty situation in their places. If the data are collected carefully and the content reflects more aspects of life, these results can therefore be used to make plans, and implement and assess poverty reduction and community development measures.

The past pilot implementation of the CBMS by MIMAP-Vietnam in some communes has shown that the collection of basic information about socioeconomic situations in general and the poverty situation in particular is very helpful to the work of local officers and nongovernmental organizations. Data are systematized at the village and commune levels and can be used immediately by local people in development planning and poverty monitoring for years.

Poverty is a multidimensional phenomenon. As such, in the experimental CBMS which was initiated by MIMAP-Vietnam, poverty is reflected comprehensively through a set of monitoring indicators that show both value indicators (income, expenditure) and basic needs of households (e.g., food intake, clothing, accommodation, transportation, access to other basic social services). The value indicators were calculated and used mainly for comparison with the two previously mentioned household surveys.

The following basic principles guide the conduct of the CBMS:

- Local people conduct the surveys themselves in the capacity of surveyors while the "external people" (government officers, researchers) are responsible for guiding and supervising them.
- The set of indicators reflects the multidimensions of poverty and should meet the immediate demand of local people for community and household data and information.
- Qualitative and quantitative methods are combined in data collection. Together with the structured interview using

questionnaire, there are also group discussions and interviews of key informants in the communities.

- In order to transfer methods, tools and survey results for local use, the design of survey tools should be simple and easy to understand, and must jibe with local knowledge levels and availability of logistical resources.

In this regard, the CBMS should address two important factors. One is to address a multidimensional approach toward poverty such that the data that it gathers must provide information on the different aspects of human well-being, causes of poverty and impacts of poverty reduction policies. And two is to provide for a set of standardized tools for data collection and processing at localities in order to ensure the quality of the data.

The first step in piloting the CBMS is to implement it in some poverty observatories to serve the data requirements of the National Programme for Hunger Eradication, Poverty Reduction, and Job Creation. The later steps would involve the expansion of the CBMS to a larger number of poverty observatories and its application in some provinces.

Implementation of community-based poverty monitoring system in poverty observatories

Poverty observatories

As seen earlier, community-based information on poverty has been based on reports from localities. However, this source cannot meet the management requirements of the poverty reduction programs in both quantity and quality terms because it has some drawbacks. For intance, the localities are not able to collect comprehensive information on well-being nor conduct poverty monitoring surveys in the same period of time to allow a comparison of results in different areas. Moreover, because the method of data collection is based on reports from grassroots officers whose qualifications are limited, the quality of the reported information is open to question.

The management offices of the Poverty Reduction Programme at the central and local levels therefore have to collect supplementary information, in particular, through small surveys and investigations in local areas. For example, the Vietnam-German Programme for Poverty Reduction Support has organized household daily income and expenditure records in some areas so that the trends of income and expenditure could be observed and assessed. However, these investigations have only been limited to small sampled areas.

For this reason, other information channels are needed to overcome these disadvantages. One of these is data collection in poverty observatories. In fact, the nature of poverty observatories is to conduct annual small surveys in some sites which were selected by random or representative methods in order to assess poverty changes and impacts of poverty reduction policies and measures on communities, poor households and the entire population.

The use of observatories, however, is not a new monitoring tool in Vietnam.[4] The Managing Office of the National Target Programme for Hunger Eradication, Poverty Reduction and Job Creation, for one, in cooperation with the SocioEconomic Development Research Center (SEDEC), the implementing institution of MIMAP-Vietnam project, has previously selected and piloted a system of poverty observatories. Poverty monitoring surveys by the observatories are planned to be conducted at the end of each year for three years (2002-2004).

The system of poverty observatories aims to:

- Observe changes in poverty in the whole country.

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[4] For the past few years, MOLISA has also piloted some observatories. In 1996-1998, MOLISA cooperated with the French Institute of Research for Development (IRD), formerly called ORSTOM, in carrying out a three-round observation of employment and human resources (labor supply) with survey sample of 1,600 households in 12 provinces. In 1999-2000, MOLISA conducted a two-round survey on labor demand.

In some localities, this technique has been applied. In recent years, Ha Tay province has selected a sample of 30 communes representing different areas in the province. Annually, a survey on household income is conducted in October. The result of this monitoring survey is an important basis for validation of poverty changes.

- Analyze the impacts of poverty reduction policies and solutions on poor households and poor communes.
- Provide information for evaluation of the National Program for Poverty Reduction.

The expected results at the central level include the piloting of tools of data collection and processing. The data reflect poverty status by communes, and by rural-urban sectors. Based on this, recommendations for use of poverty observatories after 2003 will be put forward.

At the local level, the activities will help provincial and district administrations to know how to use collected data for poverty monitoring and how to use observatories for poverty assessment.

Sampling

Between two sampling methods—a) random selection of households/individuals in regions or provinces in which the number of samples depends on total population or household number in each region or province, and b) random selection of households/individuals in several selected communes which are representatives of different community types by rural, urban, geographic, ethnic and regional characteristics—the CBMS pilot observatories selected the second method. The reason for this is the lack, until now, of information about poverty in communes of different types. Getting the data at the commune level therefore ensures a more regular supply of information. Moreover, said method is also relatively less expensive thereby enhancing the feasibility of the poverty observatory system in the future.

a) Sampling principles

The survey sample should include representatives of:

- Major geographical types of the country, in particular the delta region, high and low mountain regions, coastal region, suburban region, and small, medium and big urban centers.

- Different types of inhabitant community, in particular rural and urban areas.
- Some typical ethnic groups.

The sampling should thus combine both random and representative methods.

b) Sampling process

For the sampling procedure, the major types of communes were first identified such as communes in the delta region, high mountain region, hill and low mountain region, coastal region, suburban region, and urban region. These types are representative communities for all eight large geographical regions of the country (e.g., Northeast Mountains, Northwest Mountains, Red River Delta, North Coast, South Coast, Central Highland, Eastern South, and Mekong River Delta).

Then, one or two provinces in each region are randomly selected, followed by a random selection in each province by one or two communes based on selected types of communities. This step can be done with participation of provincial authorities to ensure typical quality for selected communes.

The next step is the selection of approximately 200 households for the survey. Sample size consists of 10-20 percent of all households in the communes. The number of selected hamlets is not too big but enough to reflect the commune's main characteristics. This step should thus be done by both random and representative methods.

Finally, based on the list of all households in the selected hamlets, 200 households are randomly chosen for the survey.

Fundamentally, these samples remain comparatively unchanged during the survey rounds in order to catch all chronological changes in poverty in households. However, the household list may change a little annually in order to catch up with population changes like immigration or emigration.

Survey tools

The major tools for data collection are the questionnaires, one set of which is meant for households and another set for communes.

Survey questionnaires can be changed. Questions about socioeconomic changes in households can be added in the next rounds. On the other hand, some questions may not be needed to be asked again.

The collected data are processed by using the EXCEL software, a popular and easy to use program, especially for people in rural localities.

Set of indicators

The two sets of questionnaires reflect the following sets of indicators:

a) Indicators of community level (9 groups):

1) *General living standard*: poverty rate, value of a working-day.
2) *Land*: agricutural land area per capita, ratio of households without or lack of land.
3) *Employment*: un- and under-employment proportion, employment proportion in agricutural and nonagricultural sectors.
4) *Health*: ratio of malnourished children, ratio of child death, capacity of commune medical station, number of medical staff per 1,000 people.
5) *Education*: illiteracy ratio, school enrolment ratio of primary-school-age children, number of teachers per 1,000 people.
6) *Living conditions*: types of house, access to clean water, types of toilets, electric power usage.
7) *Communication and information*: capacity of public cultural centers, availability of commune markets, number of telephones per 1,000 households.
8) *Participation in social activities*: number of members in political and social organizations per 1,000 people.
9) *Gender relationship*: number of female leaders and members in local administrative apparatus and in social organizations.

b) Indicators of household level (7 groups):

1) *Household's resources*: land, laborers, productive means.
2) *Employment*: sectoral structure of occupation, status of employment.
3) *Housing*: type of dwelling and availability of basic living conditions like safe water, electricity, sanitary toilets.
4) *Income*: average income per capita, household's income structure.
5) *Expenditures:* Expenses for basic needs such as food, clothing, housing, transportation, education, health care, social and community relationship.
6) *Education*: illiteracy ratio, school enrolment ratio of primary-school-age children, number of television and radio.
7) *Health*: proportion of chronically sick people, access to medical services.

For the first round of the CBMS in 2002, data reflecting these indicators were collected and their feasibility checked. For the second round of the CBMS in 2003, an integrated poverty indicator was designed and piloted.

Survey process

In the conduct of the survey, the research team worked with city/provincial/district administrative offices in explaining the purposes, methodology and contents of the CBMS and poverty observatories as well as in selecting communes and discussing with local authorities for the selection of hamlets and households.

The first round began in September-October 2002. In each commune, 5-10 local surveyors were chosen. In certain cases, district and provincial surveyors were appointed. Members of the research team played the role of survey supervisors.

Results of preliminary analysis based on the CBMS in poverty observatories

Overview of poverty observatories in 2002

A system of poverty observatories has been set up in 12 provinces and cities (Figure 1). There are 20 communes, 17 of which are rural communes and three are urban wards (see Table 1 for the communes classification by geographical type). There are 4,029 households in the sample, with 19,696 people, of which 78.5 percent are Kinh ethnic (majority ethnic) and 21.5 percent belonging to minority ethnics. The ethnic groups include: Thai, Muong, Dao, Khang, San Diu, Hoa and Ede. More characteristics about the survey areas are found in Table 2.

Most of the surveyed communes are administrative units that were established years ago. Only a number of communes in the Central Region and the South Region were established recently (from the 1980s up to now) such as Tan Thanh C. (Go Cong D., Tien Giang P.) in 1979, Dong Hoa C. (Thong Nhat D., Dong nai P.) in 1994, Ea Tar in 1995 and Tan An ward (Hoi An town, Quang Nam P.) in 1999.

The average number of households in each commune is between 1,000 and 2,000. However, some communes such as Xuan Phuong C. (Tu Liem D., Ha Noi), Tan Kien C. (Binh Chanh D., Hochiminh City), Tan Thanh C. (Go Cong Dong D., Tien Giang P.), have about 2,500 households. Tam Anh commune (Nui Thanh D., Quang Nam P.) has the exceptionally large number of households of 3,469.

There is only one commune of the "extremely poor" status among those surveyed. This commune is supported by Program 135 and tentatively listed together with four other communes as "poor communes" by the National Target Program for Hunger Eradication and Poverty Reduction.

Socioeconomic situation of the households

Main resources of households

(1) Population

A total of 4,029 households were surveyed, of which 3,417 are in rural areas and 612 in urban areas, respectively accounting for 84.4

Figure 1. Location of Poverty Observatories in Vietnam

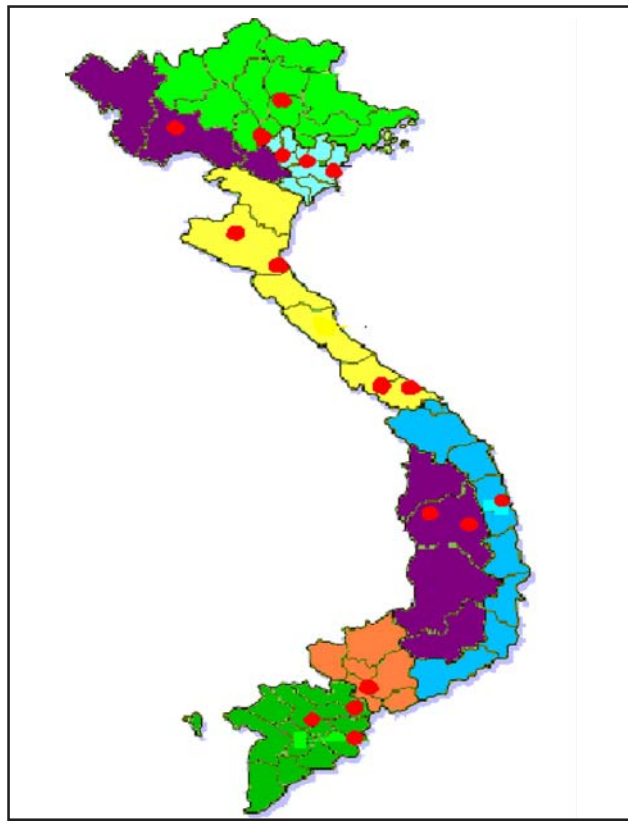

Table 1
Classification of Communes by Geographical Types and Regions

	Commune type / Region	Hill and low mountains	High mountains	Delta	Coastal	Sub-urban	Urban ward	Total
1	Northeast Mountains	1						**1**
2	Northwest Mountains		1					**1**
3	Red River Delta	1		1	1	2	1	**6**
4	North Coast	1		1				**2**
5	South Coast			1			1	**3**
6	Central Highland		2					**2**
7	Eastern South	1				1	1	**3**
8	Mekong River Delta			1	1			**2**
	Total	**4**	**3**	**4**	**3**	**3**	**3**	**20**

Table 2
Survey Areas
(Commune = C., Urban Ward = W., District = D., Province, P.)

	Type of commune	Number of surveyed households	Number of surveyed people
TOTAL	**20 communes**	**4029**	**19696**
The North of Vietnam (10 C./W.)			
1. Thanhhoa P. (2 C.): Ha Duong C., Ha Trung D. Thach Dong C., Thach Thanh D.	Delta Low mountains	210 210	819 999
2. Thai Nguyen P. (1 C.) Ban Dat C., Phu Binh D.	Low mountains	202	1088
3. Ha Tay P. (3): Dai Yen C., Chuong My D. Phu Man C., Quoc Oai D. Duong Lam C., Son Tay Town	Delta Low mountains Sub-urban	202 179 210	917 823 946
4. Hai phong (1 C., 1 W.) An Bien W., Le Chan D. An Lu C., thuy Nguyen D.	Medium city Coastal	211 200	839 981
5. Son La P. (1 C.) Chieng Bom C., Thuan Chau D.	High mountains	204	1261
6. Ha Noi (1 C.) Xuan Phuong C., Tu Lien D.	Sub-urban	200	874
The Central Park of Vietnam (5 C.)			
7. Dak Lak P. (2C.) Ea Drong C., Cu M'Ga D. Ea Tar C., Cu M'Ga D.	High mountains High mountains	200 200	1187 1117
8. Quang Nam P. (1 C., 1 W.) Tam Anh C., Nui Thanh D. Tan An, Hoi An Town	Delta Small city	200 200	946 876
9. Khanh Hoa P. (1 C.) Ninh Ich C., Ninh Hoa D.	Coastal	200	1010
The South Part of Vietnam (5C./W.)			
10. Hochiminh City (1 C., 1 W.) Tan Kien C., Binh Chanh D. Ward No. 25, Binh Thanh D.	Sub-urban Big city	200 201	940 1091
11. Tien Giang P. (2 C.) Thanh Tri C., Go Cong Tay D. Tan Thanh C., Go Cong Dong D.	Delta Coastal	200 200	961 956
12. Dong Nai P. (1 C.) Dong Hoa C., Thong Nhat D.	Low mountains	200	1065

percent and 15.2 percent of the total. The total number of surveyed people is 19,710. Nearly 86 percent (85.8%) of the surveyed population live in rural areas while 14.2 percent live in urban areas. This ratio is different from the general rural-urban structure of the whole country which is 75.6 percent in rural areas and 23.5 percent in urban areas, as stated by the National Population Census on January 1, 1999. This possibly makes the percentage of poor households of the surveyed communes higher in reality inasmuch as most of the poor households live in rural areas.

Population structure by sex. There are 96 men to 100 women, almost similar to the sex structure of the whole country (97 men to 100 women) announced by the 1999 National Population Census. The percentage of Kinh people is 78.2 percent while the ethnic minorities is 21.9 percent. This is almost equal to the percentage of ethnic minorities in the whole country's population, according to the 1999 National Population Census.

The main features of the surveyed population are similar to those of the whole country's population (Table 3).

On average, there are about 5 persons in each of the surveyed households. Households in rural, urban, mountainous and low mountainous areas have 5 people each. Households in the delta areas are the smallest with only 4 people in each household. These figures

Table 3
Ethnic Structure of the Surveyed Population

		Percentage of Kinh people (%)	Percentage of ethnic minorities (%)
	Total	**78.42**	**21.58**
	Rural area	74.98	25.02
	Urban area	99.11	0.89
1	Delta	99.92	0.08
2	Suburban	100.0	0.00
3	Coastal	99.32	0.68
4	Low mountains	60.96	39.04
5	High mountains	25.71	74.29

(Table 4) reflect the acknowledged results of family planning in different areas during the last decades.

(2) Land

Land is regarded as the most basic means of production for the rural population. In rural areas, land per capita (including land for living and cultivation) is 1,044m2, of which agricultural land per capita is 735m2.

There are approximately 14 percent of households that possess very little land (360m2 and less per person). It is not a coincidence that this number is close to the rate of poor rural households published by MOLISA. Lack of cultivation land is after all one of the reasons that breeds poverty (Table 5).

In the delta regions, the rate of households with very little land is actually lower than that in the midland and mountainous areas, even when the area of land per head in the delta regions is much lower. This proves that land allocation in the delta regions is more equal.

(3) Productive means

In rural areas, the value of productive means per household is approximately 2.9 million Dong as shown in Table 6. The value of productive means owned by households living in the coastal area ranks highest among all other regions because they own high-valued

Table 4
Households and People Classified by Areas and Types of Communes

	Types of communes	Household		Population	
		Number of households	%	Number of people	%
	Total	**4029**	**100.00**	**19,696**	**100.00**
	Rural area	3417	84.81	16,890	85.76
	Urban area	612	15.19	2,806	14.24
1	Communes in delta area	812	20.15	3,643	18.49
2	Communes in suburban area	610	15.14	2,760	14.01
3	Coastal communes	600	14.89	2,947	14.96
4	Communes in hill and low mountainsous area	791	19.63	3,975	20.18
5	Communes in high mountainous area	604	14.99	3,565	18.12

Table 5
Land Per Capita in Different Regions (m2)

		Total land area per capita	Agricultural land	Forestry land	Residential land and garden	Rate of household with little land (<360m2/person)
	Total	901	632	35	213	–
	Rural area	1044	732	41	244	13.79
	Urban area	39	12	0	27	–
1	Delta	1171	695	3	444	4.31
2	Suburban	712	592	0	106	12.13
3	Coastal	491	328	34	75	31.00
4	Low mountains	1145	712	86	325	15.30
5	High mountains	4941	1247	670	194	9.12

Table 6
Productive Means Owned by Household

		Total land value per household (TriÕu ®)	Rate of household with little land (<360m2/person)							
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Rural area	2,886	22.19	1.49	3.34	19.4	2.28	0.82	2.90	1.79
1	Delta	1,387	10.84	0.37	1.85	22.17	1.48	0.62	0.74	2.34
2	Suburban	1,728	24.92	0.16	0.66	28.85	0.98	0.66	0	0
3	Coastal	6,432	0.50	0.17	1.0	1.0	1.33	0	0	6.67
4	Low mountains	2,485	51.2	0.38	0.88	038.05	3.79	2.20	2.65	0.25
5	High mountains	3,072	18.24	7.13	13.6	0.33	3.65	0.5	11.94	0

Legend: Types of productive means owned by households are defined as:

1 = Buffaloes, coss, horses for ploughing
2 = Big tractor (> 15 CV)
3 = Small tractor (< 15 CV)
4 = Rice thresher
5 = Rice mill
6 = Animal food processing machine
7 = Electric generator, small hydroelectric generator
8 = Motor boat, ship

instruments such as boats and fishing nets. The value of productive means of households living in the high mountainous areas ranks second because of the many animals they own (namely buffaloes, cows, horses). The valuable productive means commonly found in all households are animals that are used for ploughing and rice threshers.

(4) Labor and employment

Laborers in agriculture, forestry and fishery—the main source of income for rural inhabitants—account for 46.9 percent of the total number of laborers. Nonagricultural sectors attract a low percentage of laborers while 1.94 percent of the population work in state management offices (Table 7).

The percentage of still studying people (at educational institutions) ranges from a third to a fourth of the whole surveyed population. On

Table 7
Household Size and Population Structure by Main Occupation

		Number of Persons per HH	Number of Laborers per HH	Structure of Population by Main Occupation (% in total surveyed population)*						
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Total	4.89	1.28	40.42	2.95	0.59	0.39	4.77	3.60	27.70
	Rural area	4.94	1.36	46.86	2.56	0.47	0.18	2.72	1.94	28.07
	Urban area	4.58	0.81							25.52
1	Delta	4.49	0.95	55.15	1.32	0.27	0.11	2.33	2.09	25.28
2	Suburban	4.52	0.76	43.19	7.93	0.69	0.43	1.99	4.89	23.84
3	Coastal	4.91	1.42	35.43	1.15	0.44	0.31	4.28	1.56	25.86
4	Low mountains	5.03	1.44	48.00	1.36	0.93	0.15	4.81	1.01	30.62
5	High mountains	5.92	2.35	46.47	2.18	0.03	0.00	0.06	0.87	33.17

**Legend: Main sectors of occupation:*

1 = Agriculture, forestry and fishery
2 = Industry, handicraft
3 = Construction
4 = Transportation
5 = Trade and services
6 = Public services
7 = Studying

average, 27.7 percent of the surveyed population are still studying. The percentage of studying people in midland, low and high mountainous areas is the highest (30.6% to 33.2%) because of the high percentage of young population (for more details, see the section on Education).

Housing and living conditions

(1) Housing

Besides land, the house is considered as the most valuable asset owned by households. In rural areas, Table 8 shows that over one fourth of the total households live in permanent houses (such as multi-storey house, one-storey brick house). Over half of the households live in semipermanent house (wood house, permanently-roofed house). The rest (20%) of the households are homeless or live in temporary or wrecked houses built from bamboo. The above figure almost equals the current poverty rate, implying that the figure showing the number of people living in temporary houses could reflect the poverty rate.

Table 8
Types of Housing (% of households)

		1	2	3	4	5
	Total	**4.11**	**24.45**	**51.69**	**18.92**	**0.82**
	Rural area	1.72	24.99	51.56	20.81	0.91
	Urban area	17.94	21.32	52.45	7.95	0.34
1	Delta	0.49	24.97	62.36	11.69	0.49
2	Suburban	5.24	45.50	41.08	8.02	0.16
3	Coastal	1.49	27.65	47.35	22.19	1.31
4	Low mountains	1.64	19.97	57.14	20.86	0.38
5	High mountains	0.17	8.14	44.52	44.68	2.49

**Legend: Types of housing:*

1 = Multi-storey permanent house
2 = One-storey permanent house
3 = Semi-permanent house
4 = Temporary house, tent
5 = No owned house

Among the poor households, the number of households living in temporary or wrecked house is quite high at 37.4 percent. The number of households living in wrecked houses in high mountainous areas reaches nearly 50 percent, the highest of all, followed by that of the midland, low mountainous area and coastal areas (38%-39%).

(2) Durable consumption goods

Durable consumption goods bear great value and reflect the living standard of households. The possession of more valuable durables shows the increase in the living standard. For the poor people, the possession of some durable consumption goods means that they have acquired their basic needs besides food and housing. In today's world, the basic needs also include communication and access to information. Therefore, lacking such means to fulfill these demands is equivalent to being poor. The indicators that reflect the lack of basic means of transportation (in Vietnam, it is bicycle and motorcycle) and the lack of basic means of communication (like television set and radio) could be considered as indicators of poverty rate and poverty depth of households (Table 9).

Regarding the basic need in transportation/communication, motorcycle has become a popular means of transportation in Vietnam in recent years. About 37 percent of households living in rural areas and 77 percent of households living in the urban areas own at least one motorcycle. On the average, 43 percent of the households have a motorcycle, or one motorcycle for every two households. The highest rate of households without any means of transportation still belongs to those living in the high mountainous area (57.4%) and the coastal area (20.8%). The above means of transportation are not popular in these two regions due to their terrain and road quality.

The number of other household goods owned also indicate that the living standard in mountainous and coastal areas is still very low. The living condition for people in the suburbs, meanwhile, is quite high and ranks next only to that in cities. The living condition in the delta region is better than that in the mountainous areas. However, some

Table 9
Household Possession of Durable Consumption Goods
(% of households)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	Total	29.25	14.25	55.51	25.70	10.55	13.56	43.02	76.79	18.15	14.25	4.99	3.33
	Rural area	27.49	16.25	49.09	19.82	9.16	6.59	36.94	76.55	10.22	6.50	0.73	0.59
	Urban area	39.05	3.10	91.34	58.50	18.30	52.45	76.96	78.10	62.42	57.52	28.76	18.63
1	Delta	32.76	14.53	44.70	11.33	8.62	3.69	24.63	91.38	3.45	3.45	0.12	0.25
2	Suburban	25.08	11.31	78.69	30.33	14.43	16.23	53.11	86.23	23.77	14.75	2.62	0.82
3	Coastal	27.0	7.83	56.33	29.67	9.33	7.33	31.83	68.33	15.33	10.67	0.83	1.50
4	Low mountains	28.70	24.53	46.90	21.49	5.94	6.07	48.17	90.27	9.36	4.17	0.25	0.13
5	High mountains	21.72	21.06	20.73	8.62	8.62	0.66	27.53	36.98	1.66	1.16	0.17	0.50

**Legend: Type of durables households owned:*

1 = Radio receiver
2 = White-black tv
3 = Color tv
4 = VDR, VCD, DVD
5 = Sewing machine
6 = Refrigerator
7 = Motocycle
8 = Bicycle
9 = Gas cooker
10 = Telephone
11 = Washing machine
12 = Water heater in washroom

household goods owned by the people living in the delta region are of the same or a bit better quality compared to that owned by households in mountainous areas. This shows that the living conditions in some delta regions are still difficult.

Comparing with the results of the VLSS3, the percentage of households in the CBMS survey that owns some typical durables in 20 poverty observatories is higher than in VLSS3, albeit not significantly (Table 10).

(3) Electricity

The number of households using electricity in the rural areas is 84 percent, in which the electricity is mostly supplied by the national grids. While most of the households in the delta region have access to electricity, only 37 percent of households in the high mountainous areas have access to the national electricity network. In the low mountainous areas, on the other hand, 77 percent have access to electricity (Table 11).

Table 10
Comparison of Household Durables in VLSS3 and CBMS
(% of households)

	Color tv set		Radio Receiver		Motocycle	
	VLSS3	CBMS	VLSS3	CBMS	VLSS3	CBMS
Total	52.73	55.51	27.68	29.25	32.33	43.02
Rural	43.61	49.09	27.25	27.49	24.51	36.94
Urban	81.21	91.34	29.02	39.05	56.73	76.96

Source of data: General Statistics Office - "Results of VLSS in 2002 (Some major indicators)". Hanoi June 2003.

Table 11
Sources of Electricity Households Used (%)

		1	2	3	4
	Total	84.18	1.65	0.38	13.79
	Rural area	81.31	1.95	0.44	16.29
	Urban area	100	0	0	0
1	Delta	97.87	0	0	2.13
2	Suburban	98.85	0	1.15	0
3	Coastal	92.4	0	0	7.6
4	Low mountains	76.71	0.13	0	23.16
5	High mountains	37.04	10.8	1.33	50.83

**Legend: Sources of electricity:*

1 = National grid
2 = Mini hydroelectric generator
3 = Electric generator, accumulator
4 = Having no electricity

For the poor, the number of households with no electricity is still high. It is 62.2 percent in the high mountainous area, 42.8 percent in midland and low mountainous area and 19.9 percent in the coastal area. In short, over 37 percent of the poor households do not have electricity.

Again, comparing the results with those of VLSS3, the percentage of households in the CBMS survey that have electricity in 20 poverty observatories is similar (Table 12).

Table 12
Comparison of Availability of Electricity in VLSS3 and CBMS
(% of households)

	% of Households Having Electricity		% of Poor Households Having Electricity	
	VLSS3	CBMS	VLSS3	CBMS
Total	86.0	86.21	72.2	75.75
Rural	82.7	83.70	–	62.67
Urban	–	100.0	–	–

Source of data: General Statistics Office - "Results of VLSS in 2002 (Some major indicators)". Hanoi June 2003.

(4) Safe water

At present, the concept of "clean/safe water" is not clearly indicated in reality due to numerous diversified sources and varied quality of water being used by the households for drinking and washing. In the survey, therefore, clean water includes water from the following sources: tap water, water contained in public tanks, rainwater, water from drilled well, dug well, and treated stream, river and pond water. Only untreated water from stream, river, pond and lake is regarded as unclean water. Based on this definition, only 1.34 percent of the whole surveyed population in general and 1.58 percent of rural inhabitants in particular use unclean sources of water for drinking.

As seen in Table 13, the main source of water for drinking in the rural areas come from dug wells. In some regions, especially the delta and coastal areas, water from dug well is not clean because it comes from low-level groundwater that contains a lot of contaminants. In some regions, it is even polluted by living and industrial waste water. If this is considered unclean water, then more than half of the population do not have clean water for drinking.

Clean water for bathing and washing is also a problem for rural dwellers. In general, over 12 percent of rural dwellers use water from streams, rivers and ponds for bathing and washing.

Comparing with results of the VLSS3, the percentage of households that have safe water for drinking in 20 poverty observatories is a bit higher.

Table 13
Sources of Water for Drinking and Washing (% of households)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Total	15.81	2.81	16.80	14.96	43.99	4.30	1.34
	Rural area	1.82	3.13	19.8	16.81	51.80	5.07	1.58
	Urban area	94.25	0.99	0	4.6	0.16	0	0
1	Delta	0.12	0.12	33.50	19.95	45.07	0	1.23
2	Suburban	0	5.08	0.82	59.67	34.43	0	0
3	Coastal	9.98	3.33	62.23	1.66	18.47	3.83	0.5
4	Low mountains	0.13	0	3.03	4.05	91.28	0.13	1.39
5	High mountains	0	9.15	0.17	1.0	59.9	24.79	4.99
	Washing water							
	Total	16.02	2.51	0.72	15.57	49.34	5.22	10.62
	Rural area	2.05	2.78	0.85	17.53	58.12	6.15	12.51
	Urban area	94.25	0.99	0	4.60	0.16	0	0
1	Delta	0	0	0.12	22.96	49.75	0.12	27.04
2	Suburban	0	5.08	0.66	59.84	34.43	0	0
3	Coastal	11.5	3.33	0	1.83	50.67	7.67	25.0
4	Low mountains	0.13	0	2.91	3.79	89.25	0.51	3.41
5	High mountains	0	7.32	0.17	1.0	59.9	26.46	5.16

**Legend: Sources of water:*

1 = Tap water in household
2 = Water from public tanks
3 = Rainwater
4 = Water from drilled well
5 = Water from dug well
6 = Treated stream, river and pond water
7 = Untreated stream, river and pond water

(5) Environmental hygiene

Environmental hygiene is shown by the ratio of households having sanitary lavatory. The two types of lavatory that are considered as sanitary are the flush toilet with septic tank and the double vault compost latrine. The rest are not sanitary.

Of the surveyed households, only about 40.9 percent have sanitary lavatories of which 31 percent are in the rural areas and 97 percent, in urban areas.

The proportion of households that do not have a lavatory is very high: 31.5 percent in the coastal regions, 21.3 percent in the delta region and 17.5 percent in the high mountainous region (Table 14).

Table 14
Types of Lavatories (%)

		1	2	3	4	5	6
	Total	18.0	22.93	38.31	7.07	1.32	12.37
	Rural area	8.16	22.77	45.16	8.33	1.26	14.32
	Urban area	73.07	23.81	0	0	1.64	1.48
1	Delta	4.33	19.70	30.42	23.65	0.74	21.26
2	Suburban	15.46	59.38	12.66	8.55	0.99	2.96
3	Coastal	18.53	19.37	20.20	5.51	4.84	31.55
4	Low mountains	4.30	16.06	78.0	0.76	0	0.88
5	High mountains	0.67	2.0	79.37	0.17	0.33	17.47

**Legend: Types of lavatories:*

1	=	Flush toilet with septic tank	4	=	Toilet on fish pond
2	=	Double vault compost latrine	5	=	Toilet on river, stream
3	=	Simple ground toilet	6	=	No owned toilet

These figures show that the campaign to encourage people to create a hygienic living environment through having sanitary lavatories has gained only limited success.

Household income

CBMS is an approach that assesses living standard and poverty status based on basic needs (clothing, food, education, health care, among others). It analyzes mainly in-kind indicators that reflect the level of satisfied basic needs. The approach matches the target of assessing poverty by its nature, which means "unable to meet people's basic and essential needs," and assesses living standard in the context of self-subsistence, low market orientation and low monetarized economy.

However, the methodology of poverty assessment that is based on aggregated value indicators like income and expenditures is at present applied on a wide range in Vietnam as in other countries. The indicator that serves as the major and unique criterion of MOLISA's poor households is based on monthly income per capita while the indicator of living standard classification and poverty determination by the VLSS is based on household expenditure.

Because of this, collecting data and analyzing income and expenditure indicators are therefore also used in CBMS in order to compare its results with existing poverty assessment systems in Vietnam such as the VLSS.

(1) Total household income

Average annual income per household reaches 13 million VND. It counts for 23 million VND in urban areas and only near half as much as that—11.1 million VND—in rural areas. However, monthly average income per capita in urban areas is 2.5 times higher than in rural areas (418,000 VND and 192,000 VND, respectively) because household size in rural areas remains larger than in urban areas.

Income differences are large in terms of regions. Average income per capita in urban areas is 1.15 times as much as in suburban areas, 2.1 in coastal, 2.46 in delta, 2.77 in midland, 4.45 in high mountainous and 2.24 in the whole rural area.

Annual per household income difference between the lowest (high mountainous region) and the highest (urban region) is 3.42 times while per capita income difference between them is 4.42 times. In rural areas alone, these gaps between the high mountainous region and the suburban area are 2.96 (per household) and 3.88 (per capita), respectively (Table 15).

Average monthly income per capita in CBMS differs from that in VLSS3. Income surveyed in VLSS3 is 1.2-1.5 times as much as that in the sample of 20 poverty observatories as shown in Table 16.

(2) Household income structure

The economic structure in the suburban region has experienced relative progress, with a nearly 70 percent ratio of off-farm turnover. Economic structure in the coastal region remains fair with the off-farm rate of approximately 63 percent. However, turnover from agriculture in other regions (delta, midland, low and high mountainous areas) is still the highest while off-farm activities have less turnover rate at 20-42 percent.

Table 15
Average Income of Household in a Year and Per Capita Income in a Month

		Income Per Household in a Year	Compared with the Lowest	Per Capita Income in a Month	Compared with the Lowest
	Total	12.640.336	1.88	215.368	2.27
	Rural area	10.781.689	1.60	181.663	1.92
	Urban area	23.011.706	3.42	418.246	4.42
1	Delta	9.307.070	1.38	172.874	1.83
2	Suburban	15.813.392	2.35	291.249	3.08
3	Coastal	13.027.627	1.94	221.032	2.33
4	Low mountains	9.797.035	1.46	162.462	1.72
5	High mountains	6.727.452	1.00	94.669	1.00

Table 16
Comparison of Per Capita Monthly Income in VLSS3 and CBMS ('000 VND)

	CBMS	VLSS 3	Comparison (VLSS3/CBMS)
All the country	289.7	356.8	1.23
Rural	418.2	625.9	1.50
Urban	186.7	274.9	1.47

Source of data: General Statistics Office - "Results of VLSS in 2002 (Some major indicators)". Hanoi June 2003.

In the agricultural, forestry and fishery sectors, cultivation accounts for 26.4 percent of total household turnover. In coastal and suburban communes, cultivation contributes only 10-13 percent to total turnover but accounts for a significant rate in the agriculture, forestry and fishery sectors.

Animal husbandry remains at a high ratio. In rural areas generally, animal husbandry makes up 16.3 percent of total household turnover and 34 percent of turnover from agriculture, forestry and fishery. Despite the potential of animal husbandry, the household economy mainly depends at present on coffee-monoculture. As such, animal husbandry accounts for a low ratio in household turnover. Generally speaking,

except for the communes, there are positive signs of animal husbandry becoming one major sector in the rural areas. It diversifies the agricultural production structure and creates many jobs for rural inhabitants.

In urban areas, household income from salary and state allowance accounts for about 30 percent of total household income. Foreign investment sector accounts for a significant income proportion at 10 percent in big cities (Ho Chi Minh City). It nonetheless remains miniscule in small- and medium-sized towns.

Living expenditures

(1) Total living expenditures

On average, a household in rural areas spends 6.8 million VND annually and in urban areas, 9.8 million VND—1.4 times more than that in rural areas. Expenditure difference between the highest (urban households) and the lowest (high mountain households) remains at 2.15 times. In rural areas alone, this gap between the highest (coastal households) and the lowest (high mountain households) is 1.94 times. Households in delta, coastal, midland and low mountain areas have nearly the same expenditure level and 1.3 times as much as those in high mountain areas.

Average per capita monthly expenditure is 115,000 VND for the whole sample, 105,000 VND in rural areas and 177,000 VND in urban areas—a gap of 1.7 times. Table 17 gives more details.

Average monthly expenditure per capita in the CBMS differs from that in VLSS3. Expenditure surveyed in the VLSS3 is 2.0-2.5 times as much as that in the sample of 20 poverty observatories. This is because income in VLSS3 is 1.2-1.5 times higher than in CBMS (Table 18).

(2) Expenditure structure

For the whole surveyed sample of 20 poverty observatories, expenditure for food needs accounts for 45.6 percent of the most important household's expenditures. Spending on food makes up more than 55 percent in rural areas and only 43.6 percent in urban areas. In rural

Table 17
Household Expenditure in a Tear and Per Capita in a Month (VND)

		Household Expenditure in a Year	Compared to the Lowest	Per Capita Expenditure in a Month	Compared to the Lowest
	Total	6.759.030	1.49	115.161	1.81
	Rural area	6.221.415	1.37	104.826	1.64
	Urban area	9.759.838	2.15	177.388	2.78
1	Delta	5.897.153	1.30	109.536	1.72
2	Suburban	8.788.871	1.94	161.872	2.54
3	Coastal	6.029.121	1.33	102.293	1.60
4	Low mountains	6.007.906	1.33	99.628	1.56
5	High mountains	4.532.217	1.00	63.794	1.00

Table 18
Comparison of Per Capita Monthly Expenditure in VLSS3 and CBMS ('000 VND)

	CBMS	VLSS 3	Comparison (VLSS3/CBMS)
All the country	115.2	268.4	2.33
Rural	177.4	459.8	2.59
Urban	104.8	210.4	2.01

Source of data: General Statistics Office - "Results of VLSS in 2002 (Some major indicators)". Hanoi June 2003.

areas, food accounts for a larger proportion because the total expenditure is lower although the expenses for food is still lower in comparison with urban areas, if counted by absolute value.

Households in urban areas spend twice on education as their counterparts in the rural areas. Spending on health care, housing, recreation and entertainment in urban areas is also much higher in terms of both structure and absolute value.

Spending for family occasions and social communication in rural areas makes up 12.43 percent, higher than that in urban areas. This is something to be noted because although the rural income is lower, spending on funerals, death anniversaries, weddings and social communication relations is higher due to customs and habits. Sadly, however, it becomes a burden for rural households, especially those

having low income.

In general, except for suburban communes where the expenditure structure is nearly the same as in urban areas, rural regions differ, albeit not registering a big gap (Table 19).

Household savings

Household savings refer to the total turnover of households minus production spending and living expenses in a year. Households, however, have to use this amount of money on many other things such as transportation, furniture, assisting others and contribution to the community, among others. Nonetheless, if half of the amount of money which is the result of the subtraction of production spending and major living expenses from total turnover is considered as the savings of the households in a year, then on average, each household can save about 2.9 million VND per year, with urban areas saving about 6.6 million VND, rural areas, 2.3 million VND, and delta, midland and low

Table 19
Structure of Household Expenditures (%)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Total	45.57	8.16	9.50	8.59	8.44	11.24	1.02
	Rural area	55.06	8.87	7.51	7.80	7.63	11.64	0.85
	Urban area	43.62	5.66	16.55	11.42	11.31	9.81	1.63
1	Delta	54.37	11.50	6.64	7.20	5.57	12.36	1.55
2	Suburban	46.79	5.93	8.04	6.58	17.33	13.71	0.98
3	Coastal	44.79	11.66	7.14	12.84	6.35	16.36	0.28
4	Low mountains	64.39	7.95	7.70	6.0	3.64	9.16	0.69
5	High mountains	69.85	7.91	8.19	7.66	0.83	4.39	0.41

**Legend: Main items of household living expenditures:*

1 = Food
2 = Clothing
3 = Education
4 = Health care
5 = House reparation, rent
6 = Communication, family occasions
7 = Recreation, entertainment

mountains, only 1.7-1.9 million VND. Coastal areas can save 3.5 million VND while high mountain areas, only 1.1 million VND. However, if one considers the unfortunate or disastrous events that may suddenly take place, then none of these amounts of money is enough to cover the expenses. This explains why every year, the number of households falling into poverty again and households becoming poor is very high, especially in the poor regions.

Education

Benefit from social services such as education and health care is an indicator reflecting individual living standard as well as the development of human resources. Besides, the weak ability to get access to these important social services shows an important aspect of poverty situation —poverty in education and health.

(1) School enrolment

In general, there is no considerable difference in the number of students per 1,000 people across areas. The number of persons going to school in rural areas is bigger than in urban areas. In mountainous areas, too, the number is bigger than in delta areas. This shows that the population structure of rural and mountainous areas is younger than in urban and delta areas (Table 20).

There is disparity in gender. The male student rate is higher than the female's in all regions although the gap is not big.

However, regarding education levels, there is considerable disparity not only between regions but also between sexes.

At the primary school level (grades 1-5), in less developed areas such as high mountainous or coastal areas, the number of pupils over 1,000 inhabitants is quite big, even bigger than that in urban and delta areas (Table 21). As explained above, this is due to the difference in age structure in different areas. However, this rate in high mountainous and coastal areas is only higher at the primary and lower secondary (grades 6-9) school levels. From higher secondary school level (grades 10-12), the number of pupils in urban areas starts to be higher than

Table 20
Number of Students per 1,000 Inhabitants

		Total	Male	Female	Male / Female
	Total	274,25	291,77	257,35	1.13
	Rural area	276,24	292,79	260,09	1.13
	Urban area	262,30	285,39	241,54	1.18
1	Delta	236,89	249,86	224,27	1.11
2	Suburban	238,41	256,35	221,52	1.16
3	Coastal	248,05	255,97	240,22	1.07
4	Low mountains	306,67	316,40	297,11	1.06
5	High mountains	335,01	367,89	302,51	1.22

Table 21
Number of Students per 1,000 Inhabitants by Education Levels and Sex

		Primary School (grad 1-5)	Lower Secondary School (grad 6-9)	Higher Secondary School (grad 10-12)	College, University
	Total	129.89	91.26	37.87	10.05
	Rural area	137.14	94.64	34.15	5.45
	Urban area	86.24	70.92	60.23	37.78
1	Delta	95.25	85.09	44.47	4.94
2	Suburban	93.29	78.26	48.55	10.14
3	Coastal	143.54	78.72	19.00	4.75
4	Low mountains	124.53	132.08	39.75	5.79
5	High mountains	223.25	88.52	18.77	2.52

that in other areas. The less developed the area is, the smaller the number of pupils is. Therefore, in less developed areas, for children who have some education, they just finish secondary school while in other areas, they get education until the higher levels.

Although the gender equality in education in Vietnam is quite high, there is nonetheless a tendency that the higher the education level is, the less female pupils go to school compared with male pupils.

In terms of ethnic difference, Table 22 indicates that the Kinh group indeed gets the highest benefit in terms of education.

(2) Children who do not go to school

The number of children who do not go to school and of non-literate

Table 22
Percentage of Population by Education Levels and Ethnicity
(% in total surveyed population)

Education Ethnicity	Illiterate	Primary	Lower Secondary	Higher Secondary	Technical Colleges	University, High College	Total
Kinh	6.12	22.38	31.79	14.89	0.49	2.08	**77.75**
Thai	2.32	2.5	0.99	0.11	0.01	0	**5.93**
Hoa	0.01	0.09	0.1	0.03	0	0	**0.23**
Muong	0.68	1.33	3.38	0.69	0.01	0.04	**6.13**
Dao	0.25	0.34	0.08	0	0	0	**0.67**
Ede	1.92	3.22	1.21	0.14	0	0.01	**6.5**
San Diu	0.26	0.81	0.69	0.02	0	0.01	**1.79**
Khang	0.31	0.22	0.04	0	0	0	**0.57**
Others	0.01	0.41	0.01	0	0	0	**0.43**
Total	**11.83**	**31.3**	**38.29**	**15.88**	**0.51**	**2.14**	**100**

adults also shows signs of poverty in education. The rate of illiterate adults in Vietnam, however, is not high. Thus, the CBMS focused on gathering information about children who are of compulsory ages to go to school (6-15 years old) but who do not in actuality go to school. Among the survey sample, there is about 1.69 percent children of school ages (6-15) who do not go to school because either they dropped out or have never gone to school. This rate is highest in coastal areas at 4.62 percent. The next rank is in the high mountainous areas where the rate of children who do not go to school is 2.67 percent. The rate in suburban areas is the lowest at 0.5 percent.

In terms of gender, in places where there are favorable conditions for economic growth such as in urban, delta, midland and low mountainous areas, the number of girl pupils who do not go to school is higher than the number of boy pupils. In places where conditions for going to school are more difficult such as in coastal and high mountainous areas, the number of boy pupils is also higher than the number of girl pupils.

(3) Education expenses

On average, a pupil needs 478,500 VND as education expenses in a

year. In rural areas, 342,200 VND is a burden for low-income households because this amount of money is equal to more than 100 kg of rice which can sustain a person's life. In cities, the amount of money spent for a pupil is three times higher than in the countryside, about 1,343,000 VND. This figure is equivalent to one person's income.

In different areas, the education expenses are different due to (i) different living standards and prices; (ii) expenses for higher levels; and (iii) education support policies in high mountainous areas.

Health and health services

(1) Health situation

The population's health situation is shown by the number of ill people and the number of ill days in a year.

Because the living standard in urban areas is higher than in rural areas, urban households have better conditions to take care of themselves. Thus, the health of urban population is better than in rural areas.

(2) Expenses for health care

The cost for health care per capita in a year in urban areas is 3.2 times higher than in rural areas. When compared with the lowest areas—the high mountainous area—the figure of urban areas is 12.9 times higher; suburban area, 9.8 times; coastal area, 4.5 times; delta areas, 4.1 times; and midland and low mountainous areas, 2.6 times.

Poverty analysis

Identification of poor households

a) General features of poverty rate

The decision on who is poor and what the rate of poor households and poor people in a community is, can be made by many organizations using different methods. In a community, at present, there are several ways to measure poverty situation, to wit:

- People can judge themselves or their neighbors and tell whether they are in the poor household list, mainly based on qualitative

standards.

- The local authorities and mass organizations judge according to standards that they all agree to apply.
- Poverty is judged in accordance to MOLISA's procedures of household classification and identification of poor households using officially issued poverty lines.
- Poverty is judged in accordance to MOLISA's procedures of household classification, identification of poor households using, however, poverty lines that can differ depending on local situations.
- Sponsoring organizations judge poverty based on different investigation and measurement methods. Only in a few communes where there are projects of sponsor organizations can this result be seen. Normally, the scope of the survey sample is only in the place where the project operates (for example in hamlet, commune scope or only a small group of households).
- The poverty rate in national, big regions and currently in provincial level is based on the results of the Household Living Standard Surveys that were conducted by the GSO.

Households listed by commune as poor, based on MOLISA's classification and identification procedures, will be considered as "households of national poor status" and will get preferential support from government policies and poverty reduction programs.

The CBMS in observatories aims to check the number of poor households that is reported by the commune. Therefore, the poverty rate has to be calculated here by MOLISA method. The poverty line used here is the MOLISA standard, e.g., average income per capita in a month (urban 150,000 VND, rural delta and midland areas 120,000 VND, mountainous area 80,000 VND). For comparison, the poverty line of VLSS may be used to calculate the poverty rate of the survey sample.

CBMS is also collecting information on the living standard assessment of the households and the community leaders (e.g., methods 1 and 2). Thus, CBMS questionnaires contain the needed information for poverty

assessment by methods 1, 2, 3, 4 and 6.

In Table 23, the poverty rate assessed by communes is the number of households identified by the community as poor from among the total number of surveyed households. This figure may not, however, be the same as the poverty rate measured by the CBMS because the latter is calculated for the whole commune.

The comparison shows that the rate of poor households measured by the CBMS in the whole sample is different from the rate given by the commune. The difference, though, is not too big. The common poverty rate in 2002 according to CBMS is 29.43 percent, and according to the community, it is 23.96 percent. The gap is 5.5 percent.

According to CBMS, the poverty rate in rural areas is 3.75 times higher than that in urban areas, but according to the rate given by commune, the gap is 2.4 times.[5]

The poverty rates of suburban and urban communities are nearly the same in the two ways of measuring. The big disparity is in the mountainous areas, both low and high mountains, and also in the delta areas. Here,

Table 23
Rate of Poor Households Assessed by Communes and CBMS (%)

		The Rate of Poor Households in 2001 Assessed by Communes	The Rate of Poor Households in 2002 Assessed by Communes	The Rate of Poor Households Measured by CBMS	Difference of 2002 Figures
	Total	25.58	23.96	29.43	5.47
	Rural area	27.41	26.33	33.12	6.79
	Urban area	15.36	10.78	8.82	-1.96
1	Delta	25.37	26.35	35.84	9.49
2	Suburban	13.77	12.30	8.85	-3.45
3	Coastal	22.33	22.50	29.33	6.83
4	Low mountains	30.09	27.69	37.42	9.73
5	High mountains	45.51	42.52	52.16	9.64

[5] It is to be noted here that in the surveyed ward of Ho Chi Minh City (Ward No. 25, Binh Thanh District) the community assessed poverty rate was made in accordance with their locally defined poverty line (250,000 VND), instead of MOLISA's one (150,000 VND). This explained why the figure of the community is higher than the CBMS poverty rate.

the gap between the two assessments is approximately 9.5 points. In average, the gap calculated for each commune between the two assessments is 9.2 points. The CBMS poverty rate is higher than that of communities in most cases. This is the problem that should be paid more attention to in the second round of the CBMS survey in 2003.

b) The poor: Who are they?

The average size of the poor households is 5 persons similar to the average household size of the whole survey sample.

A deeper analysis of the collected data by CBMS would indicate who the poor are in different aspects: in terms of ethnicity, main occupation and some basic characteristics of the household heads (gender, education background, profession, among others).

Using MOLISA's poverty lines, CBMS has identified 1,185 poor households out of the total 4,029 surveyed households.

- *In terms of ethnicity of household heads*, the structure of poor households shows that compared with the Kinh people, ethnic minority people are poorer. While the poverty rate of Kinh households is just 25.5 percent, the rate of ethnic minority is 47 percent (Table 24).

In particular, the poverty rate of Thai households is 85.3 percent and that of the Khang is 80 percent. Both these groups are surveyed at the high mountainous commune of Chieng Bom, Thuan Chau district, Son La province.

The poverty rate of the Ede ethnic group is 49.5 percent. This group of households lives in two communes in Dak Lak province at the Central Highland. One is an exceptionally poor commune (the commune is supported by the Programme 135) and one belongs to the list of poor households (communes to be supported by the National Programme 143).

The Sandiu ethnic group surveyed in the low mountainous commune of Ban Dat, Thai Nguyen province has nearly the same poverty rate as the average rate of the whole sample. The Hoa, Dao and Muong groups have lower rates than the average one.

Table 24
Ethnic Structure of Poor Households (%)

	Number of Poor HHS	Ratio of Ethnic Poor HHs in Total Number of Poor HHS (%)	Ratio of Ethnic Poor HHs in Total Number of Surveyed HHs (%)	Ratio of Ethnic Poor HHs in Total Number of Surveyed HHs of this Ethnic Group(%)	Number of Persons in Poor HHS	Ratio of the Ethnic Poor in Total Number of the Poor (%)
Total	**1185**	**100**	**29.42**		**6116**	**100**
Of which:						
Ethnic majority (Kinh)	841	70.97	20.88	25.52	3820	62.05
Ethnic minorities	344	29.03	8.54	47.00	2336	37.95
* Thai	157	13.25	3.90	85.33	951	15.45
* Ede	95	8.02	2.36	49.48	627	10.19
* Muong	57	4.81	1.42	22.44	541	8.79
* Khang	16	1.35	0.40	80.00	89	1.45
* Sandiu	15	1.27	0.37	28.85	97	1.58
* Dao	3	0.25	0.07	15.00	21	0.34
* Hoa	1	0.08	0.02	10.00	3	0.05
* Tay	0	0	0	0	5	0.08
* Nung	0	0	0	0	2	0.03

■ *In terms of gender relation*, females make up 51.59 percent of the poor people and males, 48.41 percent. Seventy-eight percent of the heads of poor households are men while 32.4 percent are women.

■ *In terms of age of the household heads*, young households (the head of households is less than 30 years old) account for 9 percent of the poor households. The majority of heads of poor households (74%) range from 30 to 60 years old. The old household heads make up 17 percent. In households whose heads are old, it is not necessary that these old men or women take a decisive economic role. Usually, they are only registered as the head of family while the main bread earners for the whole family are the younger members.

c) The poor: How poor are they?

■ *Housing*. Nearly 48 percent of the poor households live in temporary, bamboo houses; 36 percent have semipermanent ones; and

the rest have one-story permanent ones. In sum, 84 percent of the poor households have houses of low quality. Compared to the average rate (20%) of the entire set of households in the survey sample, this rate of the poor households is 2.5 times higher.

- *Electricity*. 35.5 percent of the poor households do not have access to electricity. The average rate of total sample is 13 percent.
- *Clean water*: Three percent of the poor households are using untreated water from ponds, rivers, streams for drinking (the average rate of total sample is 1.4%). Water from dug wells (not really clean) accounts for 50 percent of total water used by poor households (while the average figure of total sample is 44%).
- *Lavatory*. Ninety-one percent of the poor households do not have sanitary lavatories. In particular, there are nearly 20 percent of poor households who do not have their own lavatories.
- *Audio, video equipment*. Eighty percent of the poor households do not have radio sets, 53 percent do not have tv sets (even black and white TV). Only 19 percent have black and white tv sets, 28 percent have color tvs and about 50 percent of the poor households do not have any audio, video equipment.
- *Private vehicle*. Twenty-seven percent of the poor households do not have any private vehicle (bicycle, motorcycle). Only 19 percent have motorcycles and 54 percent, bicycles.
- *Education*. Twelve percent of the poor households have children of school age who do not go to school. The main reason for this is due to the high cost of education. Children are also often made to stay at home to help their families.
- *Income*. On average, income per capita per month of the poor households remains approximately at 70,000 VND, equivalent to only one third of the average figure of the whole sample (216,000 VND).

In sum, the above figures show that the indicators of housing, lavatory, audio-, video-equipment, and private vehicle have close relationship with the poverty rate of households. Meanwhile, other indicators such as access to electricity and clean water depend more on the common local conditions and public capability. The conditions

of the poor as well as the nonpoor households can benefit from improvements in these public services.

d) The poor: Why are they poor?

The reasons of poverty are assessed by the poor households themselves. In the household questionnaire, each household had to give out three major reasons for their own poverty. According to their opinion, the main reason for their poverty is lack of capital (71.8%); second is the lack of knowledge and business experience (52.9%); third is the lack of labor force and numerous dependent people in the family (42.8%); and then lack of agricultural land (32%) and health reasons (26.9%) rank as fourth and fifth.

The rate of poor households who considered natural calamities, accidents and risks as main reasons of their poverty accounts only for 3 to 5 percent. Social evils such as alcoholism, addiction, gambling, among others, also lead a considerable number of urban households to poverty (4.5%).

The above results do not differ much from the last MOLISA investigations of poverty reasons.[6]

In brief, the main reason for poverty lies in the lack of production factors such as capital, land and production knowledge. The human factor (numerous children, lack of laborer, and chronic illness) represents the second reason.

Between rural and urban areas, meanwhile, the reasons for poverty differ noticeably as seen in Table 25.

The main reason for poverty in the urban areas is related to human

[6] For instance, the MOLISA's "Assessment of demand to integrate family planning into credit and savings activities" in four provinces of Yen Bai, Ninh Binh, Thanh Hoa and Can Tho in 2002 showed that the reasons of poverty are as follows: lack of capital, 48.21 percent; lack of land, 19 percent; lack of production knowledge, 16.98 percent; numerous children, 10.55 percent; illness, 8.44 percent; lack of laborer, 7.28 percent; other reasons, 1.9 percent.

The Managing Office of the National Target Program for Poverty Reduction sums up the poverty reasons in the whole country in 2001 as follows: lack of capital, 63.69 percent; lack of knowledge, 31.12 percent; lack of agricultural land, 20.82 percent; illness, 16.94 percent; numerous children, 13.6 percent; lack of laborer, 11.4 percent.

Table 25
Poverty Reasons Assessed by Poor Households (%)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	Total	52.90	18.32	71.84	32.82	1.14	6.94	2.17	24.53	2.59	26.92	0.72
	Rural area	54.22	16.44	74.22	35.11	0.89	7.22	2.22	22.89	2.67	25.44	0.44
	Urban area	34.85	43.94	39.39	1.52	4.55	3.03	1.52	46.97	1.52	46.97	4.55
1	Delta	63.55	16.82	71.50	17.29	0.47	0.00	0.00	7.48	3.74	36.45	0.00
2	Suburban	28.00	22.67	82.67	36.00	1.33	4.00	1.33	18.67	5.33	38.67	0.00
3	Coastal	31.11	26.67	83.70	40.74	0.74	0.74	1.48	31.11	1.48	32.59	1.48
4	Low mountains	63.47	16.89	77.63	29.68	0.46	0.91	7.31	29.68	4.11	18.26	0.91
5	High mountains	58.37	8.56	66.15	51.36	1.56	22.96	0.39	26.85	0.39	14.79	0.00

**Legend: Reasons for poverty:*

1 = Lack of business experience
2 = Lack of laborer
3 = Lack of capital
4 = Lack of agricultural land
5 = Lack of market for out put
6 = Unfavorable price
7 = Suffer from natural calamity
8 = Numerous dependent people
9 = Suffer from risk and accidents
10 = Regular illness, disabled, old
11 = Suffer from social evil, addiction, gambling

resources like numerous dependents, lack of laborers, and chronic illness. In rural areas, meanwhile, production factors play the most important role. Therefore, poverty reduction measures in urban areas should focus on job creation while in rural areas, households should be supplied with sufficient production factors.

At the same time, lack of production and business knowledge and experience also constitutes an important reason for poverty in rural areas. Therefore, the poor's access to knowledge and new production technology should be improved, and their business ability needs to be enhanced. This is to be more clearly reflected in the poverty reduction policies and programs.

Implementation of the national target programs for poverty reduction

There are currently two big poverty reduction programs in Vietnam, namely: the National Target Program for Hunger Eradication, Poverty Reduction and Job Creation (HEPRJC or Program 143), and the

Program for SocioEconomic Development in the Exceptionally Difficult Communes in Mountainous and Remote Areas (Program 135). There are also some other national programs with help from international organizations in some areas. Some government policies providing direct help to some vulnerable and disadvantageous groups of people such as health care, education support, and support to people who suffered from natural calamities also make sense in the poverty reduction process.

The implementation of poverty reduction policies and measures can be monitored and assessed at different levels, to wit:

(a) Monitoring inputs, e.g., checking the quantity and quality of the applied interventions; making sure these interventions are applied to the right subjects.
(b) Monitoring the mechanism of policy implementation, e.g., checking the ways the interventions are carried out to ensure equality, transparency, democracy and wide participation of communities and the poor themselves in the implementation of poverty reduction policies.
(c) Evaluating outputs, e.g., checking what the results of these interventions are, both quantitatively and qualitatively, whether the poor can escape from poverty, and whether the interventions bring about unexpected social inequality.

Theoretically, the CBMS can perform the above three levels of monitoring and assessment. However, in this CBMS survey, due to limited resources, only the first level—input monitoring—will be addressed.

Monitoring of levels (b) and (c) requires in-depth interviews and more detailed information, which were not included in this survey. What this particular CBMS does to address the implementation of the following poverty reduction policies: support in health care, education, housing, credit and production knowledge extension, are outlined in the next sections. These are crucial interventions for poor households.

a) Support in health care

To help the poor against burdens like loss of income and huge medical expenses, the Vietnamese government issued a policy of free-of-charge health examination and treatment for the poor; free medical insurance certificate to the poor; subsidy of a proportion of the transportation costs of delivering medicines to the mountainous areas; and upgrade of the grassroot health care infrastructure in the districts, communes and villages.

Have these policies been of help? Per the CBMS survey, the results show that 32.5 percent of the poor households have access to free-of-charge health examination and treatment. In urban areas, the rate is higher (61%) while in rural areas it is only 30.4 percent.

Forty-nine percent of the poor households, meanwhile, received medical insurance certificates but only 28 percent used them. Compared with the national data, these figures are quite optimistic. A recent report from the Ministry of Health indicates that by mid-2002, two-thirds of the provinces have bought medical insurance for the poor although only 20 percent of the poor received their certificates which was of low value (30,000 VND per year).[7] It is noticeable that the high mountainous communes in the survey sample are better supported medically, with 37 percent of the poor households there receiving free-of-charge health examination and treatment.

On the whole, meanwhile, the rate of poor households having received medical insurance certificates reached 74 percent but only 32 percent have used them. As such, one notes that the number of those without access to medical service is still relatively high.

b) Support in education

Aside from the general education policies such as building schools, training teachers, and raising salary and allowances of teachers who work in exceptionally difficult areas, there are also policies with direct

[7] Ministry of Health, Situation and policy of health care support to the poor, a report presented at the Conference on Implementation of Programs 135 and 143 in 2002, Hanoi, 1-2 July 2002.

support for poor students like lending or giving out of textbooks, reducing or exempting tuition fee and other educational fees, and providing scholarships to poor students in mountainous areas.

According to the result of the CBMS (as shown in Table 26), the rate of poor households having children receiving education support in various forms is as follows :

- 48.8 percent of poor households have children who are given reduced tuition fees or are exempted from tuition fees. In urban areas, the extent is 75.8 percent; in high mountainous areas, 70.8 percent; and in midland and low mountainous areas, 53 percent.
- 34.7 percent of poor households have children who are exempted from other education fees. In urban areas, the figure is 60.6 percent; in midland and low mountainous areas, 52 percent; and in high mountainous areas, 37 percent.
- 9.2 percent of the poor households have children who are provided with textbooks. Most of these are in high mountainous areas.
- 2.5 percent of the poor households have children who received scholarship, mostly in urban and suburban areas, where financial

Table 26
Rate of Poor Households Getting Educational Support
(% of poor households)

		The Rate of Poor Households Having Students Who are Reduced or Exempted from Tuition Fee	The Rate of Poor Households Having Students Who Are Exempted from Tuition Fee	The Rate of Poor Households Having Students Who Get Free Textbooks	The Rate of Poor Households Having Students Who Get Scholarship	The Rate of Poor Households Having Students Who are Reduced or Exempted from Vocational Training Fee
	Total	48.76	34.68	9.21	2.48	0.21
	Rural area	46.78	32.78	9.89	1.89	0.22
	Urban area	75.76	60.61	0.00	10.61	0.00
1	Delta	32.71	14.95	0.47	0.47	0.00
2	Suburban	34.67	30.67	1.33	8.00	1.33
3	Coastal	20.00	22.96	2.22	0.00	0.00
4	Low mountains	52.97	52.05	3.65	4.11	0.00
5	High mountains	70.82	36.96	29.57	0.39	0.39

resources can be raised from business and community for charitable purposes.

- Only 0.21 percent of the poor households benefited from free vocational training courses. In general, this kind of support is not of great concern since the rate of vocational training for students is quite low, especially in rural areas. Moreover, vocational training centers usually do not give preferential treatment or attention to poor households.

c) Housing support

Housing support is a new policy of the Vietnamese government and is being implemented in some key areas such as the Mekong River Delta, the Central Highland, and the Northern Mountainous Region. The rate of poor households which benefited from this support in the whole sample is 2.69 percent, the rate of which is quite high in urban areas at 10.6 percent (mostly in Ho Chi Minh city). In general, the rate in rural areas is very low, partly because observatories are not located in the key areas where housing support policy is carried out.

In terms of support, free-of-charge provision is currently the mode more than loan-giving, the reason being that housing support is still a new policy and not yet applied widely. Thus, the poor households who have received housing support are mainly the ones that suffered from natural calamities or the ones who belong to the most vulnerable groups.

d) Provision of credit for poverty reduction purposes

As mentioned earlier, lack of capital is the biggest constraint for the poor households. Therefore, providing loans to poor households with preferential conditions (with low interest rate and without putting up collateral) is an important poverty reduction policy of the Vietnamese government.

In 2002, according to the CBMS survey, 58 percent of poor households received loans with an average amount of 3 million VND. The rate in urban areas is quite high (83%) while in rural areas, the figure is just 56 percent. The midland and low mountainous areas

show the highest rate at 71.23 percent while the rate in the high mountainous areas is 53.7 percent. These figures show that most of the attention in providing loans has been focused on the poor in mountainous areas because these areas have very bad traffic and communication conditions.

In general, there are various credit sources for poverty reduction purposes, namely: the Vietnam Bank for the Poor (now called the Bank for Social Policies), the National Employment Fund, social and mass organizations, the Bank of Agriculture and Rural Development, the People's Credit Funds and other sources.

Among these, the Bank for the Poor plays the most decisive role. Loans from this bank are provided with low interest rate of 0.5 to 0.6 percent per month or half the short-term interest rate of commercial banks.

Another important source is the Bank of Agriculture and Rural Development, although poor households seldom borrow from this source due to its lack of preferential conditions (0.8% to 1% per month with collateral). Only 7.6 percent of poor households in rural areas take loans from this bank with an average amount of 4.3 million VND per household.

Two percent of the poor households borrowed from social and mass organizations at an average amount of 2 million VND per household. The social and mass organizations play an active role in providing loans for poverty reduction purposes. This may be considered as a best practice of participation of the masses in poverty reduction activities. In particular, local branches of such organizations like the associations of farmers, women, veterans, and youth operate very efficiently.

The capital of these associations come from two sources: (i) banks and poverty reduction programs, and (ii) capital mobilized from their members. With active and efficient loan provision, combined with the provision of technical extension and knowledge on business and financial management to the poor households, these organizations should be supported so that they can be engaged more in providing

loans to the poor.

The National Employment Supporting Fund, meanwhile, proves to be most efficient in urban and suburban areas. It is, however, inactive in rural areas.

The People's Credit Fund—a form of credit cooperative—does not exist widely. Its operation is based on market principles (with 1% per month interest rate, the same as the rate of commercial banks) and cannot attract the poor into taking loans.

Informal credit sources play an important role too in the micro-financial market in Vietnam. Among these sources are friends, relatives, neighbors, the ones on whom the poor can rely when they meet difficulties in their life, and from whom they can borrow loans without interest rate and limit of time. Aside from them, there also exist other capital sources in the form of lenders who provide credit with market interest rates. The poor are forced to borrow from this source when they do not have any other feasible sources.

Table 27 shows the various credit sources of the poor by region.

Table 27
Rate of Poor Households Borrowing Loan by Sources and Regions (%)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Total	37.89	0.83	1.86	7.04	0.62	1.55	8.90
	Rural area	39.44	0.67	1.78	7.56	0.67	1.67	7.11
	Urban area	16.67	3.03	3.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	33.33
1	Delta	37.38	0.93	4.21	7.01	0.00	0.00	3.27
2	Suburban	38.67	2.67	0.00	4.00	0.00	0.00	10.67
3	Coastal	35.56	0.00	3.70	5.93	0.00	0.00	2.96
4	Low mountains	57.08	0.00	0.00	5.94	0.00	0.00	10.50
5	High mountains	28.40	0.78	0.78	11.28	1.95	5.84	8.56

**Note: Sources of credit:*

1 = The Bank for the Poor
2 = The National Employment Supporting Fund
3 = Social and mass organizations
4 = The Bank of Agriculture and Rural Development
5 = The People's Credit Fund
6 = International development projects
7 = Other sources

e) Other supporting measures

The CBMS survey also indicated three other types of support which poor households can get, namely: (a) support for professional changes, (b) technical extension, and (c) support for migration into new lands.

The rate of poor households receiving technical extension—the most popular support—mainly through agricultural and forestry extension courses is 19 percent of poor households in rural areas and 1.5 percent in urban areas. Among the highest rates are in the midland and low mountainous areas (37%), and suburban areas (31%). Coastal areas (5%) and high mountainous areas (nearly 6%), on the other hand, get only little support showing that technical extension support focuses largely on favorable areas.

Support for job changes, meanwhile, is mainly implemented in the suburban areas where urbanization is taking place and where many farmers are left without agricultural land. They, therefore, have to look for a new job. There were 25 percent of poor households that received such kind of support. In other areas, this support is not implemented mainly because of the lack of local financial resources. If a household wants to shift to another sector, it has to make a proposal for a loan from commercial banks. Said type of support therefore is disadvantageous for the poor.

Other support types of the National Program for Poverty Reduction such as assistance for emigrants, people of ethnic minorities in exceptionally difficult areas, and farmers who have lost their land and want to have some land again, are not included in the CBMS survey result. This may be attributed to the fact that such support is limited and cannot clearly be shown in a small sample of 20 communes.

Some remarks on the prospect of CBMS in Vietnam

Validation of CBMS implementation in poverty observatories in 2002

In general, the results of the CBMS in poverty observatories are valuable since the processed information from the data collected can

provide additional information to the management of the National Program of Poverty Reduction. Many of the indicators are quite identical to the real situation as indicated when comparing the CBMS results with the data stated by the communes or the data collected by specialized governmental organizations.

According to the assessment of the Managing Office of HEPRJC—the main user of the survey results—CBMS has provided a relatively valuable dataset, including basic information of surveyed communes and households, and impacts of poverty reduction policies on poor households and communes in various regions. This is crucial information which provides baseline data for the assessment of the implementation of poverty reduction policies in the future.

In terms of data collection, the CBMS survey has implemented the initial intention of giving the active role to the localities so that they can handle the task themselves in the next rounds of the survey.

As to the data processing, the survey team can give out basic information which meets the requirement of both the locality and the government agencies. The principles of "simplicity and ease of use" should always be considered in designing the implementing and operational rules for the conduct of the CBMS not only in terms of data collection but also in data processing and analysis.

Concluding remarks on prospect of CBMS implementation

(a) Ability of the CBMS to monitor and validate impacts of poverty reduction programs

Results of the pilot implementation of the CBMS indicate that in general, the collected dataset, including the number of poor households and poverty rate, is acceptable for poverty monitoring and policy impact evaluation.

Provinces should be encouraged to have more observatories. Based on the comparison between CBMS results at three observatories in Ha Tay province and the annual poverty survey, which the provincial administration conducts in 30 communes with income method instructed by MOLISA, it is being proposed that each province should

have at least five poverty observatories to monitor the real situation of poverty at the provincial level.

(b) Recommending the continuous test and use of the CBMS in the next two years

The MIMAP-Vietnam project plans to pilot the CBMS in more poverty observatories in the next two years. In order to achieve better results, the following tasks should be implemented:

- Adjust the questionnaires for commune and households so that they can be more simple and more efficient.
- Continue to improve the data processing software.
- Study and develop the CBMS manual and transfer it to localities (at province and district levels). At the first step, CBMS can be applied in provincial poverty observatories.
- Develop and test an integrated poverty indicator. The research team is going to link the major indicators and integrate them into one aggregated multidimensional poverty indicator. This indicator may be used for the identification of poor households. A design of this indicator is being completed and is going to be implemented in the coming survey round at the end of 2003.

Application of MIMAP Poverty Assessment to Project Monitoring

Flora Ann Hills and Francis Cauchon

Introduction

The Improved Livelihoods for Mountainous Communities (ILMC) Project is a grassroots poverty reduction organization working in Ba Thuoc and Nhu Xuan districts, Thanh Hoa Province in Vietnam's North-Central Region. Its goal is to improve the social and economic well-being of poor households and communes in these areas by involving participatory processes in community-based development planning and implementation. It follows a two-pronged strategy for sustainable poverty reduction comprised of multisectoral approach to livelihoods improvement and decentralization and co-management approach where all activities are designed, implemented and monitored in cooperation with local level government partners.

In order to monitor ILMC's projects, it used the MIMAP's method of poverty assessment. The introduction of this method is meant to expose key partners of ILMC to the multidimensional poverty assessment as well as to build their capacity to systematically collect, compile and analyze data. Moreover, it aims to create feedback linkages to encourage discussion about the grassroots effect of poverty reduction strategies.

Expected results

The introduction of CBMS is expected to produce the following results:

- Provincial institutions and district leaders can allocate funds more responsively to the poor. New laws support this idea but decentralization is slow and dependent on local management styles.
- Project interventions are supported and amplified by government policies.
- A feedback loop exists between policymakers and the recipients of poverty interventions.

Issues and concerns

This initiative, however, was initially constrained by a number of limitations. First, due to time and budget considerations, there were worries that the method might not be considered scientifically rigorous. Second, specific observations should be viewed with caution since some variables are characterized by high variability and a potential recall bias. Third, due to varying levels of support and commitment from district government officials, there might be interdistrict differences in methods and results.

The experience on the implementation

After a series of discussions on the subject, the partners of the project agreed to implement the survey in addition to their usual monitoring activities. Quality of data is not assured, though, despite training and supervision. Likewise, duplication of sources of data can initiate discussion of reliability/validity of data.

The generalized data can be a good tool to focus activities on the poorest regions while specific indicators are incorporated in the project's performance monitoring framework. MIMAP can provide key individuals with better data management skills.

Lessons learned

The following are the most important lessons learned from the project:

- Keep findings and associated discussions about data quality simple.

- Introduce data management methods (e.g., software skills) that partners can directly apply to other tasks.
- A streamlined version of the CBMS that targets specific indicators is more valuable than the indicators that are not used regularly.

In general, the preliminary results of the first CBMS survey reveal that generalized data can be a good tool to focus activities on the poorest regions.

Barriers

Due to the project's infancy, there is still limited success in linking poverty data generated by the system to policy development processes. Innovative ways of disseminating findings should likewise be found to make them accessible to as wide a range of local people as possible. On the other hand, though methods are participatory, little dialogue exists between planners and recipients. The system is also not cost-effective relative to MOLISA approach.

Future activities

A strategy to eliminate extraneous variables is needed and this issue will be presented for discussion in future consultations at the commune level. The ILMC project team will also present primary barriers to poverty alleviation to district officials and encourage them to respond during the final annual review.

CBMS Session 1
CBMS Initiatives in Asia

CBMS in Nepal: Collection and Use of Information

Shiva Sharma

Background

Poverty has become a way of life in Nepal. Depending upon the sources of estimation, 40 to 60 in every 100 people live below the poverty line. Poverty is more of a rural phenomenon with majority of the poor living in rural areas, working hard in farms and forests but are unable to meet the basic necessities of food, clothing, shelter, health and education. At the same time, poverty is not uniform across regions and population groups. Some regions, for example, like the mid- and far-west hill districts, shelter more poor than other districts. Similarly, poverty incidence among the untouchable caste group is much higher than the national average. Within districts, households without access to farmland are invariably poor, as wage opportunities are extremely limited and the levels are low.

Due to the patriarchal social fabric, women are the most disadvantaged sex group. Among the poor, they are ultra poor; and even among the nonpoor, intrahousehold distribution of resources and opportunities are biased against them.

With increasing emphasis on poverty reduction in government policy and programs, it is imperative that stock-taking is made in a continual basis to see whether the poor groups have been included in the development drive. Are policies and programs geared toward these

groups? Are they included in the programs meant for the poor? Is poverty incidence being reduced? Is depth of poverty being narrowed? Which programs are better in delivering the intended results? These questions need answers.

Poverty assessment at the disaggregated level is essential for regional development and village development committees (VDC) and district development committees (DDC)[1] development exercise through local government institutions. The Local Self-Governance Act (LSGA) has given a high priority toward this direction. Unfortunately, though, the information base at the local level is virtually nonexistent. This therefore constrains poverty and development monitoring at the grassroot level.

The need to build the capacity of local government institutions and strengthen the system for an information base at the grassroot level to monitor the poverty situation regularly has long been felt. Such a system would empower the locally elected bodies with information and initiate a sound allocation of resources, thereby stimulating growth at the local level. The National Planning Commission has also recognized the need for a regular monitoring of poverty in reviewing the country's poverty reduction strategies and their impact on poverty. It has committed to initiate, improve, and institutionalize data collection and analysis of poverty indicators and of the impact of national policies and projects. Similarly, the donor community has also shown much concern for poverty reduction in Nepal and has set certain development goals. In order to achieve their objectives, a sound database system, including poverty monitoring indicators at the grassroot level is necessary. In view of this, the Micro Impacts of Macroeconomic Adjustment Policies (MIMAP)-Nepal Program initiated the Poverty and Development Monitoring System (PDMS) in 1997.

[1] There are about 4,000 village development committees (VDC) and 58 municipalities in Nepal, and these are regrouped into 75 districts (DDC).

MIMAP- PDMS

The Poverty and Development Monitoring System (PDMS) has been one of the major components of MIMAP-Nepal since the start of its second phase. The system aims at measuring social and economic changes at the community (Ward) level in a fixed period of time. A system of collection and analysis of annual sets of information from the community level has thus been developed, with 62 indicators so far designed and included. The criteria for identifying the indicators are (i) development goals set by the government in its plans, (ii) various aggregate economic, social, and poverty indicators set in the long-term targets, and (iii) international development goals set forth by different international conventions. The indicators relate to family and population, women and children, labor force and wages, agriculture and environment, loan, communication, income, expenditure, shops and market, prices, education and health, nutrition and sanitation, and poverty. These indicators are simple to collect, easy to interpret and have little or no room for subjective judgement. The plan is to collect PDMS information every year so that the situation of poverty could be monitored on a regular basis. The indicators of the PDMS with the information of one VDC are presented in Annex 1.

The information set for PDMS is collected from the ward-level focus group discussions. Before collecting the data, the VDC representatives and local elites are informed and discussion is made about the methodology of data collection. Ward-level pieces of information from each ward are then collected from the discussions of a focus group consisting of about 15 participants coming from different groups. The participants are made up of members of ward committees, teachers, key informants and knowledgeable persons from each ward. Information that is not possible to collect from focus group discussions is collected by conducting quick household surveys. VDC-level information is obtained by compiling the ward-level set of information.

Initially, the PDMS was implemented in a cluster of five VDCs in Kavre, Dhanusha, Bardiya and Dailekh districts. The learning from this experiment was then extended to all the VDCs of five MIMAP

districts (Kavre, Dhanusha, Bardiya, Dailekh and Jumla). The National Labour Academy (NLA) implemented the PDMS in the Dailekh and Bardiya districts while the Canadian Center for International Studies and Cooperation (CECI) implemented it in Kavre (2 rounds), Jumla (2 rounds), Dhanusha (1 round) and a second round in Dailekh. So far, the first round of PDMS has been fully implemented in all VDCs (293 VDCs) of five MIMAP districts. VDCs are divided into nine communities (Wards), and community level information is collected in all wards and aggregated into the VDC level. PMS information sets from all VDCs of the district are then aggregated for district level analysis.

Use of the PDMS information

The PDMS is mainly used for the monitoring of poverty as well as development activities in the VDCs. Based on the experience of monitoring poverty in the VDCs, the situation does not change significantly within a short period like one or two years' time. However, the PDMS information, together with the VDC profile, may be used quite effectively for long-term VDC planning as shown in the following sections.

VDC planning exercise

For the preparation of the VDC level plan, needs assessment of the local people and the priorities placed by the community are essential. The detailed procedure in doing the planning starts with the identification of the potential area where the VDC has a comparative advantage. Information from nonconventional gender indicators and the VDC profile[2] are then used to assess the needs and resources situation of the VDC. In preparing the five-year plan, special emphasis is given to the underdeveloped areas in the VDC and to the poorer section of the community. The potentials of the VDC to take the lead in specific

[2] In earlier MIMAP-Nepal planning exercises, PDMS did not contain the nonconventional gender indicators.

production sectors and subsectors are also given due consideration.

Planning is done via a series of meetings with VDC officials, school teachers and knowledgeable persons of the VDC. Professionals from the NLA facilitate the discussion and systematize the vision and priorities evolved within the VDC. In the plan, estimation of the resources requirement for the accomplishment of the planned activities by year is also done.

The broad areas charted out in the VDC plan include the following:

a. Agriculture
   - Irrigation
   - Seed multiplication
   - Horticulture
   - Vegetable
   - Livestock
b. Roads
c. Electrification
d. Forest
e. Information and communication
f. Social services
   - Education
   - Health
   - Drinking water
   - Sanitation
   - Social security
g. Small-scale and cottage industry
h. Women development

Results of planning exercise (2001/02-2005/06) of Mirgauliya VDC in LOG-frame format

A specific case—that of planning for the Mirgauliya VDC—shows that after intense discussion, the long-term vision for the VDC was fixed in the following motto:

> *Agriculture, transportation, drinking water, and sanitation*
> *Let us develop Mirgauliya by coherent participation.*

The guiding principles for evolving Mirgauliya's 5-year plan included:

1. Sustainable development
2. People's participation
3. Gender equity
4. Effectiveness, workability and transparency
5. Proportionate and balanced development
6. Identification of resources, conservation and utilization
7. Organizational development
8. Decentralization
9. Human rights

The results of the planning exercise in log-frame format are presented in Annex 2 and the estimated cost for the implementation of the program is presented in Table 1. Per analysis of the cost table, one gets the following results:

- The five-year development expenditure is estimated at 36 million rupees, of which about 13 million is to come from people's participation. Thus, the annual estimated expenditure (external) is Rs. 4.66 million. This calculates to Rs 1,903 per household and Rs. 364 per capita per year.
- Social sector development that includes education, health, drinking water, sanitation, nutrition and social welfare accounts for almost 45 percent of total planned expenditure. The large share is due to the investment required for infrastructure such as building or drinking water plants. For agriculture development, 24 percent of the expenses are allocated. Village roads receive 17 percent allocation.
- Women development and gender equity programs receive 2.2 percent of total planned expenditure. On the whole, 160,900 per annum is earmarked. The programs included training, awareness and other interventions.

Table 1
Sectoral Estimated Cost

Name of Programme	Estimated Cost (in Rs '000)													Percentage		
	First Year		Second Year		Third Year		Fourth Year		Fifth Year		Total					
	Cash	PP	Cash	PP	Cash	PP	Cash	PP	Cash	PP	Cash	PP	Grand	Cash	PP	Grand
1. Agriculture																
a. Irrigation	495.0	180.0	440.0	185.0	322.0	151.0	320.0	155.0	440.0	185.0	2,017.0	856.0	2,873.0	8.6	6.7	8.0
b. Seed Multiplication, Production, and Exhibition Programme	162.5	149.0	135.0	240.0	192.5	319.0	146.5	441.5	184.5	463.0	821.0	1,612.5	2,433.5	3.5	12.6	6.7
c. Fruit Cultivation	69.0	68.0	82.2	85.7	78.7	145.4	88.3	169.9	98.1	194.8	416.3	663.8	1,080.1	1.8	5.2	3.0
d. Vegetable Cultivation	65.5	61.0	50.5	61.5	65.5	71.0	45.5	73.5	75.5	76.0	302.5	343.0	645.5	1.3	2.7	1.8
e. Livestock Development	92.4	102.9	80.4	162.7	92.5	201.5	83.2	239.1	112.5	368.9	461.0	1,075.1	1,536.1	2.0	8.4	4.3
2. Transportation Development	740.0	355.0	629.0	299.0	710.0	335.0	1,106.0	514.0	1,005.0	500.0	4,190.0	2,003.0	6,193.0	18.0	15.7	17.2
3. Forest and Soil-Conservation	31.0	20.5	200.5	140.5	211.0	175.5	101.5	148.0	119.1	178.5	663.1	663.0	1,326.1	2.8	5.2	3.7
4. Information and Community Development	100.0	25.0	100.0	35.0	25.0	10.0	525.0	510.0	350.0	75.0	1,100.0	655.0	1,755.0	4.7	5.1	4.9
5. Electrification	10.0	5.0	15.0	5.0	20.0	7.0	25.0	8.0	25.0	8.0	95.0	33.0	128.0	0.4	0.3	0.4
6. Social Services																
a. Education	971.0	94.0	1,107.0	174.0	1,329.0	132.0	1,834.0	245.0	2,154.0	358.0	7,395.0	1,003.0	8,398.0	31.7	7.9	23.3
b. Health Service	415.0	50.0	396.0	–	421.0	–	396.0	–	765.0	75.0	2,393.0	125.0	2,518.0	10.3	1.0	7.0
c. Drinking, Cottage and Small-Scale Industries	283.5	312.0	503.0	563.5	661.5	744.0	371.0	488.0	418.5	557.0	2,238.0	2,664.5	4,902.5	9.6	20.9	13.6
d. Social Welfare Security	23.0	17.0	27.0	27.0	28.0	33.0	13.0	11.0	59.0	33.0	150.0	121.0	271.0	0.6	0.9	0.8
7. Business, Cottage and Small-Scale Industries	65.0	110.0	80.0	110.0	38.0	118.0	55.0	123.0	65.0	123.0	303.0	584.0	887.0	1.3	4.6	2.5
8. Women Development & Gender Equality	46.5	4.0	70.5	59.0	47.0	34.0	203.0	99.0	192.5	49.0	559.5	245.0	804.5	2.4	1.9	2.2
9. Child Development	25.0	12.0	50.0	70.0	70.0	44.0	45.0	22.0	25.0	12.0	215.0	124.0	339.0	0.9	1.0	0.9
Grand Total (Rs. '000)	3,594.4	1,565.4	3,966.6	2,181.9	4,311.7	2,520.4	5,358.0	3,247.0	6,088.7	3,256.2	23,319.4	12,770.9	36,080.3	100.0	100.0	100.0
Percentage	15.4	12.3	17.0	17.1	18.5	19.7	23.0	25.4	26.1	25.5	100.0	100.0				

PP = People Participation

Inclusion of MIMAP-PDMS in government system

Various institutions in Nepal are working to reduce poverty. Many of them have identified indicators for the monitoring of the poverty level. His Majesty's Government of Nepal (HMG/N) has also recently developed 31 poverty-monitoring indicators to address the poverty monitoring requirements associated with Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP).[3] In this regard, the different dimensions by which the MIMAP-PDMS is complementary to the national PRSP-PDMS may be cited, to wit:

Administrative and statistical level

The MIMAP-PDMS is designed as a monitoring tool at the VDC level while the PRSP-PDMS is planned to be a tool at the DDC and national levels. Moreover, the MIMAP-PDMS is based on the ward as the lowest statistical unit, the ward being seen as a cluster of households.[4] The main measurement method is the ward-level group meeting (participative interview). For the PRSP-PDMS, the household is the statistical unit but information is aggregated at the district level for analysis.

Statistical coverage

The MIMAP-PDMS covers all VDCs within the district and all wards within the VDC. It is a census-based system while the PRSP-PDMS relies on a sampling scheme at the district level (18-20 VDCs every year), the VDC level and the household level. The targeted size of the sample is 1,300 households in each selected DDC.[5]

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[3] MIMAP-Nepal has been working in the area since the last four years. However, the new developments need to be taken into consideration.

[4] There is in fact a household listing form, but viewed as a tool to compute essentially the demographic group variables necessary as the reference to interpret all other domain indicators, and eventually to compute more significant indicators at an aggregated level (rates).

[5] Information are taken from Framework for Monitoring Poverty in Support of PRSP in Nepal, National Planning Commission, Ministry of Science and Technology, United Nations Development Programme, December 2001. However, the complete technical details on the sampling scheme within the DDC: # of VDCs and # of households within each sampled VDC are not contained in the document.

Frequency

The MIMAP-PDMS is designed as a yearly updated set of indicators, which means that the main uses of the dataset should be for annual local management activities at the VDC level. The PRSP-PDMS, meanwhile, is planned to be a four year-based system at the district level, the rotating sampling scheme allowing each district to come back in the national sample every four years. More than that, the benchmark of the PRSP-PDMS will be the Nepal Living Standard Survey (NLSS), whose frequency of conduct is not firmly defined, albeit rarely less than five years.[6]

Sustainability

The MIMAP-PDMS is a community-based system at the VDC level. As such, the system is designed to be feasible with the human, physical and financial resources available at this level. Before the ultimate objective of sustainability can be fully reached in the context of the decentralization policy, the immediate upper administrative level—the DDC—has an important role to play in providing technical support (e.g., regular training with new elected members coming in through the political process, data quality control, etc). The whole management of the system also relies first on the DDC level. Thus, when talking of local sustainability, both levels—VDC and DDC—should be taken in mind.

On the other hand, the PRSP-PDMS relies on the technical staff of the Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) with its 33 district offices. It is clearly stated in the reference document, though, that the "main reasons for CBS not being able to take up its mandated job in a coordinated way is its low status."[7] Thus, there is a need for upgrading the status of the CBS staff. The whole benchmark of the system being the NLSS

[6] In fact, the first NLSS was in 1996, and the second is in the process and will be completed in 2003.

[7] loc. cit., p. 22

with its heavy methodology likewise requires the use of external funds in conducting the survey and analyzing the data.

It should be made clear that the complementarity of the MIMAP-PDMS does not mean substitutability. Both have their specific roles and can strengthen each other. As an example, the national consensus to work on a set of 31 poverty indicators[8] should be seen as an important input in the ongoing process of reducing the set of the current 62 MIMAP-PDMS indicators. This is a step toward having a consistency between both systems, a necessary condition for complementarity.

The objective of the MIMAP-PDMS is to institutionalize the system in a consistent way with the ongoing decentralization programs. A prerequisite to institutionalize the MIMAP-PDMS is consistency at two levels: the policy and the technical levels. Consistency means that in its design, there should be a built-in link with some national policy, and within that specific policy, a built-in bridge with the technical modalities of that specific policy implementation.

The basic principle of community-based monitoring system (CBMS) is to empower local communities through information. They must be the first clients and users of the data. On this basis, and by the fact that a CBMS is a decentralized system, the most natural policy environment for the MIMAP PDMS is the Nepal Decentralization Policy, as promulgated in the Local Self-Governance Act (LSGA) in 1999. This fact is explicitly recognized in the Local Governance Strengthening Program (LGSP), a new large umbrella under which all actors in decentralization are being coordinated by the National Planning Commission (NPC) and the Ministry of Local Development (MLD).

The LGSP is following the Participatory District Development Program (PDDP) and Local Governance Program (LGP), which were a collaborative venture between HMGN and UNDP in late 1995. The Program in its entirety is intended to contribute to the overall goal of

[8] In fact, there are now 31 indicators being discussed.

reducing the incidence of poverty in the rural areas of Nepal.[9] As such, "there is a requirement for more general monitoring of the incidence of poverty."[10] Fortunately, the LGSP is aware of the necessity to coordinate its poverty monitoring needs with the larger PRSP needs. "LGSP's support to poverty monitoring at the local level will contribute and seek to be consistent with national poverty monitoring initiatives. The LGSP will be guided by these national initiatives when developing its indicators with the aim of providing valuable and coherent district-level poverty data that can be consolidated at the national level."[11] To this end, the LGSP refers explicitly to the PRSP-PDMS: "Under the leadership of NPC and with some donor assistance, HMGN is currently engaged in an exercise of consolidating poverty indicators into a unified set that would cover no more than 30 indicators and would address the poverty monitoring requirements associated with the PRSP/10th Five Year Plan."[12]

The rationale is therefore clear for the policy consistency of the MIMAP-PDMS. It will seek and reach consistency with the PRSP-PDMS through its more direct consistency with the poverty monitoring system required by the decentralization policy. The MIMAP-PDMS will then remain to be what it intends to fundamentally be: a poverty monitoring system.

The second level of consistency is at the technical level. There should first be an overlapping (intersection set) between the MIMAP-PDMS indicators and those of the LGSP-PDMS. This overlapping should be as large as possible and should be taken into account in the reduction of the number of actual 62 MIMAP-PDMS indicators. Then for the common indicators, definitions should be consistent. Due to the local (VDC) feasibility constraint, it could then happen that some MIMAP-

[9] Local Governance Strengthening Programme, Programme Document, 18 March 2002, pp. 2 and 16. This document is still a draft in progress.

[10] loc. cit., p. 16

[11] loc. cit., p. 17

[12] loc. cit., p. 17

PDMS indicators are not exactly the same but are good proxies to the LGSP required indicators. The inclusion of explicit indicators shedding light on gender issues will be considered in the revised list of indicators. Interactions will have to be made with 'Gender Network' for this purpose.

This consistency prerequisite can be seen in fact as the first step to achieve the institutionalization of the MIMAP-PDMS. The second step is the administrative and social internalization (appropriation) of the system. Gradually, the successive annual rounds of the MIMAP-PDMS should be integrated into the responsibilities of the local staff and elected members, in partnership with the local communities. This integration should be looked for at the VDC and DDC levels since much work was done in the MIMAP Phase II at the VDC levels and the emphasis in phase III is being given at the DDC level as the one providing the required technical support to the VDCs. Once the second step is successfully completed, the system would not be any more identified as the MIMAP-PDMS but would naturally be known as the Local Development PDMS

Institutionalization of MIMAP-PDMS

Since this is the last phase of the MIMAP in Nepal, it is extremely important to explicitly introduce some activities in the project aiming at building the most relevant institutional linkages. With the support of the Steering Committee, consultations with the LGSP Programme Implementation Committee, chaired by the MLD, will have to be made to offer them MIMAP's participation in their inception phase. The cost of five districts, however, will be covered by the MIMAP-PDMS budget. Then, with the LGSP Programme Management Team, the MIMAP should try to negotiate the agenda so that the five districts identified in the MIMAP-PDMS are visited and assessed at the very beginning of the inception phase. This cooperative work in the field would be a very important input to the PDMS improvement work and would give an opportunity to influence the reflection of the LGSP in their PDMS.

A second type of institutionalization activities will be the

participation in various national or donor-led workshops in Nepal on poverty monitoring systems, PRSP, and decentralization, among others. The regular participation will be greatly facilitated by the Steering Committee, whose members from the main ministries and agencies involved in poverty monitoring will have the information on these forthcoming workshops and could help in having the MIMAP-PDMS project invited.

A third type of institutionalization activities will be those involving the transfer of specific management and supervision roles from MIMAP to the DDC level, activities seen as belonging to the real-scale implementation process.

Finally, all the reporting activities of MIMAP to the Steering Committee meetings may be viewed as part of the institutionalization activities.

Annex 1. Poverty and Development Monitoring System of Mirgauliya VDC

S.No.	Description	Wards No									VDC Total
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
A. Households											
1	Total households settled in ward	192	259	246	266	288	343	183	334	340	2,451
2	Total population	947	1,315	1,086	1,410	1,397	1,837	1,038	1,706	2,078	12,814
	Female	446	665	495	684	684	926	511	865	1,022	6,298
3	Male	501	650	591	726	713	911	527	841	1,056	6,516
4	Number of households formed last year (by separation)	9	10	5	7	7	11	19	6	15	89
5	Number of households migrated in last year	2	9	6	2	2	10	4	4	5	44
6	Number of households migrated-out last year	2	5	2	3	-	2	3	3	2	22
7	Number of households who changed thatch roof into tin, tile or concrete	9	7	9	11	12	8	7	21	6	90
8	Number of female-headed households	3	11	10	15	8	18	5	21	24	115
	Number of households with electricity facility	-	27	21	27	27	201	1	120	202	626
B. Women and Children											
9	Number of widow	28	29	32	47	44	57	17	29	55	338
10	Number of married women residing in parental home since more than a year	3	4	5	6	2	7	5	3	5	40
11	Number of 14 years of below children married last year	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Boys	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Girls	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
12	Number of 14 years or below children working as wage labourers	-	1	16	-	16	7	-	9	-	49
	Boys	-	-	9	-	10	3	-	5	-	27
	Girls	-	1	7	-	6	4	-	4	-	22
	In the ward	-	1	5	-	5	6	-	1	-	18
	Boys	-	-	2	-	4	3	-	-	-	9
	Girls	-	1	3	-	1	3	-	1	-	9
	Out side the ward	-	-	11	-	11	1	-	8	-	31
	Boys	-	-	7	-	6	-	-	5	-	18
	Girls	-	-	4	-	5	1	-	3	-	13

Annex 1 (cont'd.)

S.No.	Description	Wards No									VDC Total
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
C. Labour and Wage											
13	Number of wage laborers	205	156	117	122	365	205	258	179	194	1,801
	Female	86	94	31	23	183	80	117	24	56	694
	Male	119	62	86	99	182	125	141	155	138	1,107
14	Number of farm laborers working on permanent basis	13	31	33	11	49	13	9	19	7	185
15	Wage rate in agriculture (ward average Rs/day)										
	Female	25	30	25	30	45	30	30	30	35	31
	Male	50	65	50	50	70	50	60	65	75	59
	Total (Wage/Tiffin) Rate	25	20	25	25	20	25	20	25	25	23
	Female										
	Male	25	20	25	25	20	25	20	25	25	23
16	Number of households with homestead land only	95	96	103	131	115	178	100	157	152	1,127
17	Number of households selling fruits of Rs. 1,000 or 1,000+ last year	3	2	9	2	15	35	5	5	15	91
18	Number of households selling dairy products of Rs. 1,000 or 1,000+ last year	21	151	27	37	54	78	52	102	205	727
19	Number of households selling vegetable of Rs. 1,000 or 1,000+ last year	6	11	2	4	7	5	9	7	22	73
20	Number of households selling cash crops of Rs. 1,000 or 1,000+ last year	-	2	-	-	12	10	3	95	15	137
21	Number of households selling grain of Rs. 1,000 or 1,000+ last year	15	21	25	87	75	98	22	98	18	459
22	Number of households that did not use chemical fertilizer last year	-	-	-	43	-	129	3	126	-	301
23	Additional area of land irrigated last year (Bigha)	6	12	-	6	8	-	-	-	40	72
24	Number of livestock death caused disease last year										
	Cattle	15	42	19	48	41	51	13	12	21	262
	Buffalo	11	19	8	11	15	12	9	-	18	103
	Goats	69	79	83	61	118	152	97	25-	155	839
25	Loss of crop land by land slide last year (Bigha)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Annex 1 (cont'd.)

S.No.	Description	Wards No									VDC Total
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
26	Loss of crop land by flood last year (Bigha)	1.0	1.0	-	2.5	1.2	2.5	-	0.3	-	8.5
27	Number of households that practice stall feeding	167	177	157	130	249	225	160	270	280	1,815
28 29	Number of households self sufficient in fuel wood and fodder supply	36	22	37	8	30	15	9	-	12	169
	Number of saplings planted (timber/fuel, wood/fodder) last year	320	390	310	175	-	150	550	1,250	300	3,445
	Private land	320	390	310	175	-	150	550	1,250	300	3,445
	Forest/Government land	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
D. Loan											
30	Number of households that borrowed from institutional loan last year	43	2	6	38	5	37	10	35	53	229
31	Number of households that have borrowed by surrending land for interest payment	2	2	5	8	5	3	1	1	-	27
E. Information & Communication											
32	Number of households having Radio/TV										
	Number of Radio	167	191	151	165	241	260	148	205	305	1,833
	Number of TV	20	51	50	61	38	95	25	121	152	613
33	Numbers of daily/weekly papers subscribed	-	3	-	-	-	3	4	-	3	4
34	Number of individuals that received training (agri. and others) last year	1	7	4	4	35	28	10	4	33	126
F. Income											
35	Number of households with less than one bigha	53	81	46	52	83	118	49	87	156	725
36	Number of households that meet half or more of household expenditure from wage earnings	101	33	67	71	154	198	113	173	213	1,123
G. Shops											
37	Number of Tea stall and other shops	5	21	11	8	9	52	3	15	23	147

Annex 1 (cont'd.)

S.No.	Description	Wards No									VDC Total
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
H. Price Situation (Average)											
38	Maximum price last year										
	Paddy : Rs/Kg.	6	6	7	7	8	8	7	8	8	7
	Maize : Rs/Kg.	5	7	5	6	8	9	8	8	7	7
	Wheat : Rs/Kg.	5	6	7	6	7	7	7	7	7	7
	Kerosen : Rs/Lit.	20	18	18	20	30	32	20	20	27	23
	Salt : Rs/Kg.	6	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
	Salt (Iodized) : Rs/Kg.	10	9	10	10	8	9	9	10	8	9
	Urea Rs/Kg.	14	14	14	12	14	14	14	14	15	14
I. Education and Health											
39	Number of households in which all 14 years and above family members are illiterate	43	37	29	49	35	12	6	23	13	247
40	Total number of children of 5 to 14 years	195	266	181	262	217	296	207	256	337	2,217
	Boys	119	127	106	124	117	159	108	115	184	1,159
	Girls	76	139	75	138	100	137	99	141	153	1,058
	Total School going children	175	211	150	218	195	295	186	235	280	1,945
	Boys	102	100	79	106	103	158	100	112	148	1,008
	Girls	73	111	71	112	92	137	86	123	132	937
41	Number of students appeared in SLC last year	4	7	12	5	15	16	11	8	21	99
	Boys	4	4	8	3	8	7	7	5	9	55
	Girls	-	3	4	2	7	9	4	3	12	44
	Number of students who passed SLC last year	1	7	2	4	6	8	2	7	9	46
	Boys	1	4	2	3	1	3	2	4	5	25
	Girls	-	3	-	1	5	5	-	3	4	21
42	Number of individuals who became literate from adult literacy programme last year	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Male	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Female	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
43	Number of primary schools in the ward	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	-	1	10

Annex 1 (cont'd.)

S.No.	Description	Wards No									VDC Total
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
44	Number of students in primary school(s)	122	297	142	120	212	183	220	-	183	1,479
	Boys	61	207	78	61	112	95	119	-	113	846
	Girls	61	90	64	59	100	88	101	-	70	633
45	Number of teachers in primary school(s)	4	17	3	3	10	10	5	-	15	67
	Male	3	12	2	2	5	7	4	-	11	46
	Female	1	5	1	1	5	3	1	-	4	21
46	Number of schools with drinking water facility	1	2	1	-	-	2	1	-	2	9
47	Number of children studying out side the ward	3	15	3	19	50	7	10	7	25	139
	Boys	3	9	3	12	35	7	8	6	17	100
	Girls	-	6	-	7	15	-	2	1	8	39
48	Total death last year	7	3	10	6	10	7	3	7	11	64
	Male	4	3	6	2	6	7	3	3	8	42
	Female	3	-	4	4	4	-	-	4	3	22
49	Death of children below 5 years last year	2	-	-	1	-	-	-	3	2	8
	Boys	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	1	2	5
	Girls	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	3
50	Death of mothers due to pregnancy reasons	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
51	Number of disabled persons	13	5	10	7	13	19	8	13	16	104
	Blind	1	1	-	1	2	1	-	-	2	8
	Male	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1	2
	Female	1	1	-	1	2	-	-	-	1	6
	Mad/mental problem	3	-	-	1	2	6	1	4	7	24
	Male	1	-	-	1	2	3	-	3	3	13
	Female	2	-	-	-	-	3	1	1	4	11
	Dumb/deaf	3	3	7	4	5	4	5	4	5	40
	Male	1	2	4	2	2	2	-	3	3	19
	Female	2	1	3	2	3	2	5	1	2	21
	Polio	6	1	3	1	4	8	2	5	2	32
	Male	4	1	3	-	1	4	2	3	2	20
	Female	2	-	-	1	3	4	-	2	-	12
52	Number of Health post	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1

Annex 1 (cont'd.)

S.No.	Description	Wards No									VDC Total
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
53	Number of staffs in the health post	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
54	Annual budget of health post (in Rs. '000)	-	196	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	196
J. Nutrition and Sanitation											
55	Number of households that buy cereals 100 kg or more for consumption	143	97	153	79	205	235	148	243	221	1,524
56	Number of households that make living by selling wood fuel	-	14	-	2	-	7	-	-	28	51
57	Number of households that make living by pottery	-	5	-	-	5	1	-	-	-	11
58	Number of individuals with goiter	1	1	-	1	-	-	3	-	-	6
	Male	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	2
	Female	-	1	-	1	-	-	2	-	-	4
59	Number of individuals with night blindness problem	5	1	-	3	-	3	3	2	9	26
	Male	2	-	-	1	-	-	3	2	5	13
	Female	3	1	-	2	-	3	-	-	4	13
60	Number of households with own toilet	6	151	29	31	35	152	19	57	210	690
61	Number of households using drinking water from well/tap	192	259	246	266	288	332	183	334	340	2,440

Annex 1 (cont'd.)

Description				Wards No									Total		
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	High	Moderate	Low
K. Gender Discrimination															
63	A	Constraints in movement of women in different places Social perceptions about the mobility of women	Women	High	Low	Low	Moderate	Low	Low	Moderate	Low	Moderate	1	3	5
	B	Constraints in participation of women in domestic decision	Women	Low	Low	Low	Low	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Low	Moderate	0	4	5
	C	Domestic violence	Women	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	High	Moderate	High	Low	Moderate	2	6	1
	D	Problem of alcoholism	Women	Moderate	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	0	4	5
	E	Problem of gambling	Women	High	Low	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	High	Low	High	3	4	2
	F	Attitude to the wife as property	Women	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	0	0	9
	G	Discrimination between son and daughter	Women	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Moderate	0	1	8
	H		Women	Low	Low	Low	Moderate	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	0	1	8
		Participation	**Women**	**17**	**18**	**19**	**13**	**12**	**19**	**10**	**26**	**28**	**6**	**23**	**43**

High - If more than 50 percent of the respondents agree that the form of gender discrimination exists.
Moderate - If 25-50 percent of the respondents agree that the form of gender discrimination exists.
Low - If less than 25 percent of the respondents agree that the form of gender discrimination exists.

Annex 2. VDC Plan in Log Frame

Summary of Programmes	Objectively Verifiable Indicators	Basis of Justification	Risk factor
1. **National goal:** Poverty Alleviation			
2. Development goal of the VDC: Peoples' living standard will be improved by over all development of the VDC.	⇨ Peoples' living standard will be improved by achieving targets of VDC plan under all sub sectors.	• Updated VDC profile • Midterm monitoring and evaluation • Final evaluation report • Updated PDMS indicators	
3. VDC 's development objective: peoples' social and economic status will be increased.	⇨ Agriculture and livestock production and productivity will be increased. ⇨ Peoples' social status will be increased by implementing social programs.	• Updated VDC profile • Midterm monitoring and evaluation • Final evaluation report • Updated PDMS indicators	❖ If all political parties' commitment prevail.

Log Frame 1. Agriculture

Summary of Programmes	Objectively Verifiable Indicators	Basis of Justification	Risk Factors
Sectoral objective: People will have increased income through agriculture and livestock production	⇨ At the end of the plan, productivity of food and cash crops will be increased by 51 and 52 percent respectively. Irrigated area will be increased by 50 percent. Crop intensification will be increased by 45 percent. Commercial expansion of fruits and vegetables will be promoted by adding 24 and 14.8 hectare of land for respective crops. Of the total livestock more than 50 percent will be of hybrid. Milk productivity will be increased by 60 percent	• VDC profile • PDMS • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report	❖ If reasonable price of agriculture and livestock commodities prevail.
Results: 1. Production and productivity of cereal, cash and secondary crops will be increased.	Crop / Area (Ha.) / 2000/2001 Productivity (Qtl.) / 2005/2006 Productivity ⇨ Paddy 1640 22 35 ⇨ Wheat 993.3 14 20 ⇨ Maize 413.3 10 15 ⇨ Pulses 303.3 6 9 ⇨ Oil seed 186.7 3.5 7 ⇨ Potato 172 60 95 ⇨ Sugarcane 61.3 115 165	• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • District Agri. office • Sub-district agri. Centre	❖ If technical & agriculture input are provided. ❖ If irrigation is facility provided.
	Crops intensification percent 200 290 Irrigated area (Bigha) 1455 2869	• Village profile • DADO, DIO	❖ If deep boaring provided by the concerned agency
2. Farmers will initiate commercial vegetable and fruit production.	**Orchard area (Ha.)** ⇨ Mango - 5 ⇨ Banana 3.3 10 ⇨ Jack fruit - 5 ⇨ Lichi - 5 ⇨ Papaya - 1.3 ⇨ Mixed saplings - 1	• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • District Agri. office • Sub-district agri. Centre	❖ If fruits saplings are made available at local level
	Commercial vegetable cultivation area (Ha.) ⇨ Cauliflower 1 3.7 ⇨ Potato 5.3 13.3 ⇨ Chili 1.4 2.3 ⇨ Mustard leaf 1 3.0 ⇨ Radish 0.5 1.7	• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • District Agri. office • Sub-district agri. Centre	❖ If technical, agri input and irrigation facility are provided. ❖ If saplings are made available at local level. ❖ If the beneficiaries will be active.

Log Frame 1 (cont'd.)

Summary of Programmes	Objectively Verifiable Indicators			Basis of Justification	Risk Factors
	⇨ Brinjal	0.67	3.3		
	⇨ Cabbage	2	5.3		
	⇨ Cucumber	0.3	1.3		
	⇨ Pumpkin	1.3	3.3		
	⇨ Ladies finger	1.0	2.3		
	⇨ Tomato	1.1	3.3		
3. Livestock production and productivity will be increased and farmers will be motivated towards commercialism in this sector.	**Hibread livestock (No)**			• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • DLSO	❖ Subject to the assistance provided by the concerned agencies.
	⇨ Cow	115	625		
	⇨ Buffalo	38	310		
	⇨ Goats	47	1650		
	⇨ Pig	61	1175		
	Increase in milk [production (Ltr)			• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • DLSO	❖ If the programes implemented
	⇨ Per local cow	2	4		
	⇨ Per improved cow	8	12		
	⇨ Per buffalo local	3	6		
	⇨ Per buffalo improved	7	11		

Major Activities

Irrigation ⇨ Construction of new irrigation scheme ⇨ Repair of existing irrigation ⇨ Dam Construction ⇨ Repair of distributive outlet. ⇨ Watershed conservation ⇨ Construction of Lohandra irrigation Scheme ⇨ Deep tubewell installation	⇨ Construction of 6.5 km. canal (500 Bigaha) ⇨ Repair of 25 km. canal (1,455 Bigaha) ⇨ Construction of 15 dams ⇨ Repair of 3 distributive outlet ⇨ Watershed conservation of Madaha river and Bhulke spring ⇨ Demand at the central level ⇨ 6 deep tubewell will be demanded from the central level
Seed multiplication program ⇨ Yearly hybrid seed production ⇨ Yearly seed production training ⇨ Nursery establishment	⇨ 4.85 Bigaha (paddy-5, wheat-5, mustard-2, and vegetable 85) ⇨ 40 people ⇨ 4 of both vegetable and fruits

Log Frame 1 (cont'd.)

Agriculture extension and training	
⇨ Training ⇨ Group Formation ⇨ Farmers' tour ⇨ Field demonstration ⇨ Demonstration and competition ⇨ Market development (weekly) ⇨ Construction of cold storage	⇨ 281 persons (Agriculture, fruits, vegetable) ⇨ 41 groups (Agriculture, vegetable, Fruits and livestock farmers) ⇨ 212 persons (Agriculture, vegetable, Fruits and livestock farmers) ⇨ 37 No (Agriculture groups) ⇨ 20 No (Vegetable and livestock development) ⇨ 2 Times (Friday and Saturday) ⇨ One (Demand at the central level).
Livestock Development ⇨ Orchard promotion	⇨ 223.3 Hectares (Mango, Banana, Jackfruit, Litchi, Papaya and mised)
Livestock Development ⇨ Breed improvement ⇨ Livestock feed and health ⇨ Livestock insurance programme	⇨ Distribution of improved livestock (he buffalo 3, bulls 7, he goats, 12 pig, 7) ⇨ Seed and sapling distribution for winter and summer grass ⇨ Training for 6 persons as livestock health workers ⇨ Parasite control and vaccination (29 no) ⇨ Veterinary extension program (5 times) ⇨ Mobile team for treatment (20 times) ⇨ Establishment of medical fund (2 no) ⇨ Livestock insurance program (no of livestock 750)

Log Frame 2. Transportation

Summary of Programmes	Objectively Verifiable Indicators			Basis of Justification	Risk Factors
Sectoral objective: Road network including all clusters of VDC will be developed that will help in achieving the objective of agricultural road.	⇨ Black topped road 1.5, Gravel 8.5 km, Muddy road 29 km, installation of 52 culverts and 75 hum-pipe and 2 km drainage development during 2005/2006.			• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • District road office	
Results: 1. By the development of road and transportation network, people will have access to transport agricultural commodities.	Transportation development (km)	2058/59	2063/64	• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • District road office	❖ If people's participation mobilized. ❖ Subject to the assistance provided by the concerned agencues.
	⇨ Black topped	1.5	1.5		
	⇨ Gravel	22.50	48.5		
	⇨ Muddy road	37	29		
	⇨ Drainage & sewerage	-	2		
	⇨ Culvert construction (no)	-	52		
	⇨ Installation of hum-pipe	-	75		

Major Activities

⇨ New road construction	⇨ 18 km (20 roads including all wards)
⇨ Repair of existing ones	⇨ 25 km (all roads in each ward)
⇨ Gravel	⇨ 26 km (27 roads of all wards)
⇨ Culvert installation	⇨ 52 culvert / Hume-pipe
⇨ Hum-pipe	⇨ 75 hum-pipes installation in different places
⇨ Drainage and sewerage construction	⇨ 2 km (major places in each wards)

Log Frame 3. Forest and Soil Conservation

Summary of Programmes	Objectively Verifiable Indicators	Basis of Justification	Risk Factors
Sectoral objective: VDC environment will be improved after proper utilization of land, forest and soil conservatinn	⇨ By 2005/2006 public forest will be increased to 266 ha. Massive plantation of trees in river banks and public land, herbs plantation in 7.5 ha. land.	• VDC profile • PDMS • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • District forest office	
Results: 1. Forest management will be improved by protecting forest encroachment	**Development of Greenery** **2058/59** **2063/64** ⇨ Public forest (ha) 234 500 ⇨ Public protected forest (ha) 468 468 ⇨ Forest nursery (no) 1 2	• VDC profile • PDMS • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • District forest office	❖ If saplings are made available at the local level.
2. There will have been soil conservation river control program.	River damage control ⇨ Stone filling in gabion-wire (km). - 2 ⇨ Plantation in the bank of canals - 5850	• VDC profile • PDMS • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • District forest office	❖ If saplings are made available at the local level.
3. Income level will be improved by increased production in herbs.	Herbs production ⇨ Herbs production (ha)). 2 75	• VDC profile • PDMS • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • District forest office	❖ If saplings are made available at the local level.

Major Activities

⇨ Forest development	⇨ Extension of private forest ⇨ Formation of forest user groups (9) ⇨ Training to 45 persons
⇨ Soil conservation	⇨ Stone filling in Gabion-wire (2 kms) ⇨ Plantation on the bank of canals
⇨ Greenery program	⇨ Plantation on both sides of roads (1-9 wards) ⇨ Plantation in the schools' compound
⇨ Herbs development	⇨ Herbs production (7.3 Ha. of land)
⇨ Forest protection	⇨ Smokeless stove-making training (for 9 persons) ⇨ Smokeless stove distribution (2200 persons)

Log Frame 4. Information and Communication

Summary of Programmes	Objectively Verifiable Indicators	Basis of Justification	Risk Factors
Sectoral objective: Basic facilities of information and communication will be available.	⇨ By the end of 2006, VDC will have two newspaper reading centres, one public information centre, availability of 9 types of news papers, two post boxes and extension of 50 line telephone.	• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • Telecommunication corporation • District post office	
Results: 1. Basic facilities of information and communication will be made available in the VDC.	**Facilities for information.** 2000/01 2005/06 *Papers (Nos).* ⇨ Daily 3 6 ⇨ Weekly 1 3 ⇨ Newspaper reading centre. - 2 ⇨ Public information centre - 1 **Development of communication (No)** ⇨ Post office 1 2 ⇨ Telephone - 50 ⇨ PCO 4 4	• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • Telecommunication corporation • District post office	❖ Subject to the assistabce provided by the concerned agencies.

Major Activities

⇨ Development of basic facilities of information and communication	⇨ Construction of post office building (in ward 9 Salakpur) ⇨ Additional one room construction in existing post office building ⇨ Establishment of 2 newspaper reading center (Salakpur and Mirgauliya) ⇨ Establishment of one Information centre (Mirgauliya) ⇨ Extension of telephone line (50 telephones in ward no 2,6 and 9)

Log Frame 5. Electrification

Summary of Programmes	Objectively Verifiable Indicators	Basis of Justification	Risk Factors
Sectoral objective : Every household will have access to electricity facility.	⇨ By fiscal year 2005/2007 ,50 percent households of each wards will have electricity facility.	• VDC profile • PDMS • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • Nepal electricity authority	
Results: 1. Electric facility will be extended to every ward and community of the VDC.	**2001/02 2005/06** Extension of rural electricity (Home no.) 626 1,226	• VDC profile • PDMS • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • Nepal electricity authority	❖ Subject to the assistabce provided by the concerned agencies.

Major Activities

⇨ Extension of electricity	⇨ 600 households of 1-5 wards
⇨ Management of electricity pole	⇨ Purchase of electric pole ⇨ Protection and management electric of pole

Log Frame 6. Social Service - Education

Summary of Programmes	Objectively Verifiable Indicators			Basis of Justification	Risk Factors
Sectoral Objective: Quantitative and qualitative improvement of education will be increased.	⇨ Formation of educational quality (control) committee, establishment of two libraries and addition of 50 trained teachers will enhance the quality improvement in educational sector. All school going children will attend school, literacy rate in women will reach 80 percent and almost all males will be literate during fiscal year 2005/06.			• VDC profile • PDMS • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • District education office	❖ If appropriate coordination between Government and Non-government organization prevails.
Results: 1. Forest management will be improved by protecting forest encroachment	**Schooling children's in percent** ⇨ Children	**2000/01** 88	**2005/06** 100	• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • District education office	❖ Subject to the assistance provided by the concern agencies.
2. Literacy rate will be increased.	**Literacy rate** ⇨ Female ⇨ Male	 55 82	 80 100	• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • District education office	❖ If increase of educational awareness prevails.
3. Quality of education will be improved by managing educational material physical infrastructure and mobilizing trained teacher.	**Quality improvement of education** ⇨ Number of trained teachers ⇨ Number of library ⇨ Percentage of SLC passed	 45 - 46	 95 2 75	• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • District education office	❖ Subject to the assistance provided by the concern agencies.

Major Activities

⇨ Formal education	⇨ "Send your children to school" campaign (20 times) ⇨ Door to door program to aware to guardian (20 times)
⇨ Informal education	⇨ Adult literacy program for male and female (number 2700) ⇨ Post literacy program for male and female (number 1620)
⇨ Development of educational quality	⇨ Extension of telephone line (50 telephones in ward no 2,6 and 9) ⇨ Library establishment (number 2) ⇨ Training for teachers (50 persons) ⇨ Provision of teachers (35 primary level and 2 secondary level) ⇨ Formation of quality education committee (one)

Log Frame 6 (cont'd.)

Major Activities

⇨ Scholarship package	⇨ Boys- 250, Girls 300 and Dalit for 175.
⇨ Infrastructure development	⇨ School building construction (Number 3) ⇨ School building maintenance (Number 11) ⇨ Provision of furniture and repairing. ⇨ Drinking water provision in school (Number 2) ⇨ Toilet construction in school (Number 13) ⇨ Boundary and wall in school (Number 13)
⇨ Sports development	⇨ Play-ground construction (Number 1) ⇨ Sports training (5 times)
⇨ Upgrading of school	⇨ One school upgrading into lower secondary to secondary (Number 1)

Log Frame 7. Social Service - Health

Summary of Programmes	Objectively Verifiable Indicators	Basis of Justification	Risk Factors
Sectoral Objectives: Qualitative health services will be developed and expanded.	⇨ During 2005/2006 male and female health workers will be increased by 3 and 9 respectively. Programes like construction of a sub-health post building, one health care centre in each ward, extension of vaccination, health check up, family planning and child and maternity programs will be conducted. This will improve peoples' health.	• VDC profile • PDMS • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • District health office • Family planning	
Results: 1. Primary health organization will be equipped with infrastructure, medicines and trained manpower.	**Development of health service** — 2000/01 — 2005/06 ⇨ Male — 2 — 5 ⇨ Female — 9 — 18 ⇨ Sub-health post building (No.) — - — 1 ⇨ Ward level health care centre (No.) — - — 9	• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • District health office	❖ If necessary support is provided by the concerned agency.
2. Prevention against infectious disease for children and others will be extended.	**Vaccination services** ⇨ BCG, DPT, Polio, Measles, Vitamin A — National Prog. — Continue ⇨ Hepatitis B — National Prog. — Continue ⇨ Encephalitis — National Prog. — Continue ⇨ TT vaccine for women — National Prog. — Continue ***Helath check-up program (No.)*** ⇨ Tuberculosis check-up — - — 100 ⇨ Leprosy check-up — - — 120	• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • District forest office	❖ If necessary support is provided by the concerned agency.
3. Quality of education will be improved by managing educational material physical infrastructure and mobilizing trained teacher.	**Volunteers training (No.)** ⇨ Women health volunteer training — - — 45 ⇨ Midwives' remuneration — - — 45 Population control Persons using family planning *Permanent* ⇨ Female — 825 — 1,300 ⇨ Male — 89 — 300 *Temporary* ⇨ Female — 410 — 900 ⇨ Male — 625 — 1,300	• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • District forest office	❖ If necessary support is provided by the concerned agency.

Log Frame 7 (cont'd.)

Major Activities

⇨ Health service	⇨ Construction of sub-health post building (No. 1) ⇨ Management of Chiram memorial health foundation (No. 1) ⇨ Establishment of health remedy center in each ward to VDC (No. 9) ⇨ Volunteer health worker training for rural women (No. 9) ⇨ Provision of remuneration for midwife (No. 9) ⇨ Medicine procurement subsidy to the sub health post.
⇨ Vaccination service and health check up	⇨ Vaccination service (BCG, DPT, Polio, TT, Vitamin A, Hepatitis B, Measles, Encephalitis ⇨ TB and leprosy check up (220)
⇨ Family planning and people's awareness programme	⇨ Family planning camp (3 times) ⇨ Distribution of contraceptives ⇨ Construction of Youth Association building of family planning ⇨ Hording board (No 9) ⇨ Distribution of phamplets and posters (No. 1000)

Log Frame 8. Social service - Drinking Water, Sanitation and Nutrition

Summary of Programmes	Objectively Verifiable Indicators	Basis of Justification	Risk Factors
Sectoral Objectives: Potable water available for all. Sanitation and nutritional status will be improved.	⇨ Distribution and expansion of adequate number of tube wells and tap water program in every household will fetch potable water easily. Ninety percent households will have toilet facilities. Three public toilets will constructed in different places. Thus situation of drinking water and nutritional, sanitation will be improved within the fiscal year of 2005/06.	• VDC profile • PDMS • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • DDWO	
Results: 1. By the installation of new tap and tube well for drinking water, and repair of old tap will easily facilitate access to safe drinking water for all.	**Improved drinking water** **2000/01** **2005/06** ⇨ Number of households using tube well for drinking water 2440 2451 ⇨ Number of household having own tube well 1450 2451 ⇨ Expansion of new tube well/tap - 300 ⇨ Repair of existing tube well - 79	• VDC profile • PDMS • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • DDWO	❖ Subject to the assistance provided by the concerned agencies.
2. Nutritional and sanitation condition will be remarkably improved.	⇨ Improvement of sanitation ⇨ Number of households having toilet 690 2201 ⇨ Number of public toilet - 3	• VDC profile • PDMS • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • DDWO	❖ Subject to the assistance provided by the concerned agencies.

Major Activities

⇨ Provision of drinking water	⇨ New water tap expansion (number 300 Salakpur DWP) ⇨ Distribution of tube well (number 1001) ⇨ Quality check up campaign (6 times)
⇨ Sanitation and nutrition	⇨ Construction of public toilets (No. 3) ⇨ Construction of private toilets (No 1511) ⇨ Sanitation campaign (10 times) ⇨ Training on how to make compost pit (30 persons) ⇨ Rally for sanitation awareness (10 times) ⇨ Nutritional Food Awareness training (27 persons) ⇨ Kitchen garden training for 27 persons

Log Frame 9. Social Service - Social Welfare Protection

Summary of Programmes	Objectively Verifiable Indicators	Basis of Justification	Risk Factors
Sectoral Objectives: Helpless, elderly and disabled citizens will be respected and protected. Local cultural heritage will be promoted and protected.	⇨ Under the social welfare protection program, renovation of temples, construction of rest and waiting shed, construction of cemetery, establishment of elderly garden, formation of welfare association for the blind and disabled/within the fiscal years 2005/06.	• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • Department Archeology • Social service coordination council	
Results: 1. Cultural heritage will be protected. Waiting shed will be constructed.	**Development of physical infrastructure** **2000/01** **2005/06** ⇨ Temple repair/maintenance - 9 ⇨ Rest place (Chautari) repair/maintenance - 11 ⇨ Waiting shed construction - 1 ⇨ Bhulke conservation multipurpose plan - 1 ⇨ Ethnic cultural programmes (times) - 15 ⇨ Cemetery construction - 1	• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • Department Archeology • Social service coordination council	❖ Subject to the assistance provided by the concerned agencies. ❖ Drinking water scheme if completed in the time.
2. Basic social security will be provided to the elderly and disabled people.	⇨ Elderly garden establishment - 1 ⇨ Construction of building for blind/disabled association - 1	• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • Department Archeology • Social service coordination council	❖ Subject to the assistance provided by the concerned agencies.

Major Activities

⇨ Temple and social infrastructure development	⇨ Temple construction and maintenance (Number 9) ⇨ Rest place (Chautari) construction and maintenance (Number 11) ⇨ Elderly garden construction (Number 1) ⇨ Cemetery construction (1) ⇨ Building construction for the welfare association of blind and disabled.
⇨ Development of tourism	⇨ Bhulke conservation multipurpose plan expansion (1)
⇨ Development of language and culture	⇨ Ethnic cultural programmes (15 times)

Log Frame 10. Trade, Cottage and Small Industries

Summary of Programmes	Objectively Verifiable Indicators	Basis of Justification	Risk Factors
Sectoral Objectives: Skill-oriented training programmes will be conducted for the socially and economically disadvantaged group.	⇨ Growth of skilled manpower by 59 percent and operation of 8 co-operatives firms will help to reduce unemployment problems during fiscal year 2005/06.	• VDC profile • PDMS • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • District cottage and small industry office	
Results: 1. Economic condition of disadvantaged group will be improved by implementing income generating, and skill-oriented training programs.	**Promotion of skill oriented programmes** 2000/01 2005/06 **Number of skilled manpower** ⇨ Male 287 457	• VDC profile • PDMS • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • District cottage and small industry office	❖ Subject to the assistance provided by the concerned agencies.
2. Income generating programme will enhance their livelihood.	**Number of income generating programme** ⇨ Male - 22 ⇨ Female - 8	• VDC profile • PDMS • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • District cottage and small industry office	❖ Subject to the assistance provided by the concerned agencies.

Major Activities

⇨ Income generating programs	⇨ Agri. tool production and maintenance training for 9 persons. ⇨ Radio, watch, T.V. repair and maintenance training for 3 persons. ⇨ Cottage industries for snacks training (Dalmoth, Bhujiya) for 4 persons ⇨ Grill workshop training for 6 persons
⇨ Skill oriented programs	⇨ Training for (Barber 20, house wiring 20, TV 20, snacks 20, girding mill 20, grill welding 20, board panting 10, photography 10, house painting 20 and install of tube well 10 persons)
⇨ Development of Coperatives	⇨ Number of saving & credit - 8 ⇨ Number of dairy and vegetable production- 3 ⇨ Number of market development - 3

Log Frame 11. Women Development and Gender Equality

Summary of Programmes	Objectively Verifiable Indicators			Basis of Justification	Risk Factors
Sectoral Objectives: Non discriminatory society will be developed by protecting women rights.	⇨ The existing situation of gender inequality will be minimized due to additional 296 skilled women. It will enhance self-reliance in women during the fiscal year of 2005/2006.			• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • Women development profile • District CMI office	
Results: 1. Women empowerment will reduce existing gender discrimination.	<u>06</u> ⇨ Situation of gender discrimination	<u>2000/01</u> Moderate	<u>2005/</u> Low	• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • Women development profile • District CMI office	❖ Subject to the assistance provided by the concern agencies.
2. Income generating program will enhance their livelihood.	⇨ Number of skilled women manpower ⇨ Number of women involvement in income generating programmes	73 13	369 118	• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • Women development profile • District CMI office	❖ Subject to the assistance provided by the concerned agencies.

Major Activities

⇨ Group formation	⇨ Number of ward level group- 9
⇨ Skill-oriented training	⇨ Training (goat farming 27, pig farming 27, api-culture 27, pickle making 27, mushroom farming 20, Potato chips making 27, sewing/cutting 24, snack making 27, fabrics painting 27, cane and bamboo works 27, beauty parlor 10 persons)
⇨ Tour and interaction programs	⇨ Study tour for 100 persons ⇨ Group interaction program (10 times)
⇨ Gender equality programmes	⇨ Gender training (10 times) ⇨ Alcohol control campaign (10 times) ⇨ Restriction on gambling (10 times) ⇨ Gender equality rally (10 times) ⇨ Reproductive health education for guardian (10 times) ⇨ Women rights and legal education training (10 times) ⇨ Rural women journalism training (5 persons) ⇨ Interaction between women group and VDC (15 times)

Log Frame 12. Child Development

Summary of Programmes	Objectively Verifiable Indicators			Basis of Justification	Risk Factors
Sectoral Objectives: Physical and mental development of children will be improved.	⇨ Establishment of minimum one pre-primary school in each ward of VDC. Two children parks will be established. Parent education programme will be conducted in every year during the fiscal years 2005/2006.			• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • Women development profile • District education office • UNICEF report	
Results: 1. Child welfare development will be institutionalized.		2000/01	2005/06	• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • Women development profile • District education office • UNICEF report	❖ Subject to the assistance provided by the concerned agencies.
	⇨ Number of pre-primary school	-	9		
	⇨ Number of children park	-	2		
2. Health and nutrition condition of children will be improved.	⇨ Education for parent (times)	-	5	• VDC profile • Midterm M & E report • Final evaluation report • Women development profile • District education office • UNICEF report	❖ Subject to the assistance provided by the concerned agencies.

Major Activities

⇨ Child education and child development programs	⇨ Establishment of pre-primary school (Number 9) ⇨ Education for parent (5 times) ⇨ Establishment of children park (Number 3)

Key Comments

- The paper addresses areas of tremendous concern and relevance to community-based monitoring system and has a potential for radically changing 48 programming acts in the country.
- What needs to be done is to put some focus on the paper and delete or revise some parts of the paper to prevent it from becoming something like a project status report.
- Nepal's poverty and development indicator system is very different from the usual CBMS indicators. This is partly because Nepal's information gathering approach is through focus group discussions at the ward level rather than individual household interviews.
- It would be most useful to the CBMS teams to explain how Nepal's information set, which are simple to collect, easy to interpret and has little or no room for subjective judgment, approximates those of the usual CBMS indicators.
- Some of the indicators are culture-specific and it would be nice to know why those were chosen and how useful they are in looking at who the poor and nonpoor are.
- The different ways of listing information are particularly useful in the case of Nepal as compared to the usual income and expenditures questions.
- There are trade-offs in this kind of question especially if it is asked at the community level. Provide explanation in greater detail how this information set can determine, in the community, the status of poverty and development in the ward and district levels.
- On nutrition, it will be useful to understand if there is a relationship between a household that buys 100 or more kg of cereals and the household nutritional status.
- The poverty and development indicators were used as basis in the preparation of village development plans. The paper should explain how these indicators were exactly used in the preparation of the

plan. How are the targets and priorities set? Were there in fact priorities and how did the outcomes relate to the inputs set out for the investment program?

- This is a major experiment for the use of CBMS type of data for development planning. The usefulness of the CBMS database to the local planning exercise could therefore be presented in greater detail.
- It will be useful to discuss whether there are weaknesses to the current CBMS system that needs to be strengthened in order to make it more useful to local planning and development.
- Were those five-year development plans used? Were the national development plans used in the development of the national investment progams, especially for the ODA planning?
- If the plans have been used, what are the impacts in terms of production welfare of villagers in such a way that the poor gets the voice in actual development planning and investment programming? Through this, the potential usefulness of CBMS at the international level can be seen.
- Bring out how different the allocations are compared to the investment allocation at the national level since these things are what make this revolutionary.
- Giving more voice to the poor shows a completely different investment allocation than what the national government and the donor community accept.
- The paper gives some results that could radically change the dynamics of ODA programming especially in least developed countries.
- The paper should focus in greater detail on the indicator system and its use for local development planning.
- For community planning level, the results presented are very compelling from the perspective of the political constraint that one is under.
- Compare the kind of indicators that CBMS collects and the kind of indicators at the national level that the PRSP is trying to gather.

This will give an entry point to feed in into data that are being collected at the national level or the different levels.

- Based on the scope of some of the CBMS work feeding into monitoring the process of the PRSP, one can hold the government at the different levels more accountable to what they are set up to do.
- The paper needs to go a bit further into the resistance on the use of CBMS methodology. This is very important and should not be pushed aside.
- There are resource constraints and these are very important to support within the context of the PRSP. This is important within the context of the government assistance community and the various priorities that they have.

Dimensions of Poverty of the Indigenous People

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Introduction

The period 1995-2004 was proclaimed by the international community as the International Decade of the World's Indigenous People (IP). The proclamation was made to focus on issues of concern to indigenous people and to allow the decade to serve as a time frame to assess indigenous people's needs and accelerate the correction of situations in which indigenous people are at a disadvantage. It also intends to offer a framework for the launching of activities and the promotion of progress for indigenous people as well as to provide an opportunity to bring about tangible improvements in the lives of indigenous communities. In particular, the Decade aims to strengthen international cooperation for the solution of problems faced by IP in such areas as human rights, environment, development, health, culture and education.

Their marginalization and exclusion from the mainstream political, economic, and social spheres prompted indigenous people to lobby and have their concerns included in a number of international meetings and global conferences such as the UN Conference on Environment

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and Development, World Conference on Human Rights, the International Conference on Population and Development, the World Summit for Social Development and the World Conference on Women. In all of these conferences, issues of the IP around the world were discussed. Governments were requested to implement recommendations relating to IP and adopt national legislation to protect and promote their rights.

In the Philippines, indigenous people are identified as among those groups in society who are vulnerable to various policy shocks. One of the challenges for the national government spelled out in the Medium Term Philippine Development Plan 2001-2004 is to provide economic opportunities to uplift majority of the IP from poverty.

In this regard, two key issues need to be clarified and answered. Is the incidence of poverty for IP communities more serious than for other sectors of the national population? Are there arguments for targeting poverty reduction programs specifically for indigenous population?

To address these issues, it is crucial to have information on what the conditions of the indigenous people are in the Philippines, how many they are and where they are. Unfortunately, there are no official statistics to provide the necessary information. The statistical system has not acted on the repeated requests by the IP advocates for the need to conduct a census of IP to ensure their inclusion in the demographic data of the country.

In the absence of official statistics to assess the level and extent of human development conditions of indigenous people, this study shall attempt to describe their status based on household level-data gathered through the community-based monitoring system (CBMS) being implemented in selected localities in the country. The CBMS provides information on the different dimensions of poverty. For the purposes of the foregoing discussion, this version of the paper shall present initial results from the CBMS survey conducted in Barangay Isumbo, Southern Palawan. Eventually, this on-going research work under the Community-Based Monitoring System

(CBMS) Network Project shall expand its analysis of the status of IP in other CBMS sites.

IP in the Philippines: A historical background[1]

Indigenous people are regarded as those with a social or cultural identity distinct from the dominant or mainstream society which makes them vulnerable to being disadvantaged in the process of development (ADB, 2002).

In the Philippines, indigenous people are composed of a number of tribes found in various parts of the archipelago, mostly in the hinterlands where they are near nature. On account of centuries-long isolation, they have generally fallen behind the mainstream population in terms of socioeconomic development because of massive exploitation of discriminatory laws and development projects. It is mainly for this reason that the promotion of their general welfare and development has become a special concern of government.

In 1997, the Philippine Congress passed Republic Act 8371 entitled Indigenous People's Rights Act (IPRA), which uses the term "indigenous peoples" as the collective label for non-Christian and non-Muslim ethnic groups in the Philippines (WB, 2002). The indigenous population of the Philippines comprises a wide range of different groups that vary in terms of settlement patterns, economic subsistence, social structure, stratification and sociopolitical organization as well as articulation with the wider society. These groups are found within three major geographical areas, namely, Luzon, Visayas and Mindanao. No exact figures exist regarding the aggregate number of the indigenous population or even the number of distinct indigenous groups in the country.

According to the National Commission on Indigenous People (NCIP), the total population of indigenous peoples in the Philippines in 1998 was estimated to be between 12 and 15 million (ADB, 2002). Sixty-one percent (61%) of them are in Mindanao while 33 percent reside in Luzon. The remaining 6 percent are scattered among the

[1] Drawn from the Primer of the National Commission on Indigenous People.

Visayan islands. The Philippines was divided into seven ethnographic areas as set by the IPRA for representation in the NCIP:

- Region 1 and Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR)
- Region II
- The rest of Luzon (Regions III, IV (part), and V)
- Island groups (Regions IV (part), VI, VII, and VIII)
- Northern and Western Mindanao - Regions IX (Zamboanga Peninsula) and X (Northern Mindanao)
- Southern and Eastern Mindanao - Regions XI (Davao Region) and XIII (Caraga)
- Central Mindanao - Region XII (SOCCSARGEN)

Dimensions of poverty among IP groups

Poverty tends to have a disproportionately severe effect on indigenous people (UN, 1997). They tend to be among the poorest of the poor, the most vulnerable and the most deprived groups of society. Analysis of poverty among indigenous communities in several countries indicates several issues, including the following:

- *Lack of basic health services*: Indigenous communities are often deprived of basic health infrastructures.
- *Low level of education*: Most educational systems available to indigenous children do not take into account the traditional and cultural values of indigenous people. This has contributed to very high illiteracy rates among indigenous communities. Moreover, in general, indigenous people have less access to mainstream education than the population-at-large.
- *Non-protection of intellectual and cultural property rights*: Indigenous people have expressed concern that the knowledge they have gathered over centuries has been exploited commercially without their agreement.
- *Unemployment*: Indigenous communities generally suffer from a high rate of unemployment.
- *Human Rights*: For centuries, the basic human rights of indigenous people have been violated in many ways.

- *Land and resources:* Indigenous people have a particular relationship to the land and have been resisting relocation in some countries.
- *Self-determination:* Indigenous populations argue that they have the right to self-determination, to be able to determine freely their political status and consequently, to pursue their economic, social and cultural development.

In the case of the Philippines, various studies suggest that these same issues also affect the local IP communities. An assessment of poverty conditions of indigenous people in the Cordillera and Mindanao regions (ADB, 2002) indicate the following issues:

1. Income and employment
2. Water and sanitation
3. Basic education and literacy
4. Food security
5. Infrastructure
6. Participation in development process
7. Lack of material property

Based from anecdotal evidences, indigenous communities that have been relocated from their traditional communities and that have lost access to their land natural resources and other assets are likely to bear the burden of material poverty as well as social and cultural deprivation. The same is true for communities that have lost their livelihood as a consequence of mining, logging and similar extractive activities.

While there are no official poverty statistics relating to IPs, one can get some indication from existing data. For instance, ADB (2002) estimates that 99.9 percent of the population living in CAR (Cordillera Administrative Region) are IPs. If this is correct, then the profile of the population in the CAR reflects the situation of the IPs in CAR.

The poverty situation in the whole country did not improve significantly between 1988 and 2000 (Table 1). While poverty

incidence declined from 40.2 percent to 33.7 percent over the same period, the number of poor families actually increased from 4.23 million families in 1988 to 5.14 million families in 2000 owing to the population growth. In the CAR, the incidence of poverty declined from 41.9 percent in 1988 to 36.6 percent in 2000 but the number of poor families increased from 89,572 in 1988 to 100,698 in 2000. It therefore seems that the poverty situation in the CAR has in fact worsened more than the situation in the whole country.

Table 1
Magnitude and Incidence of Poor Families
for the Philippines and CAR: 1988, 1991, 1994, 1997 and 2000

Year	Poor Families			
	National		CAR	
	Magnitude	Incidence	Magnitude	Incidence
1988	4,230,484	40.2	89,572	41.9
1991	4,780,865	39.9	111,030	48.8
1994	4,531,170	35.5	122,942	51.0
1997	4,511,151	31.8	110,142	42.5
2000	5,139,565	33.7	100,698	36.6

Source of data: National Statistical Coordination Board (NSCB)

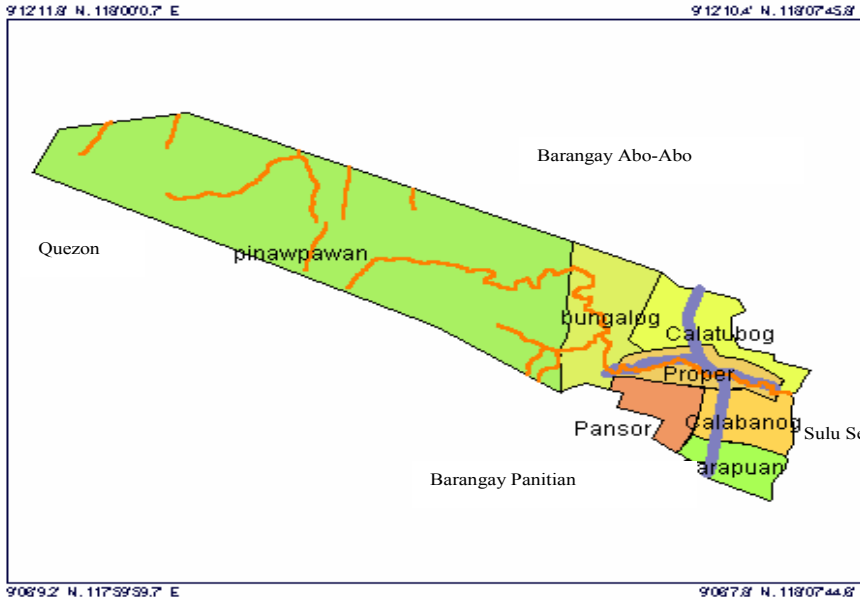
A CBMS case study of IPs in Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, Southern Palawan

This section attempts to shed light on the different dimensions of poverty affecting the indigenous people by examining one barangay in Palawan. This is part of an on-going study on the conditions of IPs in the CBMS sites.

The discussion is based on data gathered through the community-based monitoring system (CBMS) survey conducted in Barangay Isumbo in Sofronio Española, Palawan for the year 2002.

Barangay Isumbo (Figure 1) is noted to be one of the poorest communities in Española. It has a total land area of 44.12 square kilometers.

Figure 1
Spot Map of Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española



Demography

Barangay Isumbo has a total population of 1,941, as shown in Table 2. It consists of 442 households with an average household size of four. About 110 of these households are classified as Indigenous People (IP)-households.

The barangay is home to an indigenous community known as *Palawan*. The *Palawanos* comprises about 22.6 percent of the total population of the barangay. An IP household is usually composed of 4 members.

Table 3 shows that the greatest proportion of IP households in Barangay Isumbo is located in Puroks Pinawpawan (26.4%), Pansor (25.5%) and Bungalog (20.9%). The only purok in the barangay without the presence of an IP household is that of Calatubog.

Table 2
Demographic Characteristics of Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, 2001

Purok	Households	Population	Household Size
Total	442	1941	4.4
Bungalog	41	148	3.6
Calabanog	65	312	4.8
Calatubog	48	258	5.4
Carapuan	41	160	3.9
Pansor	47	195	4.1
Pinawpawan	70	260	3.7
Proper	130	608	4.7
Non-IP	332	1503	4.5
IP	110	438	4.0

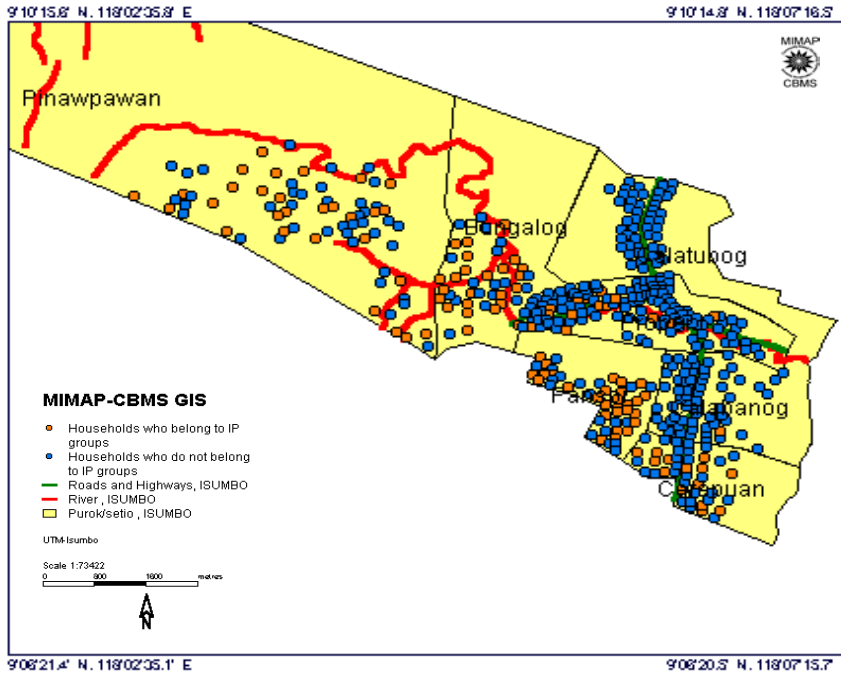
Table 3
Demographic Characteristics of Indigenous People in Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, 2001

Purok	Total Households	Total Population	Household Size
Total	110	438	3.9
Bungalog	23	93	4.0
Calabanog	1	4	4.0
Calatubog	0	0	–
Carapuan	14	55	3.9
Pansor	28	112	4.0
Pinawpawan	29	109	3.8
Proper	15	65	4.3

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

In terms of population distribution, the greatest proportion of Palawanos is found in Purok Pansor (25.6%), Purok Pinawpawan (24.9%) and Purok Bungalog (21.2%) as gleaned in Figure 2.

Figure 2
Distribution of IP Households by Purok



Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Economic activities

Forty-four percent of the population aged 15 years old and over in the barangay are in the labor force. Female labor force participation rate is considerably lower than for males. Data reveal that the entire labor force of the barangay is employed at the time of the survey (Table 4). As has often been cited, the poor cannot afford to be unemployed. However, the nature of employment in this particular barangay leaves much to be desired.

In general, farming is the main source of income in the barangay with 70 percent of the employed engaged in farming activities. Others are employed as laborers while 5.3 percent are engaged in fishing (Table 5).

Table 4
Employment and Underemployment by Purok and by Sex in Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, 2001

Purok	Population 15 years old and above	Labor Force Population	Labor Force Participation Rate	Number of Working Population 15 Years Old and Above	Employment Rate	Number of Underemployed	Underemployment Rate
Total	1108	484	43.7	484	100.0	457	94.4
Bungalog	85	46	54.1	46	100.0	41	89.1
Calabanog	188	82	43.6	82	100.0	79	96.3
Calatubog	149	57	38.3	57	100.0	53	93.0
Carapuan	97	41	42.3	41	100.0	39	95.1
Pansor	112	47	24.0	47	100.0	45	95.7
Pinawpawan	153	74	48.4	74	100.0	72	97.3
Proper	324	137	42.3	137	100.0	128	93.4
Male	582	429	73.7	429	100.0	414	96.5
Female	526	55	10.5	55	100.0	43	78.2
IP	253	121	47.8	121	100.0	113	93.4
Male	137	110	80.3	110	100.0	107	97.3
Female	116	11	9.5	11	100.0	6	54.6
Non-IP	855	363	42.5	363	100.0	344	94.8
Male	445	319	71.7	319	100.0	307	96.2
Female	410	44	10.7	44	100.0	37	84.1

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Table 5
Occupation of Employed Persons in
Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, 2001

Occupation	Total	Percent	IP	Percent	Non-IP	Percent
Farmer	340	69.8	94	77.0	246	67.4
Laborer	52	10.7	8	6.6	44	12.1
Fishermen	26	5.3	11	9.0	15	4.1
Businessman	17	3.5	5	4.1	12	3.3
Handicraft/textile maker	12	2.5	3	2.5	9	2.5
Others	40	8.2	1	0.8	39	10.7
Total	487	100.0	122	100.0	365	100.0

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Major agricultural crops being produced by farmers in the barangay are palay, corn and cassava. Farmers also engage in coconut farming and in growing some fruit plants and trees like *banana, mango, santol* and *lansones*.

The CBMS data reveal that 77 percent of the IP workers in the barangay are engaged in farming mostly in the uplands where they clear up timberlands. They also plant cassava, corn, palay, camote and bananas and grow coconuts and other fruit-bearing trees like mango and santol. IP workers are also active in backyard production, mostly taking care of chickens and pigs.

Aside from farming, IP workers are likewise engaged in other livelihood activities like fishing, gathering of forest products such as timber, honey and rattan, and small-scale handicraft making. The handicraft products are being sold in the marketplace in the barangay or in markets of its neighboring municipalities likew Narra and Brooke's Point. Some IP workers are reported to even travel as far as Puerto Princesa to sell their produce.

Ownership of land and farming implements

As noted in Table 6, of the 340 persons engaged in farming activities (from Table 5), 77.4 percent or 261 farmers have their own land. The

proportion of farmers who own agricultural lands is greater among IP farmers at 91.3 percent as compared to that of non-IPs at 72.2 percent. Whether ownership of land by the IPs refers, however, to the western type of titled land or to the traditional claim to ancestral land has to be verified.

Table 6
Number and Percent of Farmers Who Own Agricultural Land in Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, 2001

Own Agrigultural Land	Number	Percent
Total	261	77.4
IP	84	91.3
Non-IP	177	72.2

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Most farmers in the barangay still use common and traditional farming implements in their agricultural activities. More than 70 percent of farmers still use carabaos or cows. Most of the farmers also still use plows and harrows. Nonetheless, there is a small proportion of farmers who use modern implements such as threshers (38%), sprayers (37.7%), mowers (16%) and tractors (4.2%). Only a few, however, have access to farm facilities like granaries/warehouses (2.7%), farm sheds (0.9%), and irrigation pumps (0.9%) as shown in Table 7.

Comparing the access to farm implements and facilities between IP and non-IP farmers, one observes that non-IPs have greater access than IPs. IP farmers use more traditional implements like carabaos (69.6%), plow (57.6%) and harrows (32.6%), although quite a few do use insecticide/pesticide sprayers (18.5%), threshers (14.1%) and mowers (5.4%). However, IP farmers do not have access to tractors and facilities like granaries, farmsheds and irrigation pumps.

The farmers of Barangay Isumbo employ agricultural technologies to improve their crop yields. More than 50 percent of the farmers use pesticides and more than 30 percent use organic and inorganic fertilizers.

Table 7
Number and Percent of Farmers using Agricultural Implements in Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, 2001

Use Agricultural Implements	Total		IP		Non-IP	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Beast of burden	244	72.4	64	69.6	180	73.5
Plow	227	67.4	53	57.6	174	71.0
Harrow	165	49.0	30	32.6	135	55.1
Mower	54	16.0	5	5.4	49	20.0
Thresher	128	38.0	13	14.1	115	46.9
Insecticide/Pesticide Sprayer	127	37.7	17	18.5	110	44.9
Tractor	14	4.2	0	0.0	14	5.7
Granary/warehouse	9	2.7	0	0.0	9	3.7
Farmshed	3	0.9	0	0.0	3	1.2
Irrigation pumps	3	0.9	0	0.0	3	1.2

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Some IP farmers also employ these agricultural technologies although the proportion is lower compared to non-IP farmers. More than 20 percent of IP farmers use pesticides and high yielding crops and about 10 IP farmers use fertilizers in improving their farm yields (Table 8).

Table 8
Number and Percent of Farmers Adopting Agricultural Technologies in Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, 2001

Use of Agricultural Technologies	Total		IP		Non-IP	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
High yielding crops	115	34.3	21	22.8	94	38.7
Use of organic fertilizer	128	38.2	11	12.0	117	48.1
Use of inorganic fertilizer	102	30.5	10	10.9	92	38.0
Use of pesticides	178	53.3	23	25.0	155	64.0
Use of soil dressing	3	0.9	0	0.0	3	1.2

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Underemployment

Among the employed, data reveal that 94.4 percent desire to have additional work. Underemployment rate for males at 96.5 percent is much higher than that of females at 78.2 percent. Underemployment rate among IP is marked at 93.4 percent while that of non-IP is recorded at 94.8 percent.

Income

The high underemployment rate reflects the generally low income derived from the economic activities engaged in by the employed as seen in Table 9.

Poverty incidence

In terms of households, the survey results show that 88.7 percent of the households in the barangay are considered poor, indicating that these households do not earn enough to meet their basic food and nonfood requirements.[2]

Among the puroks, Table 10 shows that Purok Pinawpawan has the highest poverty incidence among households at 98.6 percent while Purok Calabanog exhibits the lowest poverty incidence with 78.5 percent. The same table indicates that higher poverty incidence was observed among IP households at 91.8 percent compared to that of non-IP households which was marked at 87.7 percent.

Table 11 compares the poverty incidence of IP households vis-à-vis non-IP households by purok. All IP households in Purok Pinawpawan and Purok Carapuan are poor. In the case of Purok Pansor, however, the poverty incidence of non-IP households is much higher at 100 percent compared to that of IP households.

Looking back at subsistence incidence in Table 10, 65.8 percent of the total households in the barangay do not have enough income to support

[2] The poverty status in terms of income of these households was examined vis-à-vis the poverty threshold for the province of Palawan which is P11,843 per capita. This was estimated for the year 2001 by adjusting for inflation the official threshold level for rural areas in Palawan in 2000.

Table 9
Summary Table of Total and Per Capita Income of Households in Barangay Isumbo, 2001

Total HH Income	Total		IP		Non-IP	
Average	29021.8		23853.9		30718.5	
Income Range	Magnitude	Proportion	Magnitude	Proportion	Magnitude	Proportion
Total	441	100.0	109	100.0	332	100.0
>1000 to <=8000	3	0.7	1	0.9	2	0.6
>8000 to <=15000	26	5.9	6	5.5	20	6.0
>15000 to <=22000	170	38.5	46	42.2	124	37.3
>22000 to <=29000	107	24.3	39	35.8	68	20.5
>29000 to <=36000	78	17.7	12	11.0	66	19.9
>36000 to <=43000	15	3.4	3	2.8	12	3.6
>43000 to <=50000	17	3.9	0	0.0	17	5.1
Above 50000	25	5.7	2	1.8	23	6.9

Per Capita Income	Total		IP		Non-IP	
Average	7660.0		7127.0		7835.0	
Income Range	Magnitude	Proportion	Magnitude	Proportion	Magnitude	Proportion
Total	441	100.0	109	100.0	332	100.0
>100 to <=3100	13	2.9	1	0.9	12	3.6
>3100 to <=6100	185	42.0	47	43.1	138	41.6
>6100 to <=9100	120	17.2	35	32.1	85	25.6
>9100 to <=12100	88	20.0	20	18.3	68	20.5
>12100 to <=15100	14	3.2	5	4.6	9	2.7
>15100 to <=18100	6	1.4	0	0.0	6	1.8
>18100 to <=21100	2	0.5	0	0.0	2	0.6
Above 21100	13	2.9	1	0.9	12	3.6

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Table 10
Poverty and Subsistence Incidence of Households in Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, 2001

Purok	Household	Magnitude Poor	Poverty Incidence	Magnitude of Subsistence Poor	Subsistence Iincidence
Total	442	392	88.7	291	65.8
Bungalog	41	33	80.5	21	51.2
Calabanog	65	51	78.5	45	69.2
Calatubog	48	44	91.7	34	70.8
Carapuan	41	38	92.7	31	75.6
Pansor	47	44	93.6	37	78.7
Pinawpawan	70	69	98.6	43	61.4
Proper	130	113	86.9	80	61.5
Male	413	366	88.6	281	68.0
Female	29	26	89.7	10	34.5
IP	110	101	91.8	71	64.5
Non-IP	332	291	87.7	220	66.3

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Table 11
Poverty Incidence of IP and non-IP Households by Purok, in Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, 2001

Purok	Number of IP Households	Magnitude of Poor IP Households	Poverty Incidence among IP Households	Magnitude of Poor Non-IP Households	Magnitude of Poor Non-IP Households	Poverty Incidence among NonIP Households
Total	110	101	91.8	332	291	87.7
Bungalog	23	19	82.6	18	14	77.8
Calabanog	1	0	0.0	64	51	79.7
Calatubog	0	0	—	48	44	91.7
Carapuan	14	14	100.0	27	24	88.9
Pansor	28	25	89.3	19	19	100.0
Pinawpawan	29	29	100.0	41	40	97.6
Proper	15	14	93.3	115	99	86.1

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

even their basic food needs.[3] Purok Pansor exhibited the highest subsistence incidence at 78.7 percent while Purok Bungalog recorded the lowest subsistence incidence at 51.2 percent. The same table and the figures in Table 12 show that the incidence of subsistence poverty among the IP households (64.5%) is lower compared to that of non-IP (66.3%).

Table 12
Subsistence Incidence of IP and non-IP households by Purok, Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, 2001

Purok	Number of IP Households	Magnitude of subsistence Poor IP Households	Subsistence Incidence among IP Households	Number of Non-IP Households	Magnitude of Subsistence Poor Non-IP Households	Subsistence Incidence among Non-IP Households
Total	110	71	64.5	332	220	66.3
Bungalog	23	12	52.2	18	9	50.0
Calabanog	1	0	0.0	64	45	70.3
Calatubog	0	0	—	48	34	70.8
Carapuan	14	11	78.6	27	20	74.1
Pansor	28	22	78.6	19	15	78.9
Pinawpawan	29	17	58.6	41	26	63.4
Proper	15	9	60.0	115	71	61.7

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Meanwhile, in terms of population, the poverty incidence in the barangay is estimated at 91.4 percent (Table 13). Across puroks, Purok Pinawpawan's population has the highest poverty incidence at 98.8 percent while Purok Calabanog has the lowest at 82.1 percent.

Barangay Isumbo's subsistence incidence is 78.2 percent with Purok Pansor again, just like in terms of households, recording the highest subsistence incidence of population at 85.6 percent and Purok Bungalog, the lowest at 71.6 percent.

Between the IP and non-IP population, the data show a greater proportion of subsistence poor among non-IP population than among IP (refer to both Tables 13 and 14).

[3] The 2001 subsistence threshold for rural areas in Palawan was estimated at P8,230.

Table 13
Poverty and Subsistence Incidence of Population in Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, 2001

Purok	Population	Magnitude of Poor	Poverty Incidence	Magnitude of Subsistence Poor	Subsistence lincidence
Total	1941	1774	91.4	1517	78.2
Bungalog	148	132	89.2	106	71.6
Calabanog	312	256	82.1	242	77.6
Calatubog	258	233	90.3	203	78.7
Carapuan	160	149	93.1	136	85.0
Pansor	195	184	94.4	167	85.6
Pinawpawan	260	257	98.8	199	76.5
Proper	608	563	92.6	464	76.3
Male	1035	941	90.9	814	78.6
Female	906	833	91.9	703	77.6
IP	438	416	95.0	341	77.9
Non-IP	1503	1358	90.4	1176	78.2

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Table 14
Subsistence Incidence of Population by Purok, Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, 2001

Purok	Number of IP	Magnitude of Subsistence Poor IP	Subsistence Incidence among IP	Number of Non-IP	Magnitude of Subsistence Poor Non-IP	Subsistence Incidence among NonIP
Total	438	341	77.9	1503	1176	78.2
Bungalog	93	71	76.3	55	35	63.6
Calabanog	4	0	0.0	308	242	78.6
Calatubog	0	0	—	258	203	78.7
Carapuan	55	50	90.9	105	86	81.9
Pansor	112	94	83.9	83	73	88.0
Pinawpawan	109	76	69.7	151	123	81.5
Proper	65	50	76.9	543	414	76.2

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Assets

Ownership of consumer durables

Previous MIMAP studies suggest that ownership of consumer durables correlates well with income. Households that are economically better off tend to acquire these assets. They provide a means for smoothing consumption in times of crisis.

The proportion of households that own radio sets is 48.3 percent while those owning stereo components is 11.1 percent. Five percent own refrigerators or freezers and a small proportion owns other amenities like electric fans, television, electric iron, washing machine and VCD/VHS/DVD players (Table 15).

Table 15
Percent of Households Owning Household Amenities in Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, 2001

Amenities	Total	Poor	Non-poor	IP	Non-IP
Radio	48.3	46.9	59.2	40.7	50.8
Stereo/Component	11.1	10.2	18.4	4.6	13.3
Television	4.3	3.8	8.2	0.0	5.7
VCD/VHS/DVD	3.6	2.8	10.2	0.0	4.8
Refrigerator/Freezer	5.0	3.8	14.3	0.0	6.6
Electric Fan	4.5	3.8	10.2	0.0	6.0
Electric Iron	4.3	3.8	8.2	0.9	5.4
Washing Machine	3.9	3.3	8.2	0.0	5.1
Microwave	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Telephone/Cellphone	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Aircon	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Vehicles					
truck	0.2	0.0	2.0	0.0	0.3
car	0.2	0.0	2.0	0.0	0.3
tricycle	2.3	1.5	8.2	0.0	3.0
jeep	0.2	0.0	2.0	0.0	0.3
jeepney	0.2	0.0	2.0	0.0	0.3
bike	7.5	6.9	12.2	2.8	9.1

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

IP households do not own many amenities. Only 41 percent of them own radios while 4.6 percent own stereo component. Only one IP household owns an electric iron.

In addition to low incomes, another reason why households in the area do not own many amenities is the low access to electricity in the area.

A small proportion of households owns vehicles but no IP households own motorized vehicles.

Education and literacy

Elementary school participation

The number of children aged 6-11 years old attending elementary school is 218, thereby registering an elementary participation rate of 63.9 percent. The elementary participation rate among females is higher compared to that for males, mirroring the pattern observed at the national level (Table 16).

Out of the 77 IP children aged 6-11 years old, only 32 attend elementary school. Elementary school participation rate among IP children is observed to be lower at 41.6 percent than that of non-IP children (70.5%).

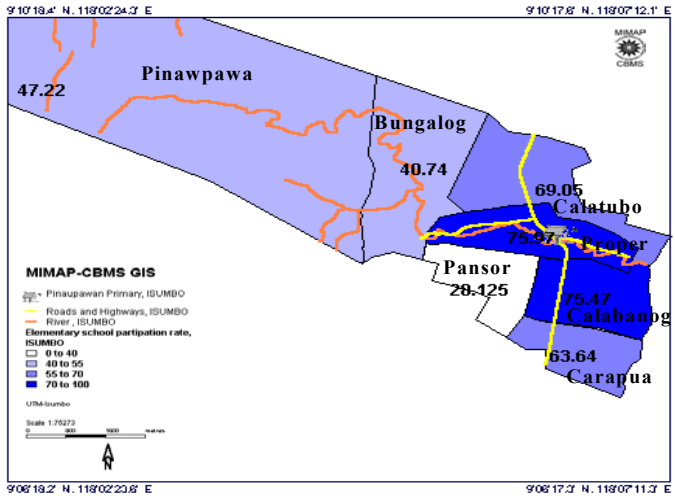
Table 16
Elementary Participation in Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, 2001

Purok	Children Aged 6-11 Years Old	Children Aged 6-11 Years Old in Elementary School	Participation Rate
Total	341	218	63.9
Male	187	115	61.5
Female	154	103	66.9
IP	77	32	41.6
Male	43	19	44.2
Female	34	13	38.2
Non-IP	264	186	70.5
Male	144	96	66.7
Female	120	90	75.0

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Among the puroks, Purok Proper has the highest elementary participation rate at 76 percent while Purok Bungalog has the lowest at 40.7 percent (Figure 3). It is not surprising that Purok Proper has the highest elementary participation rate because the only elementary school in the barangay is situated in this purok.

Figure 3
Elementary Participation Rate Across Purok, Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española



Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Secondary school participation

Only 81 out of the 173 children aged 12-15 years old in the barangay are in secondary school, indicating a secondary school rate of 46.8 percent. Just like at the national level, the secondary school participation rate is considerably lower than the elementary school participation rate. This is partly due to the absence of a secondary school in the barangay. The nearest high school is located at Barangay Abo-abo which is 2 kilometers away.

The secondary school participation rate among IP children is noted to be much lower at 11.1 percent compared to that of non-IP children (56.2%). What is striking is that no male IP aged 12-15 is attending secondary school (Table 17).

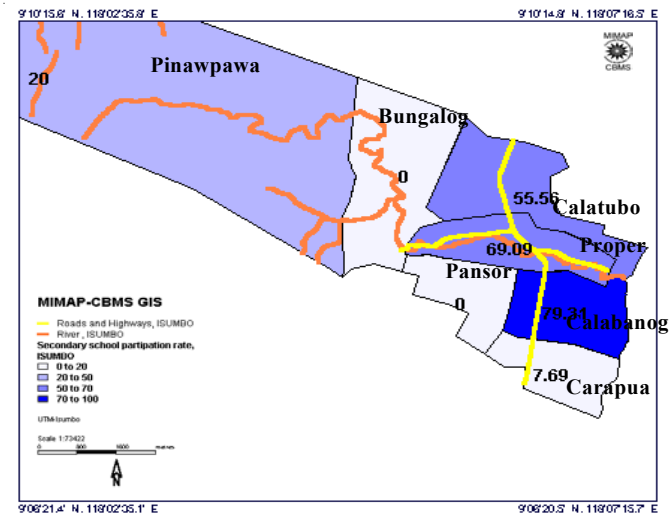
Table 17
Secondary Participation of IP and Non-IP Children in Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, 2001

Purok	Children Aged 12-15 Years Old	Children Aged 12-15 Years Old in Elementary School	Participation Rate
Total	173	81	46.8
Male	81	36	44.4
Female	91	45	49.5
IP	36	4	11.1
Male	17	0	0.0
Female	19	4	21.1
Non-IP	137	77	56.2
Male	65	36	55.4
Female	72	41	56.9

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Purok Calabanog has the highest secondary participation rate at 79.3 percent (Figure 4). All 12-15 year old children in Puroks Bungalog, and Pansor are not in secondary school.

Figure 4
Secondary Participation Rate Across Purok, Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española



Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

School participation rate of children 6-16 years old

Data on school participation rate of children 6-16 years old reveal that 64.1 percent are attending school. In general, school participation rate for non-IP children (70.8%) is much higher than that for IP children (41.4%) as shown in Table 18.

Table 18
Overall School Participation among IP and Non-IP Children in Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, 2001

Purok	Children Aged 6-16 Years Old	Children Aged 6-16 Years Old in School	Participation Rate
Total	548	351	64.1
Male	289	178	61.6
Female	255	173	67.8
IP	116	48	41.4
Male	63	25	39.7
Female	55	23	41.8
Non-IP	428	303	70.8
Male	229	153	66.8
Female	201	150	74.6

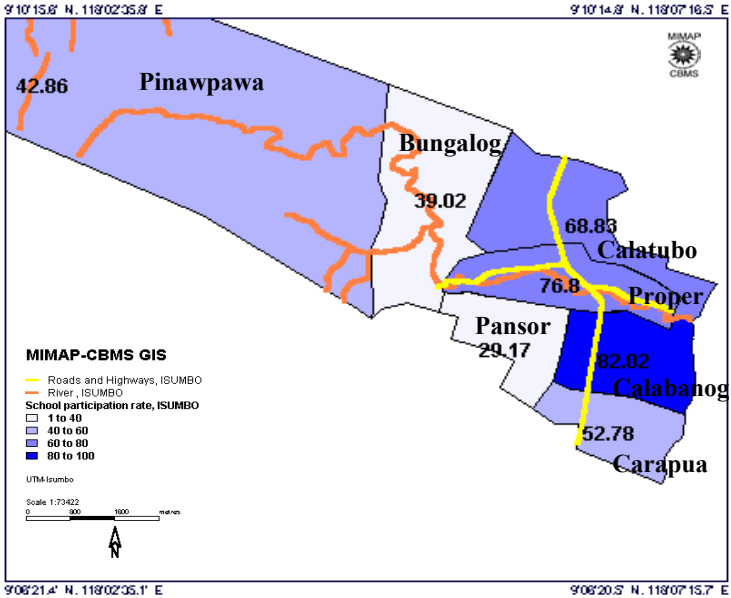
Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Meanwhile, data disaggregated between sex indicate that the school participation rate among females is higher than that of males for both IP and non-IP children.

Looking at data across puroks, meanwhile, Calabanog has the highest rate at 82 percent while Pansor has the lowest school participation rate at 29.2 percent (Figure 5).

Based on additional data gathered during the validation of the CBMS survey results, members of the community attribute the low school participation rate to poverty. It was revealed that many households do not have enough means to put their children to school. Another reason given is that some of the people start a family at a very young age.

Figure 5
School Participation Rate of Children Ages 6-16 Years Old
Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española



Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Literacy

Table 19 shows that 83 percent of the population in the barangay aged 10 years and over are literate. Literacy rate among males (85.7%) is observed to be higher, compared to that among females (80%) in the barangay. Meanwhile, literacy rate among the IP (61.6 percent) is noted to be much lower than that of non-IP.

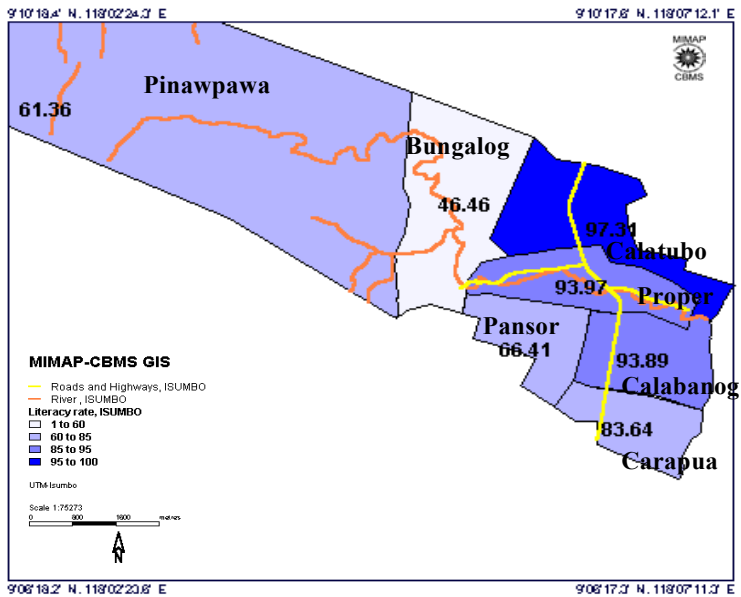
Purok Calatubog has the highest literacy rate at 97.3 percent followed by Purok Proper and Purok Calabanog with 94 percent each (Figure 6). Purok Bungalog has the lowest literacy rate at 46.5 percent.

Table 19
Number of Literate Person and Literacy Rate in Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, 2001

Purok	Person Aged 10 Years Old and Above	Literate Persons 10 Years Old and Above	Literacy Rate
Total	1326	1101	83.0
Male	692	593	85.7
Female	634	508	80.1
IP	294	181	61.6
Male	159	109	68.6
Female	135	72	53.3
Non-IP	1032	920	89.1
Male	533	484	90.8
Female	499	436	87.4

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Figure 6
Literacy Rate Across Puroks, Barangay Isumbo, Española



Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Health

Prevalence of malnutrition

Out of the 243 households with children 0-5 years old, there are only 12 households that have malnourished children. Only two IP households have malnourished children. Eleven households with malnourished children are poor households while ten out of these 11 households are subsistence poor.

Child deaths

Among the 52 infants counted in the survey, 53.9 percent are female. No infant deaths were reported. Meanwhile, among the barangay's 372 children aged 1-6 years old, no child deaths occured either.

Access to basic services

Access to safe drinking water

In terms of access to safe drinking water, 57.2 percent of the total number of households in the barangay enjoy this.[4] Only 36.4 percent of IP households, however, have such access as compared to 64.2 percent by non-IP households (Table 20).

Most households with access to safe drinking water get their water from community water system and deep wells. Those without such access get water from dug wells and bodies of water like river, spring and streams. Of the IP households who do not have access to safe drinking water, 39.1 percent get their water from dug wells while 22.7 percent get from rivers, streams and springs.

Purok Pinawpawan and Purok Bungalog have the lowest proportion of households with access to safe water at 8.6 percent and 9.8 percent, respectively. On the other hand, Purok Proper has the highest access to safe drinking water at 90.4 percent (Figure 7).

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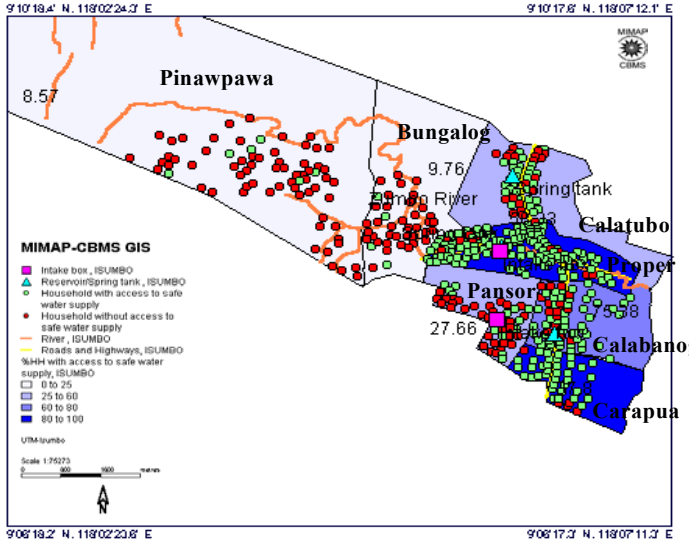
[4] Water systems considered to be safe water sources are community water systems, deep well and artesian wells.

Table 20
Number and Proportion of Households with Access to Safe Drinking Water Among IP and Non-IP Households in Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española

Purok	For IP			For Non-IP		
	Households	Number of Households with Access to Safe Drinking Water	Proportion of Households with Access to Safe Drinking Water	Households	Number of Households with Access to Safe Drinking Water	Proportion of Households with Access to Safe Drinking Water
Total	110	40	36.4	332	213	64.2
Bungalog	23	4	17.4	18	0	0.0
Calabanog	1	1	100.0	64	48	75.0
Calatubog	0	0	—	48	28	58.3
Carapuan	14	12	85.7	27	24	88.9
Pansor	28	6	21.4	19	7	36.3
Pinawpawan	29	3	10.3	41	3	7.3
Proper	15	14	93.3	115	103	89.6

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Figure 7
Access to Safe Drinking Water by Purok and Existing Water Sources in Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española



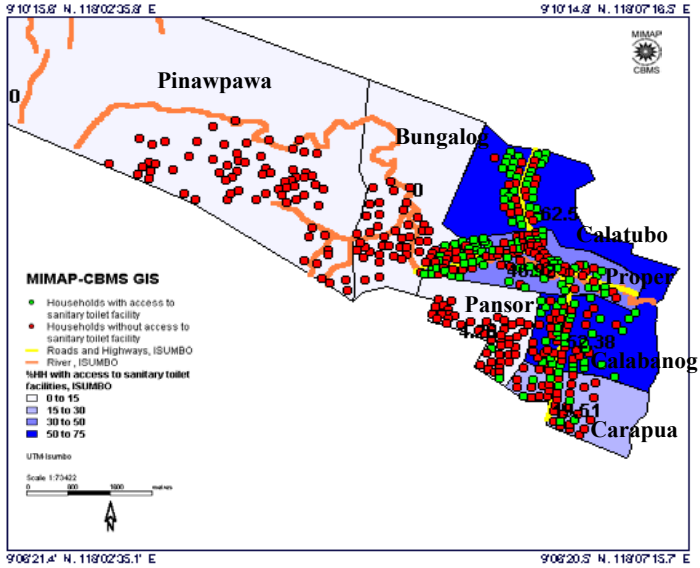
Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Access to sanitary toilet facility

In general, households in Barangay Isumbo have low access to sanitary toilet facilities, with only 30.5 percent of the households having access to the facility.[5]

Looking at the conditions across puroks in the barangay, Calatubog (62.5 %) ranks highest in terms of proportion of households with access to sanitary toilet facility followed by Purok Calabanog (52.3 %) and Purok Proper (46.9%) as shown in Figure 8. Conditions are relatively worse-off in Purok Carapuan and Purok Pansor wherein 19.5 and 4.3 percent, respectively, of their households have access to sanitary toilet facilities. Topping the list of problem areas concerning this indicator are Pinawpawan and Bungalog where all households have no access at all.

Figure 8
Access to Sanitary Toilet Facility in Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española



Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

[5] Households with access to sanitary toilet facilities refer only to households who own or who have access to water-sealed toilets.

In terms of IP households, in the meantime, Table 21 shows that only 8.2 percent among them have access to sanitary toilet facilities vis-à-vis the non-IP households' share of 38 percent.

Table 21
Number and Proportion of Households with Access to Sanitary Toilet Facilities Among IP and Non-IP Households in Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, 2001

Purok	For IP			For Non-IP		
	Households	Number of Households with Access to Sanitary Toilet Facilities	Proportion of Households with Access to Sanitary Toilet Facilities	Households	Number of Households with Access to Sanitary Toilet Facilities	Proportion of Households with Access to Sanitary Toilet Facilities
Total	110	9	8.2	332	126	38.0
Bungalog	23	0	0.0	18	0	0.0
Calabanog	1	1	100.0	64	33	51.6
Calatubog	0	0	—	48	30	62.5
Carapuan	14	1	7.1	27	7	25.9
Pansor	28	1	3.6	19	1	5.3
Pinawpawan	29	0	0.0	41	0	0.0
Proper	15	6	40.0	115	55	47.8

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Access to electricity

Only 12.4 percent of the households in the barangay have access to electricity as gleaned in Table 22. Most of these households are non-IPs. Meanwhile, out of the 110 IP households, only one has access to electricity. This is in Purok Proper. In contrast, 16.3 perent of the non-IP households enjoy access to electricity.

Shelter

Tenure status

Looking at the tenure status of households in the barangay in Table 23, about 96.6 percent of the households are formal settlers,[6] with the

[6] Formal settlers refer to those households occupying own house and lot, renting them from the owners, or occupying rent-free house and/or lots with consent of the owners.

Table 22
Number and Proportion of Households with Access to Electricity in Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, 2001

Purok	Households	Number of Households with Access to Electricity	Proportion of Households with Access to Electricity
Total	442	55	12.4
Bungalog	41	0	0.0
Calabanog	65	1	1.5
Calatubog	48	26	54.2
Carapuan	41	0	0.0
Pansor	47	0	0.0
Pinawpawan	70	0	0.0
Proper	130	28	21.5
Male	413	52	12.6
Female	29	3	10.3
IP	110	1	0.9
Non-IP	332	54	16.3

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

proportion of formal settlers among non-IP households relatively higher at 97.6 percent compared to 93.6 percent among IP households.

In general, there are only 15 households that were classified as squatters. Among the IP households, only 7 were classified as squatters.

Makeshift housing

Most households in the barangay live in non-makeshift housing (98.4%).[7] Only 1.6 percent of the households live in makeshift houses. Even among IP households, only 1.8 percent live in makeshift housing. This may be attributed to the abundance of forest products such as wood, a common material being utilized for the construction of houses of IP in the barangay.

[7] Non-makeshift housing are those houses made of strong and light materials.

Table 23
Number and Proportion of Households Who Are Formal Settlers in Barangay Isumbo, Sofronio Española, 2001

Purok	Households	Number of Households Who Are Formal Settlers	Proportion of Households Who Are Formal Settlers
Total	442	427	96.6
Bungalog	41	38	92.7
Calabanog	65	61	93.8
Calatubog	48	48	100.0
Carapuan	41	41	100.0
Pansor	47	45	95.7
Pinawpawan	70	69	98.6
Proper	130	125	96.2
Male	413	413	100.0
Female	29	29	100.0
IP	110	103	93.6
Non-IP	332	324	97.6

Source of data: CBMS Survey, 2002

Summary of findings

Based on the CBMS survey results in Barangay Isumbo as gleaned in Table 25, IP households/IPs in the community are found to have:

- High poverty incidence; higher than that of non-IP
- High subsistence poor incidence; lower than non-IP
- High underemployment rate
- Mostly engaged in farming activities
- Greater proportion of farmers who own land
- Low elementary school participation rate among children
- Low access to safe water
- Low access to sanitary toilet facilities
- Very low access to electricity

There was a marked difference in the poverty status of IP and non-IP based on income and non-income indicators gathered. In particular, there was a notable wide disparity in terms of literacy and elementary school participation rate and access to basic services such as safe water, sanitation facilities and electricity.

In terms of the income-based measure of poverty, the attribution of the condition of poor IP households seems not to differ much with that of non-IP households. In general, households classified as poor in the barangay are those whose main source of income is farming. Results from other CBMS sites regarding this indicator also point out that households involved in this type of activity often than not have very limited capacity to meet their basic food and non-food requirements.

One major reason relating to this is the seasonality of income-earning opportunities for these households. In addition, their situation is aggravated by poor access to infrastructure facilities such as roads and markets that would help these households to sell and get profit from their produce. This is particularly true in the case of IP communities that are usually located in the upland, miles away from the center of economic activity of a particular locality.

The condition of IPs in Barangay Isumbo, Palawan reinforces the general conclusions of the study conducted in the IP communities in the Cordillera and Mindanao regions in terms of the development areas of concern discussed in the earlier sections of this paper.

Recommendations

A major challenge in responding to the needs of IP communities is that of developing appropriate interventions, given their distinct culture and traditions.

Initial findings of the CBMS case study indicate a high level of poverty incidence among the indigenous people since most of them rely only on farming if not forestry activities as sources of livelihood. Given the seasonal nature of their source of income, this signals a need to expand economic opportunities for IP communities. The poor

Table 24
Summary Table of CBMS Indicators of Barangay Isumbo, 2001

Area of Concern		All Households	IP	Non-IP
A. Survival Health	1. Proportion of Infant deaths	0.0	0.0	0.0
	2. Proportion of Child deaths (1-6 years old)	0.0	0.0	0.0
Nutrition	3. Proportion of households with malnourished children	4.9	3.4	5.4
Water, Sanitation and Electricity	4. Proportion of households with access to safe water supply	57.2	36.4	64.2
	5. Proportion of households with access to sanitary toilet facility	30.5	8.2	38.0
	6. Proportion of households with access to electricity	12.4	0.9	16.3
B. Security Shelter	7. Proportion of households who are formal settlers	96.6	93.6	98.5
	8. Proportion of households not living in makeshift housing	98.4	98.2	98.5
Security	9. Households with members who were victims of crime	0.7	0.9	0.6
C. Enabling Education and Literacy	10. Elementary school participation rate	63.9	41.6	70.5
	11. Secondary school participation rate	46.8	11.1	56.2
	12. Proportion of children aged 6-16 years old attending school	64.1	40.7	70.5
	13. Literacy rate	83.0	61.6	89.1
Income	14. Proportion of households with income greater than the poverty threshold	11.3	8.2	12.3
	15. Proportion of households with income greater than the food threshold	34.2	35.5	33.7
Employment	16. Employment rate	100.0	100.0	100.0
	17. Underemployment rate	94.4	93.4	94.8

condition of the IP is likewise magnified with their very low access to basic services such as safe water, sanitation facilities and electricity. This further indicates the need to target the IP community as among the priority beneficiaries of social programs and established safety nets.

The national government has already initiated policies and programs that are geared toward addressing this issue. In fact, a national medium-term development plan for IP has long been drafted and was finally

approved by the President in a recent IP summit. Said comprehensive plan aims to address the issues of IP and strengthen the National Commission on Indigenous People (NCIP) as the main machinery for plan and program implementation.

Meanwhile, IP concerns have already been incorporated in some of the on-going programs of selected national government agencies such as the Comprehensive and Integrated Delivery of Social Services (CIDSS) Program of the Department of Social Welfare and Development. In general, CIDSS addresses the minimum basic needs of families in the poor areas using the five-pronged approach of community organizing, family development, focused targeting, localization, and convergence. Among its other objectives, the *CIDSS Program to Liberate the Indigenous People from Indignity* specifically aims to institutionalize culturally appropriate projects and programs for families and individuals/sector in need of special protection aside from providing basic services to the communities.

The National Anti-Poverty Commission also has a micro-finance program. An earlier study assessing national programs and policies conducted in 2001, however, pointed out the difficulty among IP to avail of this program because it requires a level of literacy which they do not generally have.

Another critical area of concern among the IP is education. It is evident from the results of the CBMS case study that literacy rate among the IP is considerably very low as compared to non-IP. School participation rate, both in elementary and secondary level among children, is likewise low. Earlier case studies pointed out how certain groups of indigenous people view education as a tool for a better life. Improved access to education among indigenous people in the long run is expected to build their capacity to have a better understanding of their rights, thereby providing a better means to defend it.

If one is to address this issue, there would be a need to provide for a more flexible educational system that would facilitate learning among school-aged children of IP households in spite of their mobile lifestyle. Key respondents during CBMS field workshops done in selected IP

sites in Palawan, in fact, have attributed the non-attendance of school-aged children among IP households to their mobile lifestyle to cope with the seasonality of income-earning opportunities of their source of livelihood. One of the best practices being implemented by local government units in these sites relating to this concern is an adult and child literacy program wherein a teacher (referred to as "para-teacher") goes to the IP communities and holds informal learning classes there.

At the national level, the Department of Education has likewise initiated activities that would customize an elementary and secondary school curriculum for the IP, and develop a non-formal educational system. Other support programs of the national government on education for IP are the NCIP Education Assistance Program, National Integrated State Grant Program (NISGP) and Selected Ethnic Group Education Assistance Program (SEGEAP). The NISGP and SEGEAP are nationwide full scholarship programs by the Department of Education and Commission on Higher Education for the IP covering tuition fees and book allowance at all levels of education. The NCIP Education Assistance Program, on the other hand, is a nationwide program that is initiated and funded by the Congress of the Philippines. The program provides financial assistance of a maximum of P5,000 per semester to IP at all levels of education (elementary, secondary and tertiary). Earlier assessments of the government's scholarship programs, however, point out that a number of those availing these scholarships are non-IP. The cited reason for this is that the required average is impossible to achieve for the IP due to factors such as inaccessibility of schools, household chores that need to be done leaving no time to study, and lack of money to purchase school necessities.

Meanwhile, with funding support from international agencies, the Department of Environment and Natural Resources (DENR) is also implementing projects to address IP concerns including biodiversity management and conservation, and forest and watershed management, with emphasis on community participation and self help. A few activities address sustainable upland socioeconomic development

through improved agricultural technology, access to basic services and markets, and strengthening of community organizations.

Other equally important issues need to be addressed as advocated by the NCIP. For the IP who are still intact in their ancestral domains, focus should be on their rights to their ancestral lands and domains, respect for their cultural integrity and their self empowerment and determination. Some specific programs recommended include the identification, delineation and titling of their land and domain claims; preparation of their ancestral domain and protection plans; development and management of their resources; and codification of their custom laws in conflict resolution and adjudication, among others. On the other hand, it would also be important to consider those IP who may no longer be within their domains and have settled elsewhere. There is also the case of those IP who have been relocated and no longer have domains to go back to and who cannot practice and assert their own custom and traditions in their current locations.

The various concerns of indigenous people are primarily met through the design of the project itself (WB, 2002). Among the essential project design elements highlighted in earlier studies that define the strategy to address indigenous people's concerns are: the criteria used for targeting municipalities for project interventions, the approach of facilitated participatory planning and management wherein groups are able to influence the choice of sub-project proposals and the requirement that the community profile and needs assessment provide baseline data on indigenous groups.

As of this date, the National Statistics Office has not yet conducted an official census of the IP in spite of the demand by advocates for the inclusion of the IP in the demographic data of the country. The absence of official disaggregated data was cited by earlier studies and is related to the discrimination in access to health, education, and other basic services. This indicates the need to come up with statistics and corresponding benchmark information to determine how large the population of the IP is, where they are located, what their conditions are, what their needs are, and what they want to be.

Data may be generated as part of the existing surveys and censuses being done at the national level complemented by the use of community-based monitoring systems at the local level.

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Key Comments

- The paper is very interesting and covers an interesting territory and a more disaggregated level of working at specific communities, something that has not been done before.
- The issue on indigenous people in the Philippines is by itself an interesting issue. It is well-known from the very beginning that there is absolutely no information that can be used as basis in addressing the national priority issues as well international priority issues of indigenous peoples. CBMS is well-suited to collect and provide these kind of information.
- This kind of study has long been overdue and these issues have been raised in international fora for at least two decades. This should therefore set an example internationally.
- The study actually sets out two basic questions with respect to indigenous peoples in southern Palawan: 1) is incidence of poverty more severe for non-indigenous peoples? and 2) are there arguments for targeting? The study addresses both.
- Keep in mind that 80 percent of all households in the barangay and it must be looked at much, much deeper in terms of the relationships between the non-poor and the poor.
- The definition of indigenous people is important for two reasons: 1) in terms of resources, and 2) getting a clear understanding in terms of the dynamics of indigenous populations both in the Philippines and worldwide.
- It would be interesting to know in terms of weight or relative weight of some of the indicators mentioned.
- The non-conventional indicators used in the CBMS could set a perfect example of how to tell the needs of indigenous people more concretely.
- The whole issue of empowerment is extremely important in dealing with the depressed groups as opposed to not just depressed households

both in the political sense as well as in the real poverty sense. This is something that needs to brought out bit more, to link that process with some issues of empowerment that could be monitored over time.

- The relationship between the indigenous population and non-indigenous with respect to access to services should be highlighted even more because these are extremely important issues with respect to poverty programming.
- The relationship between the IP and non-IP communities and access needs a bit more explanation. It is also striking when dealing with access as another important pillar for poverty analysis that the aspect of ownership of assets, especially land be emphasized more.
- Communal ownership versus individual ownership or property rights: these are key concepts in poverty analysis. Poverty may be more associated with ownership of lands as opposed to individual property rights. It might be a little different as opposed to the non-indigenous communities which had more property rights.
- A very important point presented is the partnership with local government units, a hallmark of the CBMS model.
- It is important to highlight the role of the local government unit in this particular study for two reasons: (a) its relation to the work of the national government; and (b) how the national government is trying to look at the poverty reduction programs. Data have to filter down to local government units.
- The recommendation could be in terms of targeting on certain programming especially education is very clear.
- Combining household level data with the community level data especially using maps really makes the difference especially to people who are not familiar with the setting.
- The mention of Palawan connotes a land of promise, a land of the last frontier, and an island that is rich in natural resources but ironically, the results are in stark contrast to what you would expect.
- The access issues in addressing the needs of the groups of people, especially those who are consider poor, must really be pushed.

- Access to certain basic services such as road infrastructure, access to piped-in water, access to electricity, and access to information are non-existent in the community and thus so it will be hard for them to have a capital build-up.
- The discrepancy between IP and non-IP levels of poverty and access and discrimination on cultural, political and economic levels needs to be highlighted.
- There are different types of interventions and it is important to distinguish between what would be more appropriate at the village level, provincial level and national level. For the problems that cannot be addressed at the local level with their resources, the national government needs to look closely into them.
- The systematic correlates of the divergences between IP's and non-IP's and what the corresponding interventions should be needs to be determined.
- The poverty indicators and the social indicators as well as the distance between the poverty and the economic indicators needs to be distinguished.
- The design of the provision of interventions should be qualified. The current programs are designed for the lowlands where most of the Christians are. Take note of the particular situations of the IPs and create new approaches in delivering those government programs and not primarily poverty but the social services. It is not the question of food; rather it is access to education and access to health that are critical services neded to be provided to the IP's.
- Who determines the variables for measuring poverty? Is it the study or is it people's participation in this survey? Is a difference in perception between what people think about their poverty situation and what the researchers may want to explore seen in the study.
- Identify the communication and dissemination strategy that have to be put in place to make sure that evidence gets to the decisionmakers.

Community-Based Poverty Monitoring in Sri Lanka: Methodological and Conceptual Issues

S.T. Hettige and Markus Mayer

Introduction

It is widely accepted today that conventional macro economic analysis of poverty is inadequate to understand and explain the dynamics of poverty. Though attempts are often made to examine the nexus between macro economic policies and poverty, our understanding of how macro processes impinge on the life chances of the poor remains largely impressionistic. This is partly due to the difficulties in establishing a clear causal connection between macro economic processes, on one hand, and poverty, on the other. Moreover, poverty itself cannot be easily measured in quantitative terms as there is often a strong subjective element involved in the definition of poverty.

Despite various poverty alleviation strategies adopted by governments in numerous parts of the world, many poor people continue to remain poor while others manage to get out of poverty. On the other hand, some non-poor people might slide into poverty due to various circumstances.

How do we explain these dynamics of poverty?

Aggregate data collected from time to time can be very useful in tracing trends over time and space but can hardly shed any light on micro processes at household and community levels. Micro level field

studies conducted over a period of time using survey as well as qualitative techniques including case studies, meanwhile, can often uncover the dynamics of poverty in great detail. Given the small size of the sample and the limited geographic area covered by such studies, monitoring can be continually done over a long period of time, using the same sample of families for the purpose. This does not however mean that we do not have to use a time-tested conceptual and methodological framework. After all, an effective data collection strategy can be devised only if a comprehensive conceptual framework that is adequate for capturing complex poverty dynamics even in a small field area is developed and used.

On the other hand, conditions prevailing in diverse communities can differ considerably due to various social, economic, political, ecological and cultural circumstances. This applies not only to the characteristics of poor families but also to their linkages to the wider economic, social, political, ecological and cultural environments. In other words, even when micro level studies are undertaken, it is necessary to select field sites carefully so that they capture the diversity in character of the sites.

This paper documents the pilot phase of the research project on community-based poverty monitoring undertaken in a number of selected field sites in Sri Lanka over the last few months. This phase will be completed by the end of the year, with the conceptual framework and research instruments that can guide the second phase of this study as outputs.

Field sites and methodology

The four communities representing varying socioeconomic conditions that were selected as field sites for the pilot phase are:

a) An urban settlement outside Colombo where several hundred displaced poor urban families are resettled,
b) A dry-zone, coastal fishing community in Southern Sri Lanka where incomes are derived from both fishing and small-scale agriculture,

c) A village in Northern Sri Lanka where the settlers have been adversely affected by the ethnic conflict that has raged in the region since the early 1980s, and
d) A plantation worker community in the central region where the local economy is based on both tea plantations and village agriculture.

The above four communities differ from one another in many respects. They are located in different agro-climatological zones. Sample populations differ in terms of livelihood, ethnic composition and access to social infrastructure facilities, among others.

Any community-based poverty analysis has to take into account the structural factors or processes that impinge on the life chances of individuals and households. It is assumed that these structural factors can vary across different settings. It is, therefore, necessary to build such variations into the research design.

Another important dimension is change over time. It is critical to carry out observations continually over an extended period of time. While some changes may be sudden as in the case of loss of employment or an unexpected illness episode, change can also be incremental such as the acquisition of assets or skills.

Empirical research on poverty should not focus entirely on the poor because they do not exist in isolation of the wider environment, in particular, the non-poor both in and outside of the locality. In fact, poverty should be conceptualized as a relational rather than an attributional phenomenon. An analysis of economic, social, political and cultural relations that the poor people participate in can be critical for a proper understanding of the changing life chances of the poor. The local community can, however, provide a very useful vantage point to observe multifarious interactions and transactions between the poor and the outside world.

In view of this, monitoring poverty or changes in the welfare status in terms of various individual and household attributes. Instead, the scope of the monitoring exercise will be extended to

cover relational and contextual dimensions. A key hypothesis guiding the current community-based monitoring exercise that will be explored is that causes of poverty are rooted as much in the attributes as in the diverse relations that the poor have with their wider environment.

Attributional and relational aspects of poverty

Any attempt to understand poverty cannot ignore the main attributes of the poor. In other words, an examination of poverty in terms of its extent and nature is needed. This requires the development of a comprehensive profile of the poor so that the changes in their welfare status can be monitored over a period of time. In the case of the present study, an interview schedule was developed in order to collect the necessary data from the households. This instrument can be administered periodically so that the panel data collected from time to time can be used to monitor changes in the community poverty profile. The main areas covered by the instrument are shown in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1
Indicators of Monitoring Changes in the Welfare Status (Output Indicators)

Indicator	Measures
• Demography	Type and size of family; depedency
• Health and nutrition	Morbidity and nutrition status
• Water and sanitation	Type of water source and toilets
• Shelter	Quality of housing
• Security	Crime, armed encounters, violence
• Income, livelihood, expenditure	Households above/below poverty, employment/unemployment
• Education and literacy	• Elementary enrolment • Secondary enrolment • Basic literacy
• Political participation	Participation in community organizations, participation in the political process
• Infrastructure and utilities	Access to roads, electricity, telephone, information, transport, etc.
• Assets	Land, equipment, skills, savings

Note: *Poverty profile is an analytical device for summarizing information on income, consumption, patterns, economic activities and living conditions of the poor. (WB, 1993:16) as quoted in Tudawe (2002).*

Table 2
Measures of welfare status

Unit of observation	Measures	Type of data	Temporal
Household	• Size/composition • Dependency ratio • Occupation/livelihood • Assets • Liabilities	– No. of dependents over the total (children/aged) – Nature of income/ livelihood – Land ownership – Productive equipment – Mortgages – Debts	Continuous Periodic (Panel data)
Individual	• Education • Skills • Employment/ unemployment • Disabilities	– Level – Type – Qualification – Training – Skills – Permanent/regular – Casual – Skilled/unskilled – Mental – Physical – Political – Other	Continuous/Periodic (Panel data)
Community	• Productive resources • Social infrastructure – Schools/health etc. • Composition • Social/cultural/political divisions	– Land – Water – Natural resources – Type of roads/transport – Nature of schools – Health services – Ethno-religious – Caste – Occupational – Ruling party/Opposition – Parties/Factions – Domination/ subordination	Periodic
District	• Projects/Programs • Power relations • Resource flows • Social infrastructure – Health, education, transport, etc. • Economic infrastructure – Towns, roads, Banks	– Nature and types of projects – Structure of political authority – Savings/credit – Nature of health, education, transport services – Distance to towns – Urban services available – Access to services	Periodic

As mentioned before, if an analysis of poverty is going to shift to an explanation of poverty, it is necessary to identify its causes, which are rooted in a wider context, extending beyond poor individuals and their households. This could be done only if the conceptual framework is broad enough to capture contextual attributes and factors (Figure 1). In other words, the data that will be collected should not only relate to the attributes of the poor and their households but also to wider structures and processes. While some of the latter are confined to the local community, i.e., village, others may extend well beyond the local boundaries such as the wider ecological context, regional and national economy, class, caste and ethnic relations, among others. The factors relating to this wider context are presented in Figure 2.

As one might imagine, the data relating to the wider context cannot be collected in the way that data collection on individual or household attributes is being done. While the secondary data drawn from institutional sources can help a great deal to understand the wider context, extensive field observations, in-depth interviews and case studies constitute the most important sources of information regarding the relational aspects of poverty. What is noteworthy is that much of these data are of a qualitative nature. It is due to this that conventional survey techniques cannot be used to collect such data. Collection of observational qualitative data is also time-consuming.

Status of community research

After developing the survey instruments and guidelines for qualitative research, research assistants were deployed in two communities. In order to test the validity and efficacy of the survey instruments, a purposive sample of households were surveyed. The sample included sixteen households in each location drawn from among local residents who fitted into one of the four categories of households identified on the basis of key informant interviews and wealth-ranking data already available. The sixteen households were divided into the following four categories:

Figure 1
A Broader framework for monitoring poverty

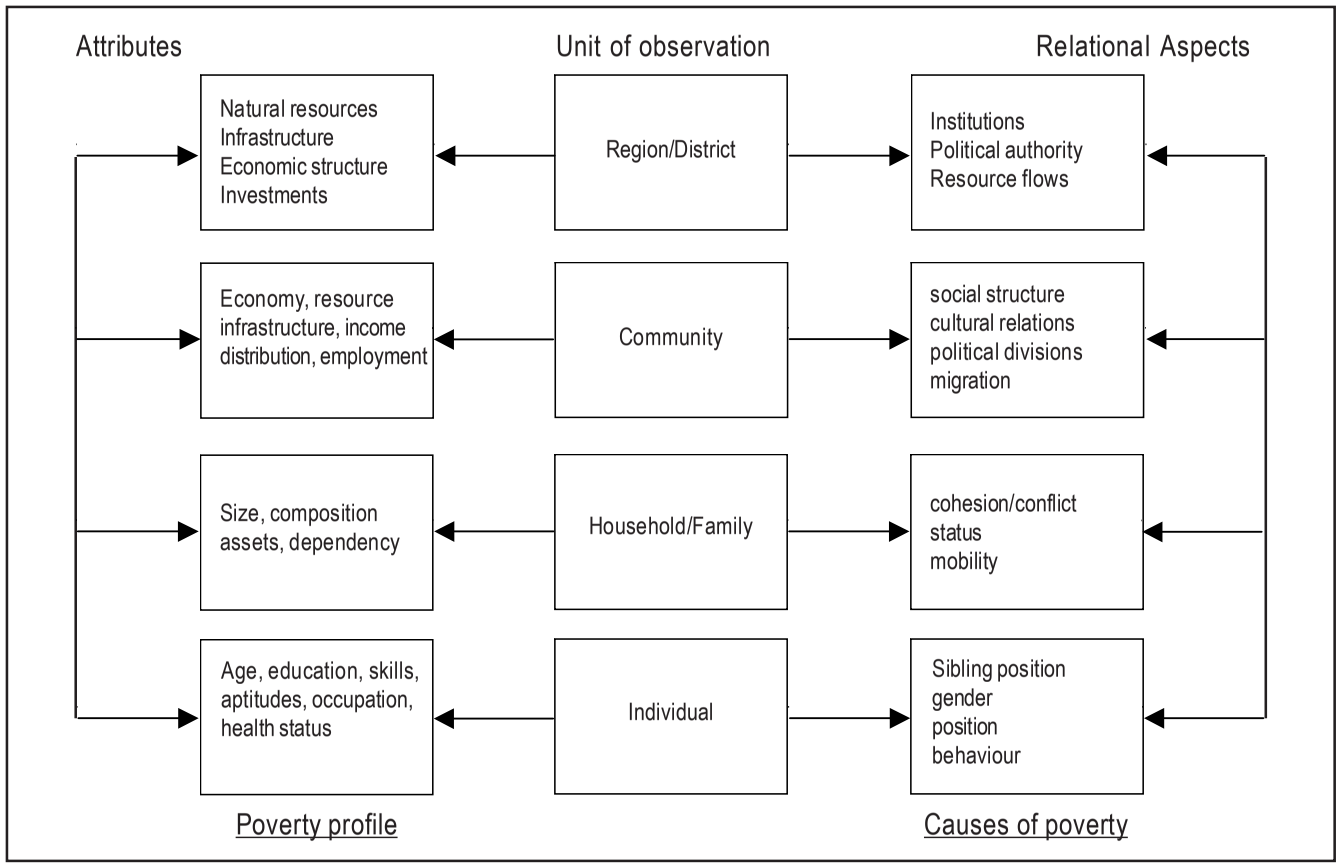
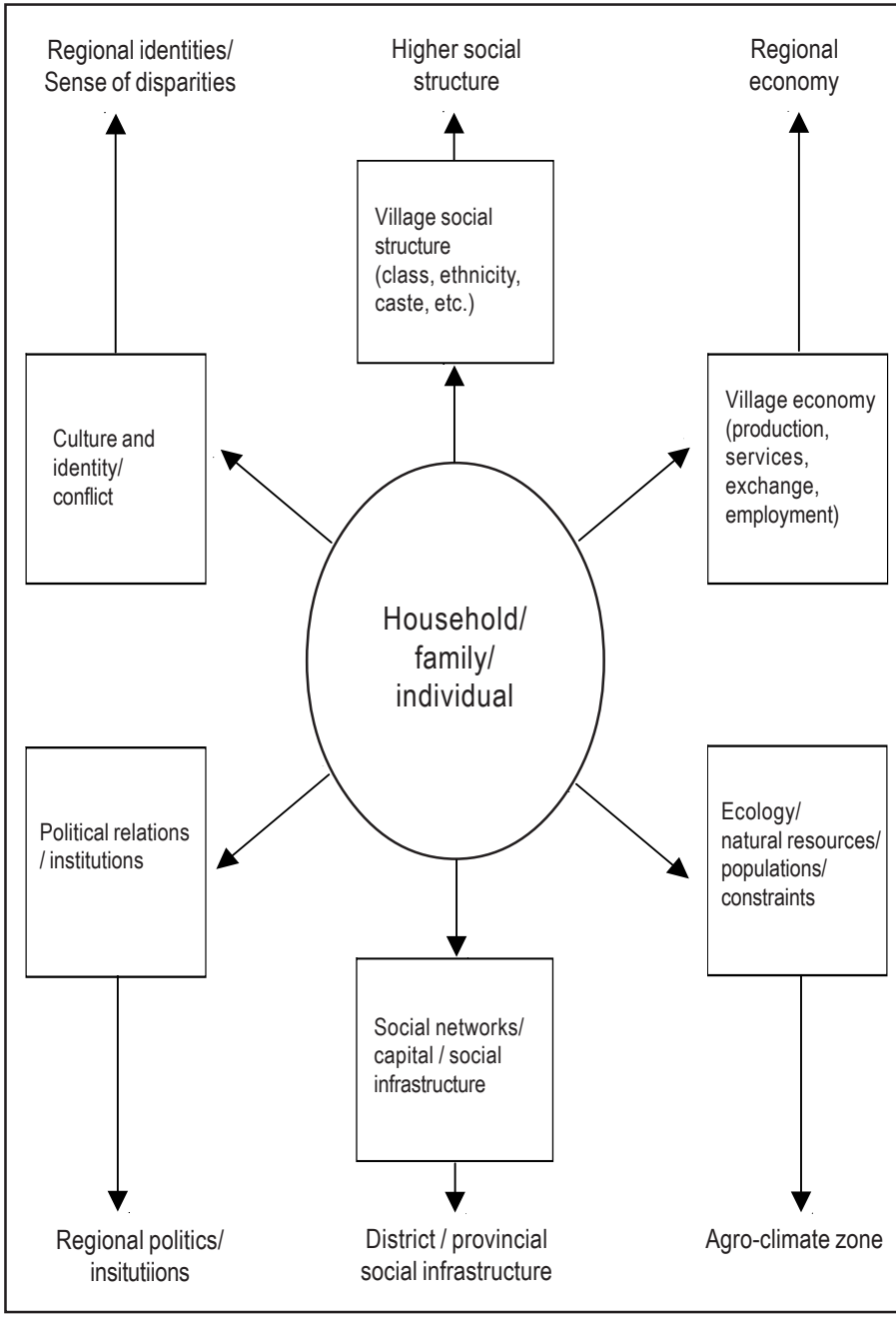


Figure 2
Relational Dimensions of Poverty and Deprivation



(a) Currently poor, but earlier non-poor,
(b) Currently non-poor but earlier poor,
(c) Those who have always been poor, and
(d) Those who have always been non-poor.

Based on the household data collected from the sixteen families, an attempt was made to develop household profiles in order to determine the major differences among different categories of households. It is hoped that when the entire community shall have been surveyed, the population will be divided into the above four categories and develop panels of baseline data to be used for monitoring changes in the poverty profile in each of the communities.

A brief of the sampled households is presented in the succeeding sections.

Age structure of poor and non-poor households

It is significant to note that the poor households have more small and dependent children than the non-poor households, indicating a higher level of child dependency. Middle-aged population is larger among non-poor households.

Educational attainment

There is no major difference between the poor and the non-poor groups with respect to educational attainment although non-literate people are fewer among the non-poor.

Current activity status

Casually employed persons are almost equally present among the poor and the non-poor households. On the other hand, permanently employed people are mostly found among the non-poor. So are those engaged in business activities. It is also significant that there are more skilled persons among non-poor households.

Presence of chronically ill persons
It is significant to note that chronically ill persons are equally found in both poor and non-poor households. Most of these persons suffer from asthma and diabetes. As regards the expenditure on health care, there is no significant difference between the poor and non-poor households.

Food and nutrition
More poor households report shortage of food as measured in terms of adequacy of food and skipping of meals than non-poor households.

Community participation
There is no major difference between the poor and non-poor households in terms of the extent of community participation. What is noteworthy, however, is that a majority of households do not participate in community associations in both urban and rural areas.

Social networks
Reliance on primordial relationships for support is equally significant among the poor and non-poor households. The same is also true for neighbors.

Income generation
As one would expect, the gap between the poor and the non-poor in terms of income is quite significant. While most of the poor earn less than 4,500 rupees per month, only a minority of the non-poor earn an income below this level. A sizable proportion of non-poor households earn over 7,000 rupees a month. It is also significant that the number of income earners is greater among non-poor households whereas in a majority of poor households, there is only one income earner. What is also noteworthy is that the number of dependents appears to be higher among poor households, in comparison to non-poor households. Most of these dependents are children and unemployed persons.

Expenditure on food and medicine

Expenditure on food is greater among the non-poor than among the poor. On the other hand, expenditure on health appears to be equally high among both the poor and non-poor families. It may be that the poor divert their resources to health care, away from even food.

Savings and adequacy of income

Poor households report much less savings than the non-poor. The non-poor also depend on formal institutions like banks than non-institutional channels because they have much higher levels of savings than the poor. In terms of the adequacy of income to meet family needs over the last month, it is significant that most poor households report inadequate incomes whereas only a minority of non-poor households report inadequate incomes.

Housing conditions

All the sample households own their houses though the nature of housing conditions varies between poor and non-poor households. With respect to construction material, most non-poor households use permanent and more expensive construction material for the walls, floor and roof. Most poor households, meanwhile, have houses with one room and no separate rooms in contrast to the non-poor households who have more than one room.

Environmental problems

Even though both poor and non-poor households report various environmental problems, poor households tend to mention problems that affect their livelihood i.e., floods and droughts. On the other hand, most non-poor households report general environmental problems that affect their quality of life.

On-going field research

The research team is currently engaged in the collection of household data in all four communities for the building of a comprehensive and

comparable database. This would help develop a detailed profile of poverty at both household and community levels. Once different households are identified in terms of objective criteria, researchers can begin to collect qualitative data using interview and observational techniques. The main objectives of this pilot phase of the research are:

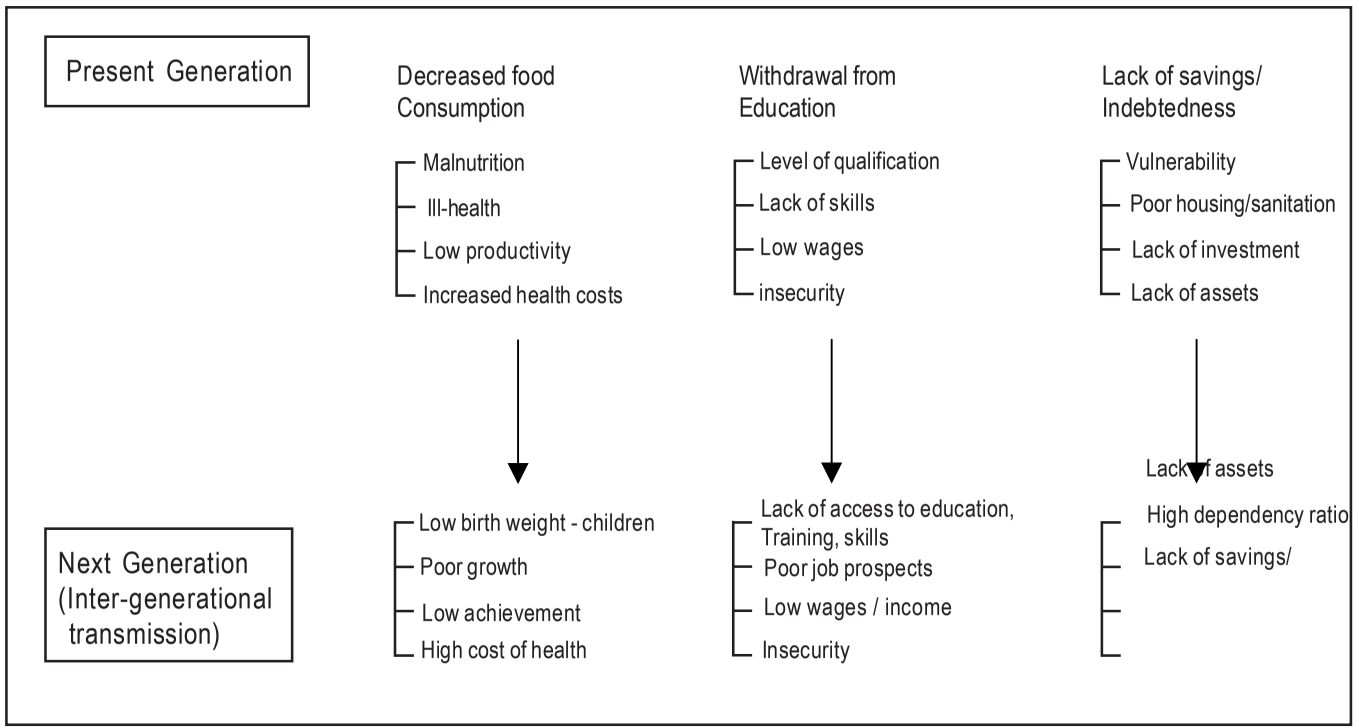
(a) To develop a conceptual framework that is robust and comprehensive enough to provide for a causal analysis of poverty,
(b) To develop a set of data collection techniques that would allow the collection of data relating to both attributional and relational aspects of poverty,
(c) To draw some tentative conclusions as to how some people move out of poverty while others remain entrapped in poverty, and
(d) To identify factors and processes which underpin the dynamics of poverty at individual, household and community levels.

In the second phase of the study that will be implemented next year, the already developed methodology and conceptual framework may hopefully already be used to carry out longitudinal monitoring of poverty in the selected communities. Long-term monitoring of poverty, i.e., inter-generational transmission of poverty, can be critical in some situations. It is necessary to identify factors and processes that influence such transmissions, as indicated in Figure 3.

Summary and conclusion

This paper documents the progress of the pilot phase of the project on community-based poverty monitoring in Sri Lanka. To date, researchers have been able to develop a conceptual framework for the on-going study, finalize survey instruments and guidelines for qualitative research (Figure 4) and put together profiles of a sample of households based on data already collected. Researchers have likewise attempted to develop a broad conceptual framework that

Figure 3
Framework for Monitoring of Inter-generational Transmission of Poverty at Household Level



enables them to capture relational aspects of poverty. A key assumption is that causes of poverty are likely to be rooted as much, if not more, in the diverse relations that the poor have with the wider environment, as in their individual and household attributes. In fact, many of their attributes themselves may be the products of their wider politico-economic and socio-cultural relations.

Figure 4
Guidelines for Qualitative/in-depth Interviews on Relational Aspects of Poverty

Village economy →	– Connection to village economy – Exchange relations – Property relations	External economic links
Ecology →	– Dependence on natural resources – Vulnerabilities – Coping strategies	
Social networks/ infrastructure →	– Social support – Social infrastructure (education, health, transport, etc.)	
Power relations →	– Participation in local politics – Associations – Domination/ subordination – Conflict/violence	
Social structure →	– Class, caste, ethnic relations – Prospects for social mobility	
Culture/identity →	– Sense of belonging – Identity formation	

Key Comments

- Sri Lanka is trying to add a new dimension into CBMS by bringing the relational aspect to the individual household.
- Identify for whom the usefulness of data is: the researchers, the communities or other stakeholders. If it is for the communities, the design should not only be for monitoring but also for planning, and empowerment.
- Think how local participation from the non-literate community or network community can be elicited so that at the end of the day, they will be able to handle themselves.
- Continuity and sustainability of the system must be one of the major concerns.
- Look into how how these things can also be globalized.
- The tool should be useful for many stakeholders.
- The finding that health expenditure is very high for the poor is shown in some of the surveys in other countries. Health emergencies and indebtedness are very important indicators that other CBMS countries and the network need to take note of because they deal with inter-generational aspect.
- It is important to have a better understanding of the dynamics of poverty and how macropolicies can impinge on various groups of poor families or poor groups.
- Data can be used for panel data analysis to see how families respond to macropolicy.
- Pay attention to the issue of quality of services being provided to the poor. Posing the question on whether or not the poor have access without looking at the quality masks some of the inequalities that exist between access by the poor and the non-poor.
- The relational aspects allow in-depth analysis of poverty. It is good to look at institutional indicators in order to understand poverty more deeply.

- How can we retain the simplicity of the tools so that anybody in the village level can use them without requiring a very complex analysis?
- What is missing is the issue of local participation in the process and the people's relationship to the local government unit.
- The project tries to bring in the relational aspect and the historic dimensions of poverty which may well lead to a very specific individual household kind of history.
- CBMS has to be simple to be cost-effective. This cannot be done for a very in-depth analysis. The CBMS methodology may be used for the poverty monitoring and then a sampling of households may be used for an in-depth poverty analysis.
- The question ultimately is in the design and the cost of the program by having CBMS as the base and using sampling techniques for an in-depth analysis of households and how they move over time.
- The idea of the CBMS is that it can be institutionalized at the local level. Hence, it is important to look at various concerns regarding the choice of indicators, the number of indicators and the capacity at the local level. Because after the pilot phase, the local government units should take on the task of doing it on a regular basis.
- Involve as early as possible the local people so that the likelihood of the process being adopted becomes higher.

CBMS Session 2
CBMS Initiatives in Africa

Rural Poverty in Burkina Faso: Case of the Department of Yako/ Province of Passore

Lassina Konate, Prosper Somda and Michel Kone

Introduction

Following the frameworks recommended in various studies on poverty done in Burkina Faso, a number of national, regional and some local surveys have been implemented by the country's National Institute of Statistics and Demography (NISD), with the support of international donor institutions, to collect significant and relevant data on poverty and well-being through the years. While these surveys helped build up important databases on poverty, they were not, however, done on a regular basis and the data were not disaggregated enough. Moreover, said surveys and data collections did not adequately involve the local communities and do not provide a good profile of poverty in the villages.

To remedy these shortcomings, the CBMS-Burkina Faso Team, following the examples of other Micro Impacts of Macroeconomic Adjustment Policies (MIMAP) member countries, undertook the development of an appropriate methodology for poverty follow-up and monitoring in Burkina Faso. The objective is to enable local decisionmakers up to the national level to have a set of permanent, reliable, and regularly updated data on poverty evolution in all the regions of Burkina Faso.

The methodology used in this pilot study, and which was also used for the general survey, is based on a participative approach that

involves the local communities in data collection and contributes to their empowerment. The approach also helps to enhance local planning, follow-up and evaluation capacities of the various actors in poverty reduction and develops awareness among the communities to generate and use local information (data).

The pilot survey covered five villages (Kabo, Koaltanghin, Lilbouré, Pelegtenga, and Rallo) and one sector (sector n°1 of Yako City) from June to July 2002. A total of 1,283 households consisting of 10,977 people were included in the survey, the highlights of which are shown in this paper on the basis of selected facets/aspects of poverty such as nutrition and food security, health and hygiene, education, incomes and land property, material living conditions, social implications, vulnerability to crises, and personal dignity. The demographic characteristics of the survey sites are also described herein.

Results of the CBMS survey

Demographic characteristics

The demographic data of the pilot survey provide some information on the total population in each village, the number of households, the structure per age bracket and the population's movement.

Table 1 shows that no village exceeds 2,400 persons. The most populated is Kabo with 2,394 persons and 290 households. The average size of the households in the villages is 9 persons. The highest is in Rallo (11 persons/household) while the lowest in in sector 1 of Yako where the size is 7 persons per household. From this, one can deduce that the average size of the households in rural areas is higher than in semi-urban areas.

In most cases, the household's head is male but in sector 1 of Yako, 34.5 percent of the households are run by women. This is a characteristic related to more visible changes in the city.

There is also a higher number of females in the overall population of each village and in Yako. In Pelegtenga, though, the situation is reverse due to the existence of a gold site which encourages the presence of more men aged 36 to 45 years. Moreover, except in

Table 1
Demographic Data of the Pilot Survey

Description	Villages					
	Kabo	Koaltanghin	Lilbouré	Pelegtenga	Ratio	Sector 1/Yako
Total population	2394	1998	1632	1957	1814	1182
% male	46.3	46.5	46.3	50.6	46.8	46.5
% female	53.7	53.5	53.7	49.4	53.2	53.5
number of disabled people	86	39	54	57	46	41
number of households	290	240	194	212	173	174
% male Head	81	83.8	85.1	94.8	91.9	65.5
% female Head	19	16.3	14.9	5.2	8.1	34.5
Average size/household	**8.3**	**83.3**	**8.4**	**9.2**	**10.5**	**6.8**
Balance movement/household	+1	+1	+2	+3	0	+2
Age bracket = 15 years (%)	50.2	51.6	50.6	48	54.5	41
• % male	54.2	56.3	54.6	50.2	61.2	43.3
• % female	46.7	47.5	47.1	45.7	48.5	39.1
Age bracket 16-25 years (%)	17.7	15.7	16.2	17.8	14.7	25.9
• % male	19.8	16.7	14.5	16.1	13.3	26.9
• % female	15.8	14.8	17.6	19.6	16	25
Age bracket 26-35 years (%)	8.2	9.9	9.1	13.4	9.4	11.3
• % male	7.8	6.6	7.9	12.9	6.7	12.7
• % female	8.6	12.8	10.1	13.9	11.7	10
Age bracket 36-45 years (%)	7.7	8.3	7.2	8.7	7.4	7.3
• % male	4.4	6.1	6	9.5	6.1	6.2
• % female	10.6	10.1	8.3	8	8.5	8.2
Age bracket 46-55 years (%)	6.5	5.7	6.5	5.3	5.1	5.4
• % male	4.9	5.6	5.9	4.5	3.5	2.7
• % female	7.9	5.7	7	6.1	6.4	7.8
Age bracket > 35 years (%)	9.7	8.9	10.4	6.7	8.9	9.1
• % male	8.9	8.7	11	6.8	9.1	8.2
• % female	10.4	9.1	9.9	6.7	8.8	10
Ratio of dependence	**59.9**	**60.5**	**59.9**	**54.7**	**63.3**	**50.2**

Source of data: SSP2 pilot survey - June/July 2002

Pelegtenga, figures indicate a higher number of women at the age bracket of more than 55 years. This implies that women live generally longer than men.

The populations of the surveyed villages and sector are mainly young. In the villages, more than 50 percent of the population are concentrated in the age bracket lower than or equal to 15 years. In sector 1 of Yako and Pelegtenga, there is a lower rate (41% and 48%, respectively) but 65 percent of the population is less than 36 years. If one considers the age brackets lower or equal to 15 years and the one

higher than 55 years, the dependence rate is shown to be higher than 50 percent in all the areas. Rallo has the highest rate at 63.3 percent.

The people in the five villages and sector 1 of Yako are not very mobile. No family left the village and in fact, new arrivals even came in to settle. Individually, more than 90 percent of the people interviewed have lived less than one month out of their village. The migratory movement is therefore weak, except in Pelegtenga where the existence of a gold site engenders more significant movement.

Various facets of poverty

"Poverty has many aspects. The poor themselves report on sufferings related to poor consumption, poor health conditions, illiteracy, vulnerability, the lack of inheritance, and the lack of consideration by the civil servants. The people who suffer from either of these evils also generally undergo other evils. And evils tend to be mutually reinforced". FIDA, 2001 Report on Rural Poverty.

The pilot survey enabled the description of the various facets of poverty experienced by the populations of the various zones concerned through the following indicators: nutrition and food security, health and hygiene, education, material living conditions, social implications, vulnerability to crises and personal dignity.

a) Nutrition and food security

The indicators in Table 2 describe the situation regarding nutrition and food security in the various survey sites.

Sorghum is the most consumed cereal followed by millet. Rice generally comes in third position and it is generally consumed on feast days because it is considered a luxury product. The position of corn (fourth in the villages), meanwhile, depends on consumption habits in the area. In some parts, cornstarch is appreciated for the preparation of *tô (cooked corn paste)*, a national dish.

The average number of meals taken per day by men and women is about two (2), not enough for them to be productive. The national standard of the daily calorie needs is estimated at 2283 kcal/person/day. Children, on the other hand, eat 3 meals per day on the average.

Table 2
Nutrition and Food Security

Description	Villages					
	Kabo	Koaltanghin	Lilbouré	Pelegtenga	Ratio	Sector 1/Yako
Hierarchy of the cereals consumed (1 to 4)						
• Sorghum	1	1	1	1	1	1
• Millet	2	2	2	2	2	4
• Corn	3	4	4	4	4	2
• Rice	4	3	3	3	3	3
Average number of meal/day/man	2.2	2.2	2.5	2.6	2.2	2.3
Average number of meal/day/woman	2.2	2.2	2.5	2.6	2.2	2.3
Average number of meal/day/child	3.2	3.2	3.7	3.3	3	2.5
% households where the child has more than 3 meals	26.7	30.4	52.5	39.9	30.4	2.5
% households not consuming rice	61.1	71.7	14.1	30	83.1	15.3
% households/meal without meat/week	50.2	51.7	28.2	17.5	57.3	18.9
% households/meal without fish/week	31.7	20.9	4.4	10.8	25.7	4.1
% households not having stock cereals	49.3	56.7	20.3	39	33.9	
% households having stock for 2 months maximum	64.9	54.6	75.9	59	71	

Source of data: SSP2 pilot survey - June/July 2002

The village of Lilbouré is the only area where more than 50 percent of the households have children eating meals more than 3 times a day. Sadly too, most of the households in the survey sites do not have meat nor fish in their regular meals. This protein deficiency as well as the insufficiency of meal intakes seriously affect the physical and mental development of children.

At the same time, more than one third of the households do not have sufficient cereal stocks to cover the pre-seasonal period. This tremendous food insecurity in terms of stock unavailability is quite high in the rural villages but is not a problem in the semi-urban areas like sector 1 of Yako because cereals there can easily be purchased in the market.

b) Health and hygiene

Health

Health is an element of well-being. The pilot survey aimed at assessing the health or medical situation as well as the hygiene of the populations of the villages and sector 1 of Yako through the following indicators:

Presence of medical infrastructures

In Burkina Faso, the first medical facility under the country's medical setup that the patient comes in contact with is the CSPS (Health and Social Promotion Center). If the case is beyond the capacity of the CSPS, the patient is referred to the Medical Center (CMA)/CM. The latter in turn refers the patient to the Regional Hospital Complex (CHR) in case the patient needs a higher level of treatment. If further treatment is called for, then the patient is referred to the National Hospital Complex (CHN), the top level of the pyramid in Burkina's medical structure.

The medical infrastructure of the five sample villages and sector 1 of Yako can be appraised through Table 3 which clearly indicates that these sites have very few medical infrastructures. For instance, Lilbouré, Koaltanghin, Kabo and Rallo do not have any infrastructure at all. Pelegtenga alone has a CSPS, a maternity and a pharmaceutical depot. This is due to the existence of a gold mining site which attracts more people, thus requiring the development of medical infrastructures. Sector 1 has only one drugstore; however, it is more favored than those in other villages because said medical infrastructure is located close to the city.

Apart from the drugstore, which is private, the other infrastructures of Pelegtenga are public-run. Manning them are a male nurse for the CSPS, a midwife for the maternity, and a manager for the pharmaceutical depot trained and assigned by the State.

Accesibility of medical infrastructures

Since there are no or little infrastructure in the various villages and sector n°1 of Yako, the populations are compelled to cover some distances to reach the medical centers.

From Lilbouré, the closest CSPS and maternity clinic are 5 kms away while the dispensary and pharmaceutical depot are 8 kms away. From Koaltanghin, the closest CSPS, pharmaceutical depot and maternity are 7 kms away while for Kabo and Rallo, the CSPS, pharmaceutical depot and maternity are located 4 kms away from both villages. Only Pelegtenga has its own CSPS, maternity clinic and

Table 3
Medical Infrastructure and Attendance

Description	Villages					
	Kabo	Koaltanghin	Lilbouré	Pelegtenga	Ratio	Sector 1/Yako
Medical structures:						
• Dispensary	0	0	0	0	0	0
• CSPS	0	0	0	1	0	0
• Maternity	0	0	0	1	0	0
• Drugstore	0	0	0	1	0	0
• Village drugstore	0	0	0	0	0	1
% pop. no consultation	64.7	36.4	18.8	22.3	23.9	34.8
• % male	64.2	36.8	19.4	22.9	20.0	33.3
• % female	65.3	36.1	18.4	21.6	26.4	35.7
% pop. cons. cured./marabou	18.6	26.4	26.9	17.9	21.7	7.5
• % male	19.5	24.6	22.4	17.7	21.4	9.5
• % female	17.6	27.7	30.4	18.2	21.8	6.1
% pop. Consults CSPS	10.0	28.6	6.3	52.7	14.4	30.4
• % male		29.8	7.1	53.1	21.4	34.9
• % female	10.2	27.7	5.6	52.3	9.1	27.6
% pop. Birth attendant		2.1				1.0
• % male						
• % female		2.4				

Source of data: SSP2 pilot survey - June/July 2002

pharmaceutical depot. Meanwhile, sector 1 of Yako does not have much problem because the CSPS is only 1 km away and the maternity is located at 2 kms from the place.

If one considers the national standard, which is 5 kms in distance between the place of residence and closest medical center, then clearly, Lilbouré and Koaltanghin can be regarded as underprivileged.

Use of medical infrastructures

Based on the percentage of the populations which do not attend or go to any modern medical structure, Kabo village ranks number one, with 83.3 percent of the population not doing so, followed by Koaltanghin (62.8 %); and then by the others with a little more than 40 percent for each.

Given the results, it can be concluded that the health infrastructures in the survey sites are very limited, even non-existent in most of the villages. Indeed, apart from Pelegtenga village which has a CSPS, a

maternity and a pharmaceutical depot, all the other villages do not have any health infrastructure. Even sector 1 of Yako, which is a semi-urban area, has only one pharmacy, and a private one at that. The populations are thus compelled to cover long distances to get either to a dispensary, maternity or any other health infrastructure to be treated. This is what undoubtedly explains the tremendous resort to traditional healers or marabouts. Most people prefer not to go to the health centers. The rate of the populations not attending modern health centers varies from 32 percent in sector 1 of Yako to 83 percent in Kabo.

Table 4 ranks the villages in accordance with the population's attendance or usage of medical facilities and consultations of traditional healers.

The Table shows that Lilbouré resorts to traditional healers more than the other villages, with 26.9 percent of its population doing so. Indeed, this village does not have any health infrastructure and is located 5 kms away from the nearest CSPS and 8 kms away from the nearest dispensary. This is why the people from this village are the most numerous among the five villages to resort to the CHN. Pelegtenga is the biggest user of the services of the CSPS because it is the only health structure which is located at the gold mining site. Its high usage (52.7% of the population) probably also reflects the extent of the health problems experienced by the gold washers.

Table 4
Classification of the Villages According to the Criterion of Non-attendance of Modern Health Structures

Rank	Type of operation			
	No consultation		Healers tradition/Marabout	
	Village	Population	Village	Population
1st	Kabo	64.7%	Lilbouré	26.9%
2nd	Koaltanghin	36.4%	Koaltanghin	26.4%
3rd	Sector 1	34.8%	Rallo	21.7%
4th	Rallo	23.9%	Kabo	18.6%
5th	Pelegtenga	22.3%	Pelegtenga	17.9%
6th	Lilbouré	18.8%	Sector 1	7.5%

Source of data: SSP2 pilot survey - June/July 2002

Moreover, Pelegtenga has the highest number of the population that makes use of private health structures. Though the percentage is not very high (1.1%), it is the village that has more means than the others and can afford private health services.

What are some of the reasons for the people's non-usage of health structures? While the data cannot sufficiently pinpoint the reasons definitively, some of the possible causes are the non-availability of infrastructures, poor service quality and reception, and lack of financial means.

Status of evacuation means

In spite of the distances that the people have to cover to go to health centers, no village has a system of medical evacuation means. When necessary, each household manages with the means affordable, individually or through village solidarity assistance. Bicycles or donkey-driven carts are used for patients' evacuation to the nearest health center, which is generally located in Yako.

Immunization

Finally, in terms of immunization which primarily aims to reinforce the defense system of the population against some diseases, the data (Table 5) show that except in Pelegtenga, the males tend to get more vaccination than females.

The vaccine coverage rate is rather weak in all the villages except the vaccine against meningitis which was administered in all the villages. The average coverage percentage is 77 perent and in sector 1, some vaccine coverage rate reached 90 perent.

The pilot survey therefore shows that health supply is very weak, almost non-existent in the five villages and sector 1 of Yako. On the whole, the medical situation is very precarious.

Hygiene

The hygiene of the population can be evaluated through the use of toilets by the community and households as well as by the use of soap.

Table 5
Classification of the Villages According to the Type of Vaccine Received Per Sex

Villages	Sex	Vac. vs Poliomyelitis	Vac vs. Meningitis	Vac vs. Measles	Vac vs. Tuberculosis	Vac vs. dtcoq	Another vaccine.
Kabo	Male	51	71	60	00	00	00
	Female	39	71	37	00	00	00
	Total	45	71	48	00	00	00
Koaltanghin	Male	24	82	43	24	30	02
	Female	22	82	41	23	26	04
	Total	23	82	42	24	28	03
Lilbouré	Male	27	67	30	27	28	14
	Female	23	63	25	23	24	18
	Total	25	62	27	25	26	16
Pelegtenga	Male	25	79	24	23	24	03
	Female	21	80	20	18	19	03
	Total	23	80	22	20	21	03
Rallo	Male	38	81	29	00	01	03
	Female	38	79	26	00	02	03
	Total	38	80	28	00	01	03
Sector 1 Yako	Male	34	90	40	31	30	24
	Female	28	90	33	23	24	22
	Total	31	90	38	27	27	23
Total	Male	18	77	27	16	17	06
	Female	15	77	23	13	14	07
	Total	17	77	25	14	16	06

Source of data: SSP2 pilot survey - June/July 2002

Table 6 shows that more than 80 percent of the households have no toilet facility. This results in a high risk of water-borne diseases since the dirt deposited in nature seeps through water in the pond which is used in turn for drinking and other household needs.

The survey also indicates that in each village, more than 50 percent of the population use toilet soap, with Pelegtenga ranking first (96.5% of the population), certainly because of the presence of the gold mining site. Gold washers spending several hours in dust, use their profit to buy soap in order to properly clean themselves. In Koaltanghin, the percentage of people not using soap is the highest.

Table 6
Distribution of the Households According to the Type of Toilets

Type/place of	Villages					
	Kabo	Koaltanghin	Lilbouré	Pelegtenga	Rallo	Sector 1/Yako
WC-rest room			1.6			
Ventilated latrine pits			0.5			0.6
Ordinar latrine	0.9	0.4	7.8	15.2	2.3	88.4
In the bush	99.0	99.6	90.2	84.8	97.7	11.0
Others	0.3					
# population using toilet soap	59.8	52.9	86.1	96.5	75.6	66.9

Source of data: SSP2 pilot survey - June/July 2002

c) Education

School infrastructures

The pilot survey indicated the existence of school infrastructures in the sample villages and sector 1 of Yako.

Each of the five villages is equipped with a primary school with three or six classes while sector 1 of Yako has three schools of six classes, i.e., 18 classrooms. Moreover, Lilbouré and Pelegtenga each have a private medersa school. Yet, there is no literacy development center in any of the villages nor in sector 1. All the primary schools are public ones. There is no vocational training center.

Since the villages each have a primary school, children do not cover more than one kilometer to get there. But those who attend the medersa schools and literacy development centers, located out of their respective villages, travel 3 to 10 kms to reach them as seen in Table 7.

In terms of drop-outs, there were less cases recorded during the pilot survey than the previous year in Lilbouré and Rallo, as much as last year in Kabo and sector 1, and more in Koaltanghin and Pelegtenga.

Three main reasons were cited for these school drop-outs: high educational costs, domestic chores and other reasons. Domestic chores are the reasons in two villages (Kabo and Lilbouré) while various other reasons such as idleness, pupils' refusal, lack of means, fear, and distance, among others, were cited in the rest.

Table 7
Educational Infrastructure and Attendance

Description	Villages					
	Kabo	Koaltanghin	Lilbouré	Pelegtenga	Rallo	Sector 1/Yako
Number of primary schools	1	1	1	1	1	3
Number of classrooms	6	3	6	6	3	18
Medersa schools numbers	2	1	0	1	0	0
distance to cover to:						
• literacy center	4	7	5	10	3	0
• Medersa	0	7	0	0	3	1
Drop-out reasons						
• Costs	X	X		X	X	X
• Family Work	X		X			
• Others	X	X	X	X	X	X

Source of data: SSP2 pilot survey - June/July 2002

With regard to the success rates of the villages' children in the official examinations in the primary school in the past school year, Table 8 shows that three villages (Rallo, Lilbouré and Kabo) achieved good results (more than 60% to 100%) at the Primary School Certificate (CEPE). The results of Pelegtenga, sector 1 of Yako and Koaltanga vary between 43 percent and 50 percent and are less than the national average.

And how many children reach secondary school? The information collected (Table 8) indicates that among the children who got the CEPE, very few went to the secondary schools.

Table 8
Success Rate to Official Examinations

Description	Villages					
	Kabo	Koaltanghin	Lilbouré	Pelegtenga	Rallo	Sector 1/Yako
Primary school	62%	50%	73%	45%	100%	49.3%
Medersa	–	–	43%	–	–	–
Literacy center	–	–	–	–	–	–
No. Children with CEPE no access to secodary school	5	2	3	1	2	27

Source of data: SSP2 pilot survey - June/July 2002

Level of education and literacy development

The level of education of the populations of the villages may be appraised through the proportion of the population reaching specific levels of education and through the net enrolment rates.

Table 9 shows that those who never attended school represent the highest percentage of the population, 73 percent for sector 1 and all the 5 villages. Koaltanghin tops the list at 92.5 percent, followed by Kabo at 80.1 percent and Rallo (78.6%), Pelegtenga (71.4%), Lilbouré (64.3%) and sector 1 at 35.2 percent. Sector 1 has the least percentage because it is in a semi-urban area.

Table 9
Distribution of the Population According to the Level of Education in the Village

Last Class Attended	Village (%)						
	Kabo	Koaltanghin	Lilbouré	Pelegtenga	Rallo	Sector 1 Yako	Total
Mon	80.1	92.5	64.3	71.4	78.6	35.2	73.0
CP	5.3	0.8	7.3	7.7	5.5	4.8	5.1
CE1	4.0	2.1	6.1	3.8	3.9	7.0	4.2
CE2	3.0	1.2	5.1	3.8	3.4	7.2	3.7
CM1	0.8	1.4	3.4	4.7	1.6	6.2	2.7
CM2	4.4	1.1	8.2	5.1	4.1	14.6	5.6
6éme	1.0	0.3	3.0	0.8	0.8	4.3	1.5
5éme	0.3	0.1	0.8	0.1	0.4	3.1	0.6
4éme	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.5	2.6	0.6
3éme	0.8	0.1	0.9	1.2	0.8	7.6	1.5
2nd	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1		2.1	0.3
1ère	0.1		0.3	0.6	0.1	1.5	0.3
Terminal			0.3	0.3	0.1	2.7	0.4
Higher education				0.1	0.1	1.1	0.2
Teacher before CEPE			0.1				0
Teacher Sec. post CEPE		0.1					0
Teacher Sec. post BEPC			0.1		0.1	0.1	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source of data: SSP2 pilot survey - June/July 2002

Table 10 shows the Net Enrolment Rate (NER) in primary and secondary education in the 5 villages and sector 1 of Yako. Although there is no secondary school in the aforementioned villages, the NER calculation in secondary school took into account the children of each

village attending secondary schools outside their place of residence.

NER is the relationship between the number of children in school and the number of children at the appropriate age corresponding to a specific grade or year.

Despite the existence of a school in each village, the average NER for all the 5 villages (28.9%) is rather low and is in fact below the rate of the North region (47.5%) and the province (47.45%) in 2001. Koaltanghin has an even lower rate (8.1%). Only Pelegtenga village,

Table 10
Net Enrolment Rate in Primary and Secondary School According to Sex, Village of Residence and Gender of the Household's Head

Net Enrolment Rate	Sex (CM)	Village						
		Kabo	Koaltanghin	Lilbouré	Pelegtenga	Ratio	Sector 1/Yako	Total
Primary	M	32.0	8.2	38.0	43.5	24.5	68.5	32.1
Education	F	27.9	7.1	32.0	40.0	16.7	72.4	37.8
Together	Total	31.4	8.1	37.3	43.4	24.1	69.8	32.8
Primary	M	37.1	11.2	45.5	50.9	34.6	66.5	37.8
Education	F	30.0	10.5	35.4	62.5	9.5	66.1	39.1
Boys	Total	36.5	11.1	11.5	51.4	33.1	66.4	37.9
Primary	M	25.9	7.6	30.4	35.3	20.3	72.8	27.4
Education	F	30.0	2.8	40.0	25.0	33.3	81.4	38.9
Girls	Total	26.5	7.0	31.2	35.0	20.7	75.3	28.7
Secondary	M	5.3	3.4	9.2	1.9	2.7	30.5	7.0
School First	F	6.9	0.0	15.8	0.0	0.0	48.2	19.7
Cycle Together	Total	5.6	2.9	10.0	1.8	2.7	37.2	8.9
Secondary	M	6.9	6.3	14.3	2.7	7.6	25.3	9.2
First Cycle	F	20.6	0.0	25.0	0.0	0.0	54.0	27.0
Boys	Total	8.7	5.3	15.8	2.5	7.5	35.9	11.7
Secondary	M	4.6	0.7	6.8	1.0	0.0	34.8	6.1
First Cycle	F	0.0	0.0	9.1	0.0	0.0	43.2	13.8
Girls	Total	3.8	0.6	7.0	1.2	0.0	37.6	7.2
Secondary	M	0.0	0.7	2.1	0.6	0.0	7.6	1.5
School Second	F	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	17.7	8.5
cycle Together	Total	0.0	0.6	1.9	0.6	0.0	11.3	2.3
Secondary	M	0.0	2.6	0.0	2.1	0.0	13.2	2.2
School Second	F	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	26.1	14.6
Cycle Boys	Total	0.0	2.3	0.0	2.0	0.0	18.9	3.9
Secondary	M	0.0	0.0	3.2	0.0	0.0	3.0	0.9
School Second	F	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0	3.8	1.6
Cycle Girls	Total	0.0	0.0	2.9	0.0	0.0	3.3	1.0

Source of data: SSP2 pilot survey - June/July 2002
NB: F : Female; M: Male

with a rate of 43.4 percent, approaches the national rate (48.9%). It should be recalled that this village has a gold mining site.

Sector 1 of Yako with 67.2 percent stands as an exception since it is in a semi-urban area where school enrolment rates are generally higher than in rural zone.

If one considers that the performance of Pelegtenga is due to the fact that it draws its resource from the opportuniites provided by its gold mine, then it can be deduced that the weak enrolment rate in the other four villages could result from, *inter alia*, the limited resources of parents, who are mainly farmers, and the difficulties they undergo in taking care of their children's education. Thus, even if the structures are available, enrolment is still low due to the lack of financial means.

In terms of the effect on the NER of the gender of the head of the household, in all the villages, the net enrolment rate in primary education is higher in households where the head is a man. On the other hand, the situation is reverse in sector 1 of Yako where the rate is 72.4 percent for female-headed households and 68.5 percent for the male-headed households. This generally confirms the practice in the country and in the rural areas in particular where parents prefer to send boys, rather than girls, to school.

Literacy development is another way of learning how to write and read. It is generally meant for those who did not have the opportunity to go through the traditional educational system. These are usually adults or children who did not go to school at the proper school age. Literacy courses can be given in French, Arabic or in a national language.

Table 11 indicates that 80 percent of the population of the 5 villages and sector 1 of Yako were never educated. Koaltanghin is the most affected (92.2%), followed by Kabo (88.9%), Rallo (85.5 %), Pelegtenga (82.2 %), Lilbouré (78.7 %) and sector 1 Yako (37.5%). With regard to the educated population, the language where they are most literate is in French.

Arabic and Mooré are the two other languages used in learning in all the localities.

In summary, the data of the pilot survey clearly indicate that the populations of the five sample villages are under-educated and under-

Table 11
Pattern of the Distribution of the Population of More Than 15 Years According to the Literacy Language and the Village

Language of Alpha	Villages (%)						
	Kabo	Koaltanghin	Lilbourné	Pelegtenga	Rallo	Sector 1 Yako	Total
Not educated	88.9	92.2	78.7	82.2	85.6	37.5	79.7
French	10.0	4.0	13.4	12.2	10.9	58.9	16.2
Mooré	1.0	3.1	0.6	1.6	3.4	1.3	1.8
Fulfuldé		0.1					0.0
Arabic	0.1	0.5	7.3	3.9	0.1	1.9	2.1
Other foreign languages						0.4	0.1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source of data: SSP2 pilot survey - June/July 2002

literate despite the existence of a school with 3 classes in each locality. Sector 1 of Yako seems slightly better equipped. One cannot say that undereducation is due to the lack of school infrastructures. Rather, it may be due to lack of financial means or lack of appreciation by the population on the importance education and literacy development. Because of this, the development of the region suffers as an under-literate population could not effectively benefit from the advantages of modernization.

d) Incomes, land property and agriculture

The five villages covered by the survey are agricultural zones par excellence. Access to land is significant and determines in many cases the social condition of the individuals and households.

Land property

By examining the distribution of the population according to access to land and of the households according to the right of land use, one gets mixed results. Indeed, this shows the complexity of land problems experienced by the rural world. Up to now, land belongs to the landlord and to families, not to individuals. The high percentage of those with tenant status–all 5 villages report a percentage of tenant status higher than 80 percent–is an obstacle to private investment though there might also exist financial opportunities.

In sector 1 of Yako, agriculture is not the dominant activity. Yako is the chief town of the department and it has the characteristics of an average city. Still, it has some people cultivating the land and among them, the percentage who are tenants is also very high at 94.7 percent as compared to owners at 29.3 percent.

In terms of income of the surveyed population, they generally come mostly from agriculture, market-gardening and breeding (Table 12). When a credit system exists in a locality, it is a little developed and covers few households. One also notes that there are less than half of the household members who provide income in all the localities. Seasonal employment is also dominant.

Table 12
Creation Conditions of Households' Incomes

Description	Villages					
	Kabo	Koaltanghin	Lilbouré	Pelegtenga	Rallo	Sector 1/Yako
Main income source						
• April / September • October / March	EP* onion	sorghum niébé	EP niébé	EP niébé	sorghum niébé	PM* peanut
Existence of credit structure	no	yes	no	no	no	yes
% households not having access to credit	95.5	96.7	100	98.6	91.2	89.7
Number of providers average/household	3.6	3.4	4.1	3.8	2.1	1.7
% pop occupied by seasonal employment	91.3	98.3	88.5	56.3	96.4	55.4

EP = Livestock produce; PM = market-gardening produce
Source of data: SSP2 pilot survey - June/July 2002

With regard to agricultural production, Table 13 shows that the various localities still mostly use the traditional methods (use of "daba" or traditional hoe) with little artificial fertilizers and without an irrigation system in most fields. This means that the level of productivity of peasants is not high and incomes are low.

Table 13
Farming Methods Practiced According to Villages'

Farming methods	Villages					
	Kabo	Koaltanghin	Lilbouré	Pelegtenga	Rallo	Sector 1/Yako
% households cultivating with the traditional hoe	80.4	61.5	39.2	42.6	32.1	58.5
% households not having access to irrigation	100	99.2	100	100	99.4	97.6
% households using artificial fertilizers	13.2	32.9	1.8	22	32.8	35
A number of village groupings	5	8	9	2	5	3
Exist T-it a service of popularization	yes	yes	yes	not	not	not

Source of data: SSP2 pilot survey - June/July 2002

e) Material living conditions

The people and its environment, possession of some assets, and the source of water supply constitute the benchmarks in the analysis of the material living conditions of the population. In the rural areas, there are no running water nor electricity. Drinking water, i.e., water coming from the public fountains, modern wells, and drillings, is not accessible to all. The rate of latrine construction is very weak. In general, cleanliness in the domestic environment is not a collective concern. The houses are mostly made of mud and few of them have floorings made of cement except in sector 1 of Yako as seen in Table 14.

In short, the housing condition is not decent: houses are mostly mud-built, the floor is not cemented and lighting is done with wood. As for the domestic environment, it is unhealthy with an extremely weak latrine construction, thereupon becoming a source of parasitic diseases. Drinking water is not yet accessible to all thereby exposing the population to water-borne diseases.

In semi-urban areas, as in sector 1 of Yako, the conditions are relatively less hard and precarious. Nonetheless, the overall situation reflects serious shortcomings in terms of material wellbeing and decent life.

Table 14
Material Living Conditions of the Populations

Living Conditions	Villages					
	Kabo	Koaltanghin	Lilbouré	Pelegtenga	Rallo	Sector 1/Yako
% households owner of their dwelling	93.8	97.1	91.8	93.4	97.7	79.3
Roof of the main building (%)						
• Sheet	34.7	24.2	60.6	67	30.2	96.6
• Straw	52.1	40	23.3	12.3	23.3	–
• Mud	12.8	35.8	16.1	20.3	45.9	2.9
Materials of the wall of the main building (%)						
• Mud	99	79.6	97.4	80.7	6.4	44.3
• improved mud		19.6		0.5	91.9	19.5
• cement	1		2.6	3.4	1.7	36.2
• straw				12.6		
Materials of the floor of the main building (%)						
• mud	88.6	89.6	59.3	80.7	72.1	14.9
• cement	11.4	9.2	8.8	8.9	27.9	83.3
• tiles		1.3	32	10.4		1.7
Persons/average room number	2.1	1.8	2.6	2	2.4	2.3
% households having access to drinking water	37.4	9.2	36.1	12.7	83.1	84.5
% households/lighting mode						
• electricity				0.5		22.4
• oil lamp	29.7	11.3	22.7	1.4	23.1	48.3
• torch	32.4	62.1	6.2	1.4	27.7	10.9
• wood	36.9	24.6	70.1	95.8	27.2	17.2
Toilet (%)						
• ordinary latrines	0.7	0.4	7.8	15.2	2.3	88.4
• in the bush	99	99.6	90.2	84.8	97.7	11
Average number of bikes/household	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.5	1.8	0.8
% households not having a television	98.6	99.6	95.5	95.3	97.6	79.4

Source of data: SSP2 pilot survey - June/July 2002

f) Social implications, vulnerability to crises and personal dignity

The level of organization in a village or sector is a relevant indicator of the degree of the residents' commitment in the community's life. Being consulted before any decision concerning the household or community is made also shows the regard for the individual in family or community life. Finally, a household unable to bury decently its dead following the customs and habits of the community is said to be marginalized.

Table 15 shows that the level of mobilization in village associations is low. Hardly is there a person out of three who is a member in an organization in the villages. Kabo has the lowest rate (13.5% of the informants) and Koaltanghin has the highest rate (30.3% of the informants). The situation in sector 1 of Yako is also alarming (8.9% of the informants).

Table 15
Level of Commitment in the Community's Life

Implications	Villages					
	Kabo	Koaltanghin	Lilbouré	Pelegtenga	Rallo	Sector 1/Yako
% people consulted for decision-making	14	37.7	28	39.5	17.3	8.3
% people organized in association	13.5	30.3	27.5	23	23.1	8.9
% men consulted before decision-making	19.9	39.2	24.7	43.2	22.5	8.1
% women consulted before decision-making	9.3	36.4	30.7	35.7	13.2	8.6
% households unable to bury their dead	43.3	1.3	0	1.9	14.7	17.2

Source of data: SSP2 pilot survey - June/July 2002

Pelegtenga is the locality where the consultation rate is the highest (39.5% of informants) and Kabo is the one with the lowest rate (14% of informants). Apart from Lilbouré and sector 1 of Yako, where women are more consulted than men, there is a relative superiority of men in the other localities.

Concerning marginalization, it is surprising to note that 43.3 percent of the households are unable to decently bury their dead according to customs and habits. Meanwhile, more than one household out of ten in Rallo and sector 1 of Yako cannot bury their dead decently in observance of customs and habits.

The perception of poverty

The definition of poverty is rather complex. The same is true for the phenomenon itself as it is perceived by different people in different ways. At the same time, the indicators of poverty differ between the experts and the poor themselves.

One of the objectives of the pilot survey was to know how the surveyed population, living in an area classified among the poor areas of Burkina, perceive the concept of poverty.

The answers to the question, freely and variously expressed by the populations, are indicated by village in Table16.

In all the six localities surveyed, poverty is perceived mainly as food shortage, with 60.7 percent of the population perceiving it that way. This is the first indicator in all the localities. Lack of employment is seen as number 2 while lack of income comes in third.

Table 16
Distribution of Population According to Poverty Perception and the Village and Sex

Perceptions	Villages (%)											
	Kabo		Koaltanghin		Lilbourné		Pelegtenga		Rallo		Sector 1 Yako	
	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F	H	F
Food shortage	74.4	80.4	51.6	63.7	68.4	85.2	48.0	50.5	43.6	50.7	38.9	46.6
Lack of job and income	11.4	6.8	40.1	30.0	28.5	12.4	33.5	33.4	45.2	38.0	37.7	29.1
Lack of clothing	0.3	0.7	6.6	5.2	0.2	0.3	1.3	2.3	4.3	4.8	3.1	2.1
Lack of housing							0.4	1.4	0.2		0.5	1.0
Lack of equipment	0.1	0.3			0.4	0.2	9.1	8.0	0.4	0.2	2.1	1.5
Lack of support	5.5	4.9		0.3	0.8	0.8	2.5	1.9	1.0	0.9	12.3	12.1
Lack of power	2.5	2.1	0.7		1.0	0.3	2.3	1.4	2.0	1.7		
Lack of land	0.4	0.4			0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.6			
Lack of cattle	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.1			0.2				0.2	0.2
Others	5.2	4.0	0.7	0.7	0.4	0.5	2.6	1.0	2.8	3.7	5.2	7.5
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source of data: SSP2 pilot survey - June/July 2002

Kabo is the highest in terms of ranking food shortage as the main definition of poverty, followed by Lilbouré (77.6%) and Koaltenga (58.3%) and finally, by the other localities at less than 50 percent of the population.

One can say that the third indicator of poverty perceived by the population of each locality–after food shortage and lack of employment– indicates the specificity of the locality. In sector 1 of Yako, for instance, "lack of support" is number 3. This is understandable in an urban area where individualism is on the rise.

The data indicate that in all the villages, women are the most numerous to say that lack of food is the first indicator of poverty (64.9% of women against 55.7% of men). This is easily understood because as mothers they are the first to feel the effects of the lack of food in the households.

The lack of employment and income comes in the second position as poverty indicator, according to the perception of the interviewed populations. In all the villages and sector 1 of Yako, more men than women believe that the lack of jobs and income is to be truly poor. Such is the position of 11.4 percent of men against 6.8 percent of women in Rallo. In Lilbouré, 28.5 percent of men against 12.4 percent of women is the proportion; the figure is 37.7 percent of men and 29.1 percent of women for sector 1 of Yako. On the other hand, in Pelegtenga, there are as many men as women who consider the lack of employment and income as an indicator of poverty.

Men being the main income providers within the households, it is understandable that they are most concerned by the lack of employment and income.

Lack of clothing is felt almost equally by men and women, but more by women in 4 of the 5 villages.

The lack of housing is not a problem in most villages while the lack of equipment is a concern for men in all the localities, except Koaltanghin.

The lack of power is not mentioned in the city; it does not seem to be a problem for the city-dwellers due to their diverse ethnic origins which overlooks the role of Chief.

On the other hand, the lack of land has the same degree of concern for both men and women in the villages. This is, however, not mentioned in the city as a sign of poverty.

General conclusion

The population of the villages and sector 1 of Yako is characterized by its youth. There are generally more women than men. The size of the households is on average around 9 people in rural areas and 7 in

semi-urban areas.

Food insecurity is general in all the villages because the cereal stocks available as indicated by the heads of households cannot cover the pre-season period which goes from June to October. The average number of meals taken per day within the households is lower than three for adults and four for children. The quantitative and qualitative insufficiency of the daily meals of children has a harmful effect on their growth and development.

In the health sector, the pilot survey reveals that most of the villages do not have a CSPS, maternity and pharmaceutical depot. The medical coverage is weak and the majority of the population do not make any consultation and resort to traditional healers or marabouts for their health problems. Generally, too, the villages do not have any evacuation means. The vaccine coverage is also weak except for meningitis which is a recurring epidemic in the country. The construction of latrine is practically non-existent in the villages.

Concerning education, schooling level is low as very few children reach secondary school. Inspite of the existence of a school in each village, the enrolment rate in primary school is lower than 40 percent for the majority of the villages. Koaltanghin has the lowest rate (8.1%). In Pelegtenga, the rate reaches 43.4 percent. Moreover, in all the villages, girls are less educated than boys, except in sector 1 of Yako. In the households run by women, the survey indicates that girls are maintained longer in the school system.

As for households' incomes, they mostly come from agricultural produce, market-gardening and breeding. Agricultural productivity is low because the households do not use modern farming methods. The modern credit system as a lever for development is practically non-existent. Seasonal employment is dominant and high dependence rate in the households (more than 50%) is extensive. One can deduce that this is an obstacle to individual income growth.

The material living conditions in the villages are precarious and the housing conditions are not decent. The domestic environment is unhealthy and most of the population do not have access to drinking

water. For the surveyed populations, poverty is first strongly expressed in terms of food need–survival need or need to feed oneself–in order to live and cope with the other aspects of life.

Key Comments

- The paper is interesting and well written. It gives a poverty profile of the Yako department that is constructed from the CBMS data. It is clear that the CBMS Burkina Faso Team has progressed enormously since its exploratory phase.
- The study has to make sure about the quality of data.
- Were the population and local authorities consulted on the choice of the indicators presented in the paper? It was mentioned that the questionnaire was reduced from 20 to 2 pages. Since many of the indicators presented in the paper were dropped, it should be mentioned whether the population and the local authorities were consulted on the choice of the indicators to drop.
- There seems to be a consensus that poverty is foremost a lack of food and second, the lack of employment opportunities. These two dimensions are covered by the indicators but it is not clear whether they are receiving the greater attention. In particular, efforts in food insecurity are not adequately covered.
- At the level of health structures, it would be better to formulate the indicator in terms of distance to the closest health structure, instead of existence of health structure in the village or sector. This formulation is misleading, for example, in the case of Rallo and Sector 1, which are both very close to the Yako center.
- In terms of the main income sources, the mining sector is not included although it is a very important income source in the village of Pelegtanga.
- Highlight the uses of the system at the local level such as in poverty monitoring and local development planning. How is the decentralisation process influencing that?
- Highlight the links between the system and the other poverty monitoring activities such as PRSP in Burkina Faso.
- What are the next steps? Will it be the extension of the system to the whole Passoré province?

- It might be useful to find out about employment, mortality rate of children and maternal mortality rate, which are more critical compared to the existence of drugstores, among others.
- It is also critical to include child labor, the number of wage workers in the village, the kinds of employment, and the cash income.
- There is not much that can be done to push the development process further unless there are progressive-minded local government officials.
- Some of the lessons in the experiences of other countries such as the construction of the questionnaire could further bring out the possibilities of having this for development programs.
- It is difficult to see here how the poor were distinguished from the non-poor. Basically, it is really more of how to use the indicators to determine who are the poor.

Proposed System to Monitor Local Level Living Conditions in Senegal

Debo Sow, Momar Balle Sylla and Mamadou Moustapha Thiam

Introduction

Two milestones marked the start of the MIMAP-Senegal program.

One was Senegal's regionalization law passed on March 22, 1996 which designated the transfer of nine areas of expertise or functions to local governments (region, communes, administrative region of a commune and rural communities). Said transfer of functions include the conception, programming and implementation of actions for economic and social development. Unfortunately, the transfer was not accompanied by a corresponding allocation of resources by the state to the local governments.

Two was the launching of Senegal's "Strategy for the Reduction of Poverty Document" (DSRP) in 2001. The launch was done in the framework of a participative process involving all the actors in the economic development of the country, e.g., public sector, private sector, civil society and other partners in development. Policies concerning the fight against poverty were introduced in the early 1990 but consensual steps have not been adopted until recently. This has led to a document of global policy that takes into account sectoral and local policies. One of the major focus in the implementation of

the DSRP is in relation to the tracking and evaluation of the realization of objectives and achievements. This requires the setting up of an information system that includes the dissemination of data.

The institutional mechanism of monitoring and evaluation involves different players in development such as local collectives who have full responsibility in the execution of policies, programs and projects as provided in the regionalization law of 1996 in Senegal.

Need for a monitoring system

In Senegal, there is no existing system of monitoring living conditions of households. In the framework of the Social Dimension of Adaptation Program (Programme Dimension Sociale de l'Ajustement – DSA), a mechanism that would lead to a monitoring system of conditions of households in the long term was envisioned. This system of monitoring is characterized by the inquiry, based on a key sample, of households using a simple questionnaire. The Inquiry on Priorities (Enquête Sur les Priorités – ESP) and the Senegalese Inquiry on Households (Enquête Sénégalaise Auprès les Ménages – ESAM) were thus conceived. Sadly, the monitoring system envisaged did not push through. The community inquiry initially foreseen was not executed and the conduct of the ESP on a regular basis was not observed.

A collection of information that could be used in analyzing living conditions of households, however, is available. But the short-term character and the absence of a harmonized methodology (at the geographic observation level, the size of the samples, the concepts and list of terms, and the coverage of socio-economic themes, among others) of the studies which constitute the core of this collection of information are a limiting factor.

Senegal is in the initial stage of defining the architecture of the system of information on poverty. The Directorate on Planning and Statistics (DPS) has, since October 2002, led the conceptual work and implementation of a permanent and integrated system of monitoring and evaluation on poverty, living conditions and human development. This system integrates a national observatory on the

living conditions and human development, a regular simple monitoring study and a section called 'the improvement of secondary data'. In the long term, the system hopes to serve as a monitoring instrument of the Strategy for the Reduction of Poverty.

All local data collection need a device that will furnish information on the living conditions of the citizens. The structure for observation of poverty and local development (called Observatory) is an instrument that may be used toward this end. It is an instrument of data gathering, analysis of data and dissemination of results that would put in evidence changes affecting factors that cause poverty and inequality.

Team 4 of MIMAP-Senegal is tasked with the conception and test of the methodology for the placement of the system that will monitor living conditions and poverty. This system will be helpful to local authorities in their synthesis of information for local planning and the use of the observatory structure guarantees the neutrality and credibility of the information as well as the access of the different players to the results produced.

This report therefore describes the development and institutionalization of such system that has been proposed to monitor living conditions of households in a local area. The system aims to integrate its features with the national statistical system, in particular, the monitoring-evaluation device of the DSRP.

The goal of this report is to present the instruments in implementation, results and lessons taken from the experimentation with the proposed system.

Characteristics of the proposed methodology

The indicators

A list of socioeconomic indicators that track living conditions of households is drawn up and categorized according to area of study (housing, social development, environmental management, economic development and governance, among others).The indicators are distributed under ten general themes: (1) population, (2) active

population, (3) health and nutrition, (4) education and literacy, (5) comfort and ownership of households, (6) access to social services, (7) expenses and level of poverty, (8) market availability of basic necessities, (9) agriculture and natural resources, and (10) local public finances. These indicators are integrated as deemed necessary and differentiated as well by genre, social group and others in order to keep count of specifics and better orient policies in the fight against poverty.

The indicators have been validated by the Observatory whose outputs are currently sustained by national inquiries and censuses conducted by the DPS, data of sanitary health structures, and community education inquiries at the household level.

Data gathering methodology

The survey on living conditions of households, which is proposed to be done every year, aims to monitor the living conditions of households in the localities and has 150 households at a time as sample size. One third of this number will be re-surveyed every two years. Data gathering will last for one to one-and-a-half months.

There will be one unified questionnaire for the indicators of development and two supplementary instruments to gather the households' perceptions of poverty and their expenditures.

The results of the monitoring survey will be presented to the community members afterwards and will form part of the community's databank. They will also be published as "A Survey on the Living Conditions of Households."

Necessary resources

The proposed initial budget of the Observatory was approximately 26.9 million FCFA. This amount included expenses for the purchase of the necessary equipment and for the financing of operational and data-gathering activities. Later, in the section on survey costs, the budgets for the 3 selected survey sites will be shown.

Institutionalization of the monitoring apparatus

The implementation of policies for the reduction of poverty could be impeded by two major factors. One is the absence of a framework that permits the generation of regular, pertinent and efficient information needed to monitor policies. And another is the lack of the capacity to analyze data, something very much needed in reinforcing the work of local authorities. The lack of knowledge of the channels of transmission of macro-economic policies at the medium and micro-economic levels, in particular (locality or household) with regards to poverty, constitutes a critical missing link in the maximization of targetted results.

The Observatory, as noted previously, could constitute a tool for ex ante (forecasting) and ex post (monitoring) evaluation of policies at a more decentralized (local) scale. But how can the work of the Observatory be validated? How can a system be put in place to do so?

The proposed system of monitoring aims to address these. The proposed system, in effect, is not totally a new one. It simply harmonizes the roles of the different local players involved in local development. It therefore acts to institutionalize the system. As such, it institutionalizes the roles of said players through the following:

a) Formation of the structure for the preparation, production, validation and dissemination of results

At this level, two elements should be identified and markedly distinguished, namely, the structure of the data collection and the production of reports.

The first element could be managed by a bureau responsible for the work and which funds the making of decisions. The second element documents the work of the first element and plays the function of validation and moral guarantee of the obtained results. This is the Committee on Orientation (Comité d'Orientation). The formation of the CO is guided by the principle of participation of the people depending on their own level of responsibility.

To maximize the appropriation of the system and the results,

involvement of the different groups in the locality (women's associations, youth, health committees, parent's associations, and socio-professional associations, among others) must be strongly pursued. The number of juridical or institutional persons who have the right to sit in the local Observatory should also be determined.

b) Attributes of the CO

Under the authority of the locally elected official, the CO plays the key role in the formulation and implementation of local policies. In effect, the establishment of a participative process has become the central instrument in human development. Good governance (transparency) and sustained growth aimed at satisfying basic human needs and reducing poverty are the objectives of the system. In this way, the CO is the organ which, along with the elected officials, participates in the stages of implementation of development policies in the context of decentralization. The CO is thus a partner in the implementation of policies.

c) Criteria for the validation of the Observatory's outputs

To ensure that the indicators are relevant, it is important to define a table of limits and objectives. The results of current statistics and of surveys sustain the database in question. The validation could be done through workshops where discussions among players on the results are played out.

d) How to put the output of the Observatory to good use

To encourage the utilization of outputs, the Observatory can come up with a program of publications. Depending on the capacity of the organization and the finances of the different players, the publications can be issued on an annual or more frequent basis.

The Observatory is tasked with the collection, processing and dissemination of data on the households and communities. Its activities are to be done by its Bureau consisting of two sections namely:

- section for collection and analysis of data which analyzes

information and disseminates the results.

- section for the use of data and management of information which treats and processes the data for the purpose of producing indicators that serve to sustain the computerized database.

Implementation

The choice of localities and the institutionalization of the system

The proposed monitoring methodology will be pilot tested at the level of the commune, arrondissement commune and rural community where the size of the population is between 5-10 thousand inhabitants and whose location is close to Dakar (for logistical and financial reasons). The area should also be positioned for a development plan or a local program for the fight against poverty.

Senegal had passed a law on decentralization in 1996 that defines four levels of local communities consisting of regions, communes, arrondissement communes and rural communities. The implementation of the proposed system concerns (a) a commune in the Dakar region, (b) a commune with rural characteristics (Thiès region), and (c) a rural community (Diourbel region).

In Dakar, the municipality of Guédiawaye was chosen as pilot site. The municipality was created in 1990 and originally constituted a zone of reorganized shanty towns of Dakar. Officially, it regroups 56 neighbourhoods. The communal perimeter consists of 1,353 hectares and is found on the edge of Dakar. It also keeps functional links with the economy of the region. The great number of associations–diverse in composition–constitutes enormous potentials for development. Initial contacts made by Team 4 of the MIMAP-Senegal program with local authorities reveal that the city is ready to take on the monitoring and evaluation system that could fill in the current lack of information.

The rural community (communauté rurale – CR) of Ndangalma, meanwhile, is found in the region of Diourbel (Bambey department, Ngoye arrondissement) at approximately 110 kms from the capital. The administrative reform of 1972 gave birth to the CR in terms of a

decentralized local collectivity. It is directed by a rural council and covers 83 km². It includes 41 villages and its population is estimated at 19,551.

The CR of Ndangalma has all the characteristics of a Senegalese rural milieu. In effect, this CR is situated in the Sudano-Sahelian zone with a short rainy season (June to October). More than 80 percent of the population are engaged in agricultural/pastoral activities dominated by peanut culture. Access to basic social services is extremely difficult and while the village center is traversed by the national road, the network of trails connecting the different villages remains defective. Access to good quality water is the first problem. The CR is equipped with 83 wells and 3 water drillings but the water has a strong calcium and fluorine content.

The third pilot site is in the Thiès region, where the monitoring system is set up in the commune of Tivaouane and situated a little more than 90 kms north of Dakar. It became a full fledged commune in February 1960. It is also the center for the administrative department of Tivaoune and includes 25 neighborhoods (quarters) with a population of 42,000 individuals.

Tivaoune is a city without industry where all the productive activities register under the informal sector. Like in Gwédiawaye, the population have decided to take their future in their hands but they are confronted with the problem of not having enough capacity for the mounting of projects. Local executives and leaders are all located in Dakar where most economic activities are concentrated.

The communes of Tivaouane and Guédiawaye have each taken an administrative act to institutionalize the monitoring system. Tivaouane issued an administrative decree creating an Observatory for the monitoring of household living conditions (Municipal decree number 30/CAB/CT creating the Committee on Orientation of the Observatory on the living conditions of households). It is directed by an Orientation Committee in terms of its methodological and strategic choices, which is presided by the mayor of the commune and includes 17 members.

At Guédiawaye, the commune has been using a city Project Cell

since 1996. The Project Cell is a local development program conceived with the help of partners (European Development funds, Enda Ecopop and AFVP) and is aimed at better involving and coordinating the action of players in development. The Observatory on poverty is found within this cell which is directly attached to the mayor's cabinet. The cell is directed by an economist.

The president of the rural community of Ndangalma, on the other hand, did not issue an administrative decree but verbally put members of Team 4 of MIMAP in contact with the community secretary who monitors its works. The community secretaries are supposed to reinforce the administrative capacity and management of local collectivities. They are placed under the authority of the President of the Rural Council.

Methodology of the monitoring study

a) Method of observation

The community study covers all the neighborhoods (quarters) of the villages of the local collectivity while the household study covers a sample of approximately 264 households. The data collection is spread out over a period of a maximum of 30 days.

A team of 5 researchers will take care of the collection, with three of them charged with the household study while the other two, with the community questionnaire. In each quarter or village of the sample, a constant number of 12 households is chosen. These households are divided into three groups of four. Each group corresponds to a day's work for a researcher. That makes one day of work for a quarter or village.

The community study is exhaustive and addresses all the heads of villages or quarters. The rhythm of the work is related to the size of the collectivity measured in terms of number of villages or quarters. The suggestion is to cover an average of 8 villages or quarters per day, divided between two members of the team. This rhythm and distribution of work could, however, be modified taking into account the duration of the data gathering (22 days) and the size of the local

collectivity (number of quarters or villages). At the end of the data gathering at the community level, the fourth researcher could source other colleagues by giving each a work day in rotation until the end of all the work. The original methodology was readapted, though.

At Tivouane, the community study involved 25 quarters of the city and was done through the heads of the quarters while the household study covered a sample of 22 quarters where 12 households were selected in each.

At Wakhinane in the community of Guédiawaye, the study lasted for 23 days in the month of January 2003. The whole team was mobilized to collect the data at the two levels.

In the community of Ndangalma, the collection of data was spread out over 24 days from 10 March to 21 April, 2003. At the start of the work, the whole team worked together in a village in the hope of harmonizing the contents of the manual of instructions. Work was subsequently divided in a way that each researcher took charge of a village near his own area of residence both for the household study and the community study.

b) Questionnaires of the monitoring study

The data collection for the monitoring study consists of a community questionnaire and a household questionnaire.

The community questionnaire aims to gather detailed information on the villages or quarters of the local collectivity. The principal respondent is the head of the quarter/village. The questionnaire is divided into:

Section A: Identification of the community which contains elements about the category of the community either as a region, department, commune/rural community, or quarter/village/hamlet, and the name of the head of the quarter/village.

Section B: Terrain operations and seizure which identifies the collection personnel and marks the dates wherein the tasks connected to these operations have been effected.

Section C: Demographics which relates to the number of

concessions, households, persons (male/female) and ethnic groups living in the quarter/village.

Section D: Economics and infrastructure which provides information regarding the areas of transport and communications, electricity/water, micro-finance, commerce and services, economic activities, quality of life and poverty.

Section E: Education and literacy. For education, the section focuses on centers of learning closest to the locality: daarah (Koranic school), kindergartens, day-cares, primary schools, middle schools and high schools. For each of these centers, the questions asked about the type of school, (public/private) number of classes, number of students, year of creation of the establishment, and distance in relation to the quarter/village. For literacy, this sub-section focuses on the existence of a program of literacy for adults plus the number of men and women involved in these programs.

Section F: Health which asks questions on the health infrastructure and problems encountered by the inhabitants of the quarter/village with health care. It equally asks about the distance of these facilities from the quarter/village. The second question relates to the place of infant delivery of the majority of women in the quarter/village.

Section G: Community organizations which asks for information about community organizations: A.S.C., group for promoting women, committee on water management, groups of economic interest, development associations, committees on health.

On the other hand, the questionnaire for the households permits the acquisition of detailed information on members of households, the home and the children of 3 to 59 months. The information have to do with the following: composition of the household; education; health; employ; international migration; characteristics of the home; comfort of the household and property; and physical size of the children.

The specific information gathered are:

Section A: Identification of the household which contains the elements that identify the household as to region, department, commune/rural community, quarter/village and hamlet, and the name

of the household head and the number of the household.

Section B: Operations which identifies the personnel who are to collect the data and marks the dates in which the tasks related to these operations were effected.

Section C: Composition of the household which identifies the members of the household and obtains socio-demographic information about each one. The main respondent for this section is the household head or any other member capable of furnishing the appropriate information.

Section D: Education. In terms of education, those who have already had schooling are distinguished from those who have not had any. The remainder of the questions in this section are asked only of those of the former category and concern the highest level achieved by a person, whether the person attended school the year before, whether the person frequents a school and the level frequented by the person, among others.

Section E: Health which relates to the health of the members of the household over the course of the 4 most recent weeks before the arrival of the researchers.

Section F: Employment which asks about various information regarding employment for the different members of the household such as the habitual and actual activities of the members of the household.

Section G: International migration which contains information about the migration of old members of the household during the last 5 years such as identification, destination, reasons for leaving, person responsible for the decision, and others.

Section H: Characteristics of the home, comfort and other properties which is devoted to the characteristics of the home as well as the comfort and other properties of the household. This includes information like the type of lodging, the number of sections of the lodging, the nature of the roof, nature of the wall, among others.

Section I: Measure of the physical size of children which concerns the height and weight of children between 3–59 months (more or less 5 years old).

c) Training of the researchers

The training of the research collection personnel consists of a theoretical module on the tools of data collection, ways of completing the questionnaires and on understanding the nuances of the questionnaires. After the theoretical training, the researchers, accompanied by their trainers, visit a few households to administer the questionnaire. This reinforces their degree of comprehension in completing the questionnaire.

The evaluation of the test had been done by the trainers to correct errors committed by the researchers in training one final time.

These different stages in training have permitted trainers to review the instruction manual for agent researchers to make it more understandable and precise or to add complementary information.

Following this test phase, the agent researchers started the data collection proper. Training lasted 5 days in each locality.

The plan of the survey

The community study is an exhaustive operation and stands on the collection of quarters or villages in the local collectivity while the household survey rests on a probabilistic and permanent sample of 264 households.

In the households study, the quarter or village is chosen in the first place with a probability that is proportionate to the size expressed in the number of households. Next, a constant maximum number of 12 households is chosen (with 3 replacements). The households are divided into 3 groups of 4 with each group corresponding to one day of work for a researcher. Each researcher does 4 households a day.

If the local collectivity numbers less than 22 quarters or villages, the sample of households is chosen considering the whole of these quarters/villages. Table 1 shows the number of households based on the size of the locality expressed in number of quarters/villages.

In the commune of Tivaouane and the arrondissement commune of Wakhinane, the survey base was drawn by the agent researchers with the help of the mayors and delegates from the quarters who informed the inhabitants about the study.

For the selection of the quarters/villages, the researchers first

Table 1
Size of the Sample of Localities Having Less Than 22 Quarters/Villages

Number of quarters/ villages in the local collectivity	Number of households to be taken per quarter/village	Size of the sample
19 – 21	13	247-273
16 – 18	15	240-270
13 – 15	18	234-270
11- 12	22	242-264
10	26	260

determined the drawing of lots that is equal to the total number of households in the locality divided by 22, the number of quarters/ villages to be taken. Then, the total number of households of the quarters/villages is determined.

Processing of the data

Each of the questionnaires involves a data-capturing program of its own. The information collected are controlled by a program where errors of the capture as well as of coherence, are listed on paper for making the necessary adjustments.

Tabulation and analysis of the results

The study contains four levels of observation, namely: (a) the community (quarter/village), (b) household, (c) persons, and (d) immigrants and children from 3 to 59 months. Each of these levels corresponds to an analysis file.

Tabulation is done starting from these files with the creation of variables that are not directly observed. The obtained results are related to the following themes: socio-demographic characteristics of the households; education; health and nutritional situation of children; activities of the members of the household; international migration; and housing, facilities and property of the households. A table is drawn up for each community and the indicators that figure in it.

The MIMAP team then produces the document 'results of the

monitoring survey' which is submitted to the mayor or president of the rural community. It is envisioned that the writing of the analysis report of the results will be done by the bureau of the observatory with support from Centre de Recherches Économicuqes Apliquées (CREA).

Dissemination and utilization of the results

A seminar is being planned where the obtained results in the 3 sites are to be presented. This serves as an occasion to inform the players in local development of the existence of the system and the possibilities it offers in relation to the demands of statistical information at the local level.

The utilization of the data in particular started in Tivaouane where the indicators were furnished to the city council for their needs in planning for a project on the water supply of the locality.

Conclusion: Lessons to be drawn

The process of setting up a monitoring system of the living conditions of households and of poverty in the three localities chosen in Senegal offers a number of lessons as shown in the succeeding subsections.

Local capacity for management and implementation

While the benefits of a system of information need not be mentioned, it is useful to ask if the local community is ready to use the system. The people have demonstrated their extent of involvement and the local authorities' commitment have also been expressed. The latter have become conscious of the importance of the information in the elaboration of planning instruments and development.

Capacities exist at the local level for data collection and processing. Research personnel were recruited and trained locally. These personnel performed in a completely satisfactory manner. There was therefore at this level a realized "empowerment" of the population. At Guédiawaye, for example, researchers participated in other data collection activities.

This may not be the case for the analysis of data. The capacity of the members of the population for data analysis will be tested but the members of the Bureau of the Observatory must provide some basic training for the reinforcement of new acquired skills.

It is important to obtain the appreciation of the population on the holding of information meetings with their representatives (quarter delegates, village heads, etc.) so that they could understand what is at stake in the system, its importance and its impact on their living conditions. These representatives have worked to sensitize households to the study, which was of great value in ensuring the good performance of the work of the researchers.

The personnel of the Bureau of the Observatory includes municipal and rural councilors who have contributed in a significant way to the implementation of the methodology, especially in Ndangalma and Tivouane. These councilors were locally elected officials whose mandate is limited. In the following elections, they would get re-elected if they could, but the possibility of not having them there again is always present, which is unfavorable if one wants to make the system permanent. Decentralization is still at its beginnings and there must be a viable local administration in place that will play its role no matter which set of elected officials is in place.

Data collection and analysis

Local authorities have participated in the choice of researchers who have come from the locality to be surveyed on the basis of a set of defined criteria. These criteria have generally been respected but in the evaluation of the data collection, it was suggested that more researchers be recruited for training to ensure a better pool of agents in the future.

The manual of the agent researcher is written in French. In the rural milieu, some researchers have asked if certain questions can be translated into the local language in order to capture its true sense. In the localities where there have been tests, the MIMAP team mastered the language which is spoken by the majority. But in the future and in

certain regions, there will be a need to resort to a translator to facilitate comprehension among the participants.

The presence of certain non-pertinent questions for a locality were asked by the researchers. The same questionnaire was used in the urban milieu and rural milieu. Certain researchers find that it is useful to proceed to a sort of adaptive questionnaire that would retain nothing but relevant questions for a particular milieu. This is important because this adaptation will avoid certain errors of coherence introduced in general by the data capturing.

In terms of the organization on the ground of data capturing personnel, the models adopted at Guédiawaye and Ndangalma should serve as examples. The first helped save time for the data collection stage while the second resolved transportation problems in areas where distances to be traveled could be long from one village to another.

The increase of the duration of the training of the agents to five days instead of four should permit greater efficiency and the mastering of procedures. The choice of correctors could come from the controllers or researchers who already have a good knowledge of the logic of the questionnaire and its contents. Control programs are to be revised according to the identification of all specifications that are useful to the improvement of the quality of the data.

Salaries paid to the researchers are at a rate considered very low by researchers in the region of Dakar. They find that the amount proposed are not adequate compensation for the work to be done.

Localities retained for the test of the system

The possibilities for the choice of sites were limited by the reality of budgetary constraints. This has prevented the diversification of zones that permit the meeting of other realities and difficulties that could be inherent in the absence of infrastructures (electricity, roads, etc.) and of human resources (individuals available for data capture and control). This evaluation suggests the need to repeat the experience in localities further from Dakar which have more unfavorable conditions. These projects are confronted by a need for more information that the

statistical apparatus cannot satisfy. Past studies do not integrate this level of representation.

Need for panel data

Finally, in the sites already having the system, panel data may be obtained by reconducting surveys where a small study will be incorporated on the expenses of households. These data are needed to have more complete and dynamic analyses on poverty.

Key Comments*

- CBMS in Senegal is a unique case in the network. It is a very high-tech CBMS, with a complex sample design at the local community level: two-stage sampling with unequal probability at the first stage. The system is completely computerized, using three softwares for data processing and analysis. At first sight, with a small sample size of 264 households in each local community (commune), there is a risk of underutilization and inefficiency of such an advanced technology.
- Local capacity exists for data collection and processing, but not necessarily for data analysis.
- There might be a problem with the relevance of the data to meet the needs of local development planning. With the actual sample design, since the villages within the commune are not all selected, those not selected (e.g., 3 of the 25 villages in the commune Tivaouane) could feel frustated when decisions are to be taken regarding the allocation of funds or the targeting of some development programs. In addition, only 12 households per village do not provide significant information at the village level, unless the village is extremely small, which is not always the case, according to the demographic figures presented for the three communes involved in the project. Thus, if there are serious constraints for the use of the data at the village level, the system could quickly become unsustainable, in proportion to the costs involved.
- The reported fixed cost per commune does not give the full picture of the initial investment cost. The work needed to form the required new administrative structures, the "Bureau de l'Observatoire" and the "Comité d'Orientation", should not be

* The comments were provided by Dr. Louis-Marie Asselin.

underestimated. This requires a lot of awareness and motivation efforts. Also, much technical training is needed to implement the complex sampling design, to master the three different softwares and the statistical analysis techniques (data weighting for unbiased estimates, among others).

- According to the financial report, the recurrent cost per commune is approximately US$ 4,232 or US$ 18 per household, which is extremely high. Efforts should be done to reduce this cost. This cost underestimates the real recurrent cost since the authors mention that the contribution of the local communities (local salaries, materials, office space, etc.) has not been taken into account. This recurrent cost represents from 3 percent to 8 percent of the total annual budget of the commune, which the commune could not afford in subsequent rounds, once the development phase with external financing is completed.
- The possibility of replicating the system in other local communities especially the rural ones is doubtful given the level of qualified human resources needed to implement the methodology developed in the pilot test. Neverthelesss, it remains possible.
- The idea of using trainees ("stagiaires") coming from the "Département Statistique et la Démographie", l'"Ecole Nationale des Travailleurs Sociaux Spécialisés", de la "Faculté des Sciences Économiques et de Gestion" is certainly a good one. But if the design is such that its implementation cannot be done without this external input, then the replicability at the national scale could be problematic.
- The recurrent cost could exceed 8 percent of the total annual budget of the commune for smaller communes with a lower annual budget, and thus it is not obvious that such communes could afford such a system.
- Because the field work has already been completed at least six months ago, some numerical results in the report are expected. Is the absence of such results an indicator that the analysis of the data, even with the support of CRÉA from Dakar University, is so

complex that it cannot be completed some months after the completion of the field work? If it is the case, then sustainability and the replicability of the system could again be questioned.

- To sum up, the CBMS-Sénégal program is developed with a high expertise from the "Direction de la Prévision et de la Statistique", which insures the quality of the data collected and of the analysis. This link with the national statistical system offers a high potential for the policy impact of the CBMS. But there are still some issues to be clarified regarding the efficiency, the sustainability and replicability of the system. The sample design appears as a technical question at the heart of all these issues. From this point of view, the Sénégal CBMS program constitutes a very instructive case for the whole CBMS network.

CBMS Session 3
New CBMS Initiatives in Asia and Africa

Local Level Poverty Monitoring System in Bangladesh: An Institutional Approach

Ranjan Kumar Guha*

Introduction

Poverty is the major concern in third world countries like Bangladesh. At present, 44.3 percent of Bangladesh's total population are living below the poverty line, with 20 percent of the population being hard-core poor. Arresting the problem is therefore one of the main thrusts of the development thinkers and policymakers. Because poverty is the manifestation of multi-dimensional problems, making prescriptions for its reduction and/or eradication requires having an in-depth knowledge and understanding of its causes. It is well recognized that the causes of poverty differ from place to place and have seasonal, regional, occupational and vulnerability dimensions. It is therefore necessary to identify the area-specific problems to attack poverty effectively.

Meanwhile, monitoring of the poverty situation is essential for getting feedback as well as for taking corrective measures to reduce the vulnerability of the poverty-stricken people. Poverty monitoring is a systematic approach to getting feedback of the poverty situation regularly. The Local Level Poverty Monitoring System (LLPMS)

* The author is very much grateful to Dr. Mustafa.K. Mujeri, project leader, MIMAP-Bangladesh for his guidance in preparing the paper.

concentrates on getting feedback on the poverty situation continuously through the involvement of local people under local initiative. But due to the multi-dimensional nature of poverty, it is very difficult to identify any single indicator thereby making the institutionalization of the monitoring system at the local level a very challenging task. Moreover, methodologies for monitoring certain indicators of poverty such as the cost of basic needs (CBN) and direct calories intake (DCI) methods are complicated and difficult to use at the local level. Who will do the monitoring regularly at the local level is also another serious question.

In this regard, the Bangladesh Academy for Rural Development (BARD) and the Bangladesh Institute of Development Studies (BIDS) piloted the LLPMS under the Micro Impact of Macroeconomic Adjustment Policies (MIMAP)-Bangladesh in an attempt to address the issue.

Existing poverty monitoring system in Bangladesh

The Household Income and Expenditure Survey (HIES) conducted by the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS) every four years provides poverty-related data and helps to know the poverty situation in Bangladesh. As of 2000, the BBS has been able to conduct 13 HIES since 1973-74 where the CBN and DCI methods are being used to measure the poverty scenario at the national and regional levels. However, it is very difficult to understand the poverty scenario at the grassroots level on the basis of this survey, thereupon hampering the full assessment of the poverty situation and the initiation of corrective actions to reduce poverty at the local level.

In addition to the HIES, Bangladesh has also prepared a Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) to attain the following goals in consonance with the Millennium Development Goal of eradicating poverty by 2015 with emphasis given to reducing gender disparity in every sphere:

- Eradicate hunger, chronic food insecurity and extreme destitution

- Reduce the number of people living below the poverty line by 50 percent
- Attain universal primary education for both sexes of primary school age
- Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education
- Reduce infant and under 5 mortality rates by 65 percent
- Reduce the number of malnourished children under 5 by 50 percent and eliminate gender disparity
- Reduce maternal mortality rate by 75 percent
- Ensure access to reproductive health services for all
- Substantially reduce social violence against the poor especially against women and children
- Ensure comprehensive disaster and risk management and environmental sustainability by mainstreaming these concerns into the national development process.

The PRSP also recommended a systematic approach to tracking the poverty situation and identified some institutional arrangements for poverty monitoring. A poverty focal point with strong institutional linkage and technical capacity will be set up in the General Economics Division (GED) of the Planning Commission to track the progress in anti-poverty policies and programs. A national Poverty Reduction Council under the chairmanship of the prime minister will also be constituted to address the problem of implementation and policy-related issues arising out of the monitoring and evaluation of the focal point. The unit will also organize regular consultations as part of the participatory poverty assessment process along with the strengthening of the HIES for poverty measurement. A set of core indicators has likewise been finalized by the PRSP as seen in Table 1.

Still, the abovementioned initiatives are not adequate to look into the poverty situation at the local level. As such, an additional approach to address this concern—the LLPMS—has been developed and proposed.

Table 1
Core indicators identified in the PRSP for monitoring poverty

Broad Area	Indicators
Income poverty	Poverty head count ratio, per capita food grain availability, agricultural labourer wage rate, wage rate in the manufacturing sector
Education	Gross enrolment rate, dropout rate at various level, completion (primary) and pass rate in public examination, relevant quality monitoring indicators
Health	Infant and child mortality, immunization coverage, nutritional indicator, birth attendance by trained personnel
Family planning	Total fertility rate, population growth rate
Water supply	Population with access to safe water
Food-assisted program	Impact in reducing variability of consumption of the poorest household
Micro credit	Skill formation, employment generation, income, graduation rate
Employment	Unemployment, under employment, movement of real wage rate
Law and order	Major crime number, rate of conviction
Housing and disaster management	Housing condition and other relevant indicators

Source: PRSP

Approaches to the local level poverty monitoring system

The LLPMS was designed to complement the national initiative on studying the poverty situation and to meet local needs. Indicators were identified in consultation with the functionaries of Union Parishad whose regular responsibilities include, among others, making decisions and providing support services to the vulnerable sectors of society. In the past, due to the absence of any mechanism of developing a database, the functionaries had depended on memory, their associates and influential persons of the villages for information to help them in making decision. Because of this, in most cases, they failed to provide the needed services to the targeted people, especially vulnerable people.

The same is true in their preparation of development plans, thereby resulting in the failure of the poor people's needs and aspirations to be reflected in said documents.

Developing a user-friendly system of data collection and data processing by the local people under the leadership of the local government at union level on the poverty situation therefore became the focus of the LLPMS. The LLPMS project also made use of the experience gained from the pilot phase of CBMS-Bangladesh. It proved to be helpful in the identification of the poor in specific areas and in the provision of support services as per needs of the local people especially the disadvantaged sectors. Thus, this system is supportive of the national goal of reducing poverty.

Objectives

The general objective of the LLPMS was to enhance the capacity of the local government at the Union level to collect, classify and incorporate poverty-related data in the preparation and implementation of local level plans.

The specific objectives included the following:

- Design of a regular mechanism, along with indicators, to collect and process poverty data at the local level;
- Report on the pilot-testing and implementation of the design at the village level;
- Report on the methodology of collection and application of poverty statistics in initiating local level plans and in creating an effective linkage among government agencies, NGOs and community organizations.

Methodology

Both the Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) and Household Survey were conducted in four villages, namely, Bogair, Taltoli, Paruara and Deokher under Chowdhugram upazila, Comilla to generate village level and household level data. PRA techniques like village transect, social mapping, resource mapping, wealth ranking, seasonal exercise, problem

ranking, time line analysis and focus group discussion were used for generating village level data. A format was prepared for collecting household level data. For capturing food intake, a dietary survey of 24 hours recall method was employed while another set of questionnaire was used to capture the issue of women empowerment.

The elected chairman and members of the Union Parishad were directly involved in implementing the project activities. Some educated young people of the village were also trained in collecting village level data. A village information book was prepared on the basis of the data collected for initiating the village development plan. On the last day, the villagers identified the problems in different sectors and made plans for proper implementation.

The details are explained in the succeeding section on the design of the LLPMS project.

Design of the LLPMS project

The design of the pilot test consisted of the following steps:

Social mobilization

At the outset of the project, some influential persons of the villages, the functionaries of Union Parishad and other stakeholders, were briefed on the rationale and necessity of the LLPMS as well as the expected outcome of the process. During the orientation meetings, the nature of the decisions usually taken by these players was discussed. This was followed by a general discussion and consultation on a set of indicators to be identified for poverty monitoring and analysis.

Feedback on design

Before going to the field, the design of the process was presented in a colloquium where some professionals and practitioners in this area were invited. The discussions and feedback during the colloquium helped to improve the system.

Selection of a team of investigators

A team of investigators consisting of four educated males and two females of the villages was selected for carrying out the project activities. The selection of the investigators was done by the functionaries of Union Parishad on the basis of a set of criteria fixed earlier by the project authority. The investigators were given an orientation on data collection and data processing.

Conduct of PRA

At first, some techniques of the PRA were used at the different villages. The research team, functionaries of Union Parishad, investigators and villagers devoted three days for each village to conduct the PRA. This process helped to know the poverty situation, and physical, economic and human resources of the village. Moreover, this process helped in developing relationships with the villagers and in clarifying the utility among the villagers. During the PRA, initiative was taken to ensure the participation of different classes in terms of gender, profession, and social stratification covering different areas of the village. The investigators, in consultation with the functionaries of Union Parishad, selected the persons based on the abovementioned categories. The following steps and methods (also outlined in Table 2) were followed in the three-day PRA exercise:

1. Village transect - helped the researchers to get an overview of the different villages, validate the data during social mapping and make a good relation with the villagers. During this stage, the research team, divided into two groups, walked across the village along with villagers, and noted down some information based on a certain format.

2. Social mapping - after converging in a specific place, the villagers drew a social map on the floor indicating boundaries of the village and *baris* (cluster of houses). The villagers then indicated the social, natural, physical resources through different legends using available local materials. After that, the whole exercise was transferred to a paper by the investigators. A household list was prepared during this stage where every household was given a code number.

Table 2
Methods of PRA used and its output

Day	Steps/Name of Method	Output
	Clarify the utility of the process	Rapport building
1st day	Village transect	Types of plantation, vegetation, soil type, physical infrastructure, cropping pattern, problem and solution of specific area
	Social mapping	Area and boundary of the village, identification of households, identification of the total number of people
	Resource mapping	Natural, economic, social resource of the village
2nd day	Wealth ranking	Social stratification of the villagers (poor, nonpoor) Criteria for social classification
	Time line analysis	Chronological development of agriculture, chronological change of poverty situation
3rd day	Venn Diagram	Identification of support services in health, education, and marketing channel; power structure
	Seasonal calendar	Cropping pattern, migration, employment opportunity, wage rate
	Focused group discussion	Nature of nonfarm activities (input, processing output) small an cottage industry, marketing of the principal crop
	Problem ranking and plannery session	Identification of problem in agriculture, poultry, physical infrastructure, information gender and social development; education; health; afforestration, law and order

3. Wealth ranking - information on each household were collected during this stage using a household card (Annex 1). People were asked about their perceptions on the social stratification (poor, nonpoor) of the people in their area. Said perceptions were recorded in a flip chart. Then the villagers were asked to classify people as poor, very poor, middle class and rich on the basis of the criteria they gave per their perceptions. Each household was given a number (1-rich, 2-middle class, 3-poor and 4-very poor).

After classification, the investigators tabulated the data to get the proportion of the poor population. The information was then disseminated to the villagers.

4. Time line analysis - to get a history of the poverty situation, the oldest persons of the village were interviewed. The information provided from memory by these elders were recorded by the researchers.

5. Venn diagram - a Venn diagram was used to identify the powerful persons and service delivery institutions in the village and their levels of influence. The persons and service delivery agencies in various fields were identified through brainstorming and then, different sizes of VIPP cards were used to know the influence of person/service delivery agencies.

6. Seasonal calendar - The *seasonal dimension* of poverty employment opportunity of different months and the wage rates were identified through a *seasonal calendar*. For this exercise, the name of each month was written on a flip chart, with the villagers asked to put some seeds corresponding to every month. The exercise was finalized through further discussions.

7. Focus group discussion - A group of persons involved in nonfarm activities and rural industries was interviewed through checklists for the *focused group discussion*.

8. For the *problem identification and prioritization*, each village identified its sector problems and issues, with about 15-20 villagers (different socioeconomic groups) identifying the three most important problems based on their perceptions. The total score was then calculated and ranked from highest to lowest. The summary was presented to the villagers who then proposed some remedies to the three problems.

9. Household census - trained investigators collected data from every household through questionnaires focusing on capturing quantitative data. Other questionnaires were used to get data on calorie intake and women empowerment. Box 1 shows the various information gathered from the household census.

10. Supervision - the functionaries of the Union Parishad were tasked to supervise the data collection while the members of the

Box 1
Information gathered through household census

Occupation of the household head, age structure of the total population, household size, dependency ratio, number of population along with male and female, land ownership and utilisation pattern, income and expenditure, nature of bovine animal, production of other than crop, access to safe drinking water, sanitation, literacy, enrolment dropout rate, skill training, use of fuel material, employment, under and unemployment rate, contraceptive prevalence rate, vulnerability due to disease and treatment, access to credit and source of credit, crisis coping, calorie intake, food Security in terms of production and buying capacity., women empowerment.

research team rechecked some household information randomly. In some cases, households that did not agree to provide data were managed by the help of functionaries of Union Parishad and other influential persons of the village.

11. Tabulation of data - were done by the trained investigators themselves. For research purpose, they processed the data using SPSS.

12. Validation of data - validation became a joint activity of the researchers and the villagers as the former rechecked data gathered and then presented them before the villagers for validation.

13. Data book preparation - after the validation of data, a data book incorporating data of every household was prepared. This documentation was meant to help in improving the capacity for decision- making in Union Parishad.

14. Preparation of Village Plan - by organizing a local level workshop and disseminating the findings of the research in front of the villagers, Upazila level officials and functionaries of Union Parishad, an attempt was taken to bridge expectations with service delivery. The service delivery agencies agreed to provide some services to meet the people's requirement while Union Parishad took the responsibility of coordinating the whole system.

Findings of the pilot survey

General findings

The total number of households is 545 in four villages having a population of 3,102. The average household size is 6 and the sex ratio (number of male per hundred females) is 107.

The demographic dependency ratio is 90 percent for both sexes.

Poverty situation

Under the CBN method, the incidence of poverty was recorded at 56 percent, 43 percent below the DCI method. The poverty gap index is 4 percent while the squared poverty gap index is 2 percent.

The literacy rate (7 years and above) is only 54 percent for the poor compared with 74 percent for the nonpoor. Similarly, the adult literacy rate (15 years and above) of the nonpoor is 87 percent higher than that of the poor.

In the case of enrolment, although the overall rates are high at both primary (96%) and secondary (92%) levels, the poor are still relatively deprived in view of the high dropout rate at both primary and secondary levels of the children coming from poor families. The dropout rate at the secondary level, for example, is higher by three times for poor households.

The infant mortality rate is recorded at 70 deaths per thousand live births compared with the national average of 66. Maternal mortality rate is 10 per thousand live births.

Asset ownership and living conditions

The average ownership of land per household is 1.14 acres, with the extent of inequality in the distribution quite significant. For instance, the average size of land owned by poor households is 0.28 acre (0.11 acre for the very poor households) compared with 2.01 acres owned by nonpoor households.

Nearly one-third of the land holdings of the very poor households covers homestead and ditches. The nonpoor use most of their lands (four-fifths) for paddy or vegetable cultivation. Such land use pattern reveals the helplessness of the poor people.

The inequality in land ownership, as mentioned, is very high, with the Gini coefficient measured at 0.66 in the case of owned land and 0.58 in the case of operated land.

More than one half of the very poor households do not have any cow as farm animal. The average number of cow owned varies from 1.5 to 2.6 for the very poor and nonpoor households, respectively. Goat- rearing is popular among the very poor households than the poor and nonpoor households.

Among the poor, 56 percent of the households have access to electricity compared to 92 percent for the nonpoor households.

Houses made of corrugated iron (CI) sheet are most common among both poor and nonpoor households. Nearly 13 percent of the poor households live in houses built with straw.

One tube well exists for every 1.6 households. The ratio is 1.2 for the nonpoor households compared to around 2 for the poor and more than 5 for the very poor households.

Four-fifths of the households use ring slab and water-sealed latrines. More than one-fourth of the very poor households use open latrine compared to 12 percent for the poor.

In terms of own food production for food security, more than one-third of the total households have none. Specifically, two-thirds of the very poor households do not have their own production compared to 14 percent of nonpoor households without such.

Employment and income

In terms of labor force participation rate, the very poor households have the highest participation. The highest employment rate is 7 percent for the nonpoor. This declines to less than 5 percent for the very poor households.

In the case of underemployment, the rate is highest for poor households and the lowest among nonpoor households.

Employment opportunities for agricultural laborers remain relatively high from late-November to February, with the peak recorded in April and May. The other months are lean seasons and the employment opportunity is almost nil in July and October.

The wage rate of the agricultural laborers varies from Tk. 120 to Tk. 50, with the highest rate observed during the harvesting period of *boro* rice (April, May) and in December. In December, wage laborers also have an alternative source of earnings by involving in earth digging.

Nearly 29 percent of the households have at least one member who works abroad as a wage earner. The relatively better-off households have been able to exploit this opportunity as seen in the 55 percent of the rich households who have wage earners working overseas as against only 7 percent for the very poor households.

A total of 35 children in these villages were found to be working as child labor, 83 percent of whom are boys. Sixty-nine percent of the total male child laborers come from poor families while 83 percent of the girls belong to the same group.

The average annual income of the very poor households is Tk. 27,000 (US$450). For the poor households, it is Tk. 32,000 (US$533). The average incomes of the rich and the middle class households are nearly three and two times, respectively, of the income of the very poor households.

The degree of inequality in the distribution of household income is very high, with the Gini coefficient at 0.36, indicating a high disparity in income among the households in the villages.

Vulnerability and crisis coping

Of the total households, 14 percent faced some crisis during the year. As expected, the poor households faced more crisis than the relatively well-off ones. Illness among members of the household is the most acute of the crisis, with more than half of the households spending a significant amount for treatment of the illness. The incidence of illness is also higher among poor households than the wealthier ones.

The households facing crisis adopted various measures to cope with the situation. Nearly three-fifths of the households were forced to take loans from formal/informal sources, often with adverse terms from the informal money market. Around one-fifth of the households met the crisis by selling and/or mortgaging land and other assets.

The patients from the nonpoor households generally consult private doctors and private clinics whereas the poor patients go to rural doctors and pharmacists.

A total of 254 persons reported access to credit indicating a ratio of 0.47 persons per household who had taken loans from different sources. The members of the very poor households had the highest access (50%) followed by the poor (22%), middle class (19%) and the rich (9%).

More than half of the borrowers (53%) have taken loans from various NGOs, including the Grameen Bank. The second important source is the informal money market (i.e., the moneylenders).

Gender and poverty

Net enrolment rate at the primary level indicates the existence of gender equality, which is 94 percent in both cases. At the secondary level, however, the males have a little edge over the females (2%). Boys from nonpoor families at the primary level and from both poor and nonpoor families at the secondary level lag behind the girls. In terms of dropout rate, females recorded a lower rate than males irrespective of the socioeconomic groups. The girls from the very poor households, however, recorded higher dropout rates than those from the other socioeconomic groups. The government initiatives for reducing gender-gaps in education has played a positive role in the villages.

The unemployment and underemployment rates also indicate a disadvantaged position of females. The unemployment and underemployment rates of females are 6.31 percent and 11.17 percent compared to 5.99 percent and 4.97 percent for males, respectively. The wage rates of males and females reveal significant differences, to wit, females get only one-third of the wage males get for wage labor.

The findings indicate that among housewives, 22 percent were verbally abused and 11 percent, physically assaulted by their husbands. Among the poor, the severity of violence is higher among the very poor households. Blaming for delay in doing household work, disagreement with the husband's opinion and naughtiness of the

children are the common causes of the assaults. The findings of the focused group discussions indicate that the violence against women is used as a means of creating pressure for taking money saved by the women from selling eggs and poultry as well as from fetching money (dowry) from the fathers-in-law.

Selected poverty profile

Female-headed households are more affected by poverty, with nearly 80 percent living in extreme poverty.

The household heads at the early stages of their life cycle are more affected by poverty. On the other hand, the experience of the household heads and economic support of other more mature family members help them reduce their vulnerability to poverty.

In terms of literacy, 73 percent of the poor household heads are illiterate in comparison to 40 percent of the nonpoor.

The preponderance of landlessness is highest among the very poor with 44 percent of the very poor households being landless compared to only 10 percent among the poor.

Among the very poor, more than one-third are agricultural laborers. Petty businessmen and small farmers constitute 16 percent each of the very poor households. Nearly 10 percent of the heads of very poor households are rickshaw pullers.

Finally, the incidence of poverty is higher among families having fewer male active laborers.

Learning from the design of the pilot test

Poverty measurement

In developing a simple method of poverty measurement, four alternative methods were used in the pilot test.

First, a dietary survey of 24-hours recall method was used for identifying the poor on the basis of calorie intake. Under this method, individuals taking less than 2,122 kcal per day were considered as poor while those taking less than 1,805 kcal, as "hard core poor." Under the second method, self-perception of the households in terms

of meeting food requirements was used to categorize all households into four groups—chronic deficit, occasional deficit, breakeven and surplus households. The households who identified themselves as chronic deficit and occasional deficit were considered as poor. The third method involved the categorization of the households by the villagers in terms of four groups—rich, middle class, poor and very poor. The fourth method used the CBN approach based on the minimum consumption requirement to purchase a fixed bundle of food. Nonfood basic needs were used as the cut-off point. The results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3
Alternative measures of poverty

Method	% of Total Population			
	Poor		Nonpoor	
	Poor	Very Poor	Rich	Middle Class
Direct calorie intake method	21.9	21.9	21.9	21.9
Self-perception in meeting food requirements	19.6	19.6	19.6	19.6
Villager's perception	19.6	19.6	19.6	19.6
Cost of basic needs method	56.1	56.1	56.1	56.1

Source: LLPMS Survey

The percentage of the poor shows a significant degree of consistency among the four alternative poverty measures. The highest incidence of poverty of 56 percent is recorded for the CBN method while the lowest is 19.6 percent for the self-perception and villagers' perception methods. Given the simplicity and the relative ease in identifying the poor, we have used the perception of the villagers for our analysis at the local level.

Identification of poor family by using different methods

Comparison of the different methods shows that the identification of poor families by using the CBN method and villager's perception is similar to each other. There is no variation in the case of identification

of 67 percent families (41% family as poor and 25% family as nonpoor) by using CBN and villager's perception method. Under the villager's perception method, 15 percent of families were identified as nonpoor and 19 percent families were identified as poor although they were identified reversely by CBN method. On the whole, the variability of identification of poor family is minimal.

Identification of the poor families through self-perception and DCI method has also shown minimal variation. Under the DCI method, 44 percent of families were identified as poor compared to 48 percent families by self-perception method. Sixty-one percent families were identified as same by both methods.

From the field survey, it was revealed that variability may be reduced if the exercise of wealth ranking can be done in two different gatherings. The self-perception method and villager's perception method can be practiced at the local level as complementary tools for the DCI method and CBN method because of their ease of use. But extra care should be taken in capturing the villager's perception because there is a tendency among some nonpoor to want to be included in the poor cluster so as to get external support.

Criteria for selecting the poor

The villagers listed several criteria for identifying the poor. The most important criterion identified is asset ownership. In rural areas, ownership of land is an important determinant of social stratification of the people as poor and nonpoor. The nonpoor usually have diversified sources of income while the income of the poor is uncertain and not enough to meet the household expenditure. They also identified some nonincome dimensions of poverty. As most of the poor are illiterate, they are mainly dependent on the rich for selling their labor. Some of them go abroad with the help of the rich or by taking loans or selling their productive assets. Although there has been a remarkable improvement in general housing conditions, with differences in housing conditions between the poor and nonpoor having been somewhat reduced, a lot of owners of thatched houses—which are considered

as very poor—still exists. The poor are also constrained in investing in productive activities. The perception of the villagers about who the poor are seems to conform to the concept of multi-dimensional poverty.

Dimension of poverty

Human poverty, in terms of its literacy rate, enrolment rate, dropout rate (primary and secondary level) and infant mortality and maternal mortality rate, was taken into consideration along with income-based poverty. Moreover, an attempt was taken to segregate data on the basis of social stratification (poor/nonpoor) and gender dimension. As most of the indicators are consistent with the nationally identified monitoring indicators, the data generated through this initiative will be helpful to strengthen national monitoring system.

Institutionalization of the system

The local government at the union level is considered as the focal point for the sustainability of the system. For monitoring poverty at the local level, data collection and processing were done by trained investigators under the direct supervision of the functionaries of Union Parishad.

The Union Parishad is supposed to perform six major functions, namely, 1) civic responsibility, 2) police and defense function, 3) revenue and administrative functions, 4) development functions, 5) transferred functions, and 6) judicial responsibility.

Under the civic and development responsibility, the Union Parishad has to ensure the utilization of local resources, sanitary latrine usages, recording of birth and death and information about disabled and destitute people and implementation of projects related to agriculture, education, health and physical infrastructure development. Moreover, they are to be responsible for the conduct of the census and implementation of safety net programs. However, due to lack of adequate capacity of the Union Parishad, they are hardly able to do these works effectively. The LLPMS has been able to prove that if they are acquainted with the process, and if they are motivated, the

system will help them perform their legal duties. Recently, government has introduced the *Gram Sarkar* (village government having 13 members at ward level) as a complementary organization of the Union Parishad. In performing their responsibilities, data generated through LLPMS will be very much helpful. The support services from different offices located at the Upazila office will be helpful to deliver demand-driven support to the targeted people.

Continuation of the system

Continuation of the system at the grassroots level is a very challenging task. As the functionaries of the Union Parishad are elected for five years, there is a chance of the discontinuation of the system if the new elected body is not acquainted with the process. For this reason, there should be a system of orienting the newly elected persons of Union Parishad. For capacity-building of the supporting staff of the Union Parishad, the secretary of the Union Parishad and extension workers of the nation-building departments posted at the union and village levels should be involved in the process.

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Key Comments

- A tool that is best suited for the local community given its population's limited technical capacity was suggested.
- The poverty line should be used since calorie intake and cost of basic need is utilized.
- How can the technology be transferred to the local people given that in the first survey, the researcher is the main player and local staff only acted as assistants.
- How the results can be made available and computed at the local level should be presented.
- Representation at the village level may be lost, together with the local relevance of the system, if sampling will be used in the next survey.
- How to institutionalize the system in the future given the inadequacy of resources and capacity of the local authorities should be made clear.
- For the CBMS to be sustainable, it would be helpful for it to be used as a complement to existing gaps in the institutions and processes of a decentralized structure.
- Consider pushing the activities of the group toward the empowerment in collecting information to activate local interest, awareness and analysis of the situation at the local level.
- Validation has to be done in properly-designed focused groups, and once this is established within the group, then outsiders can revalidate the question.
- It would be interesting to examine the final relation between the poor and non-performing assets or income. The finding of credit asset as being the largest among very poor is also remarkable. Likewise, land ownership also seems to distinguish the poor.

Establishing a Commune-Based Poverty Monitoring System in Cambodia

Sophal Chan

Introduction

The Community-Based Monitoring System (CBMS) successfully implemented in countries such as Vietnam and the Philippines is being proposed to be adopted in Cambodia where there is an urgent need to reduce and monitor poverty. Thirty-six percent of the population are estimated to live under the poverty line, which is about $0.50/day per capita. The Cambodia Development Resource Institute (CDRI), a knowledge-based institution, will take the lead in establishing a system with the active cooperation of both government agencies and nongovernment organizations (NGOs). The pilot project will be implemented over a period of 14 months in two districts of two provinces representing different levels of resources and capacity. All the households in half of the communes in each selected district will be surveyed under the pilot project.

To meet the long-term objective of creating a sustainable system to locally monitor poverty reduction over time, the project will put emphasis on institution- and capacity-building at the local level. Local teachers will be recruited and trained to undertake the household surveys and process data manually under the management of the commune councils and the technical supervision of the Project

Supervisory Team led by the CDRI. It is envisaged that Cambodia will eventually employ the CBMS nationwide. A successful pilot CBMS will be more persuasive in "selling" the system to the government and to other donor agencies that support decentralization in Cambodia.

Background

Cambodia, having emerged from two decades of civil war, is one of the poorest countries in Southeast Asia today. It has a rather young population of 13 million, which grows at a rate of 2.5 percent annually. Despite a relatively high average economic growth rate at 5 percent over the past 10 years, Cambodia's GDP per capita in 2001 remained low at US$247, compared with Vietnam's US$405 and Thailand's US$1,843 (IMF, 2002). Applying the food calorie-based poverty line, which is about $0.50 per day, it was estimated in 1993-1994 that 39 percent of the Cambodian population lived in poverty. In 1999, the figure stood at 36 percent, reflecting a reduction of only 3 percent over a period of 6 years (RGC, 2001). A national poverty rate has not been estimated since 1999. The upcoming national socioeconomic survey, which will be conducted from October 2003 to December 2004, will update the poverty data and produce a poverty profile.

The fundamental development challenges facing the Royal Government of Cambodia (RGC) is to alleviate poverty and, at the same time, to restore peace and maintain stability and security in the post-conflict nation. These top priorities have found their place in the agenda of all of Cambodia's development partners, from multilaterals to bilaterals and NGOs. Among other players, the Asian Development Bank (ADB) has provided technical assistance to produce a poverty-focused national development plan called SocioEeconomic Development Plan II (SEDP II) for the period 2001-2005, which will serve as ADB's basis for deciding loans to Cambodia. Similarly, the World Bank (WB) has assisted Cambodia with the elaboration of the National Poverty Reduction Strategy (NPRS)[GSCSD/PMATU, 2002].

The NPRS draws on recent documents concerned with poverty reduction, including the Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-

PRSP) and the SEDP II. However, the NPRS goes beyond both documents in seeking more practical and action-oriented approaches in poverty reduction. The nationally representative poverty data used for these papers are based on the Cambodia SocioEconomic surveys conducted in 1993/94, 1996, 1997, and 1999, and on the Participatory Poverty Assessment in 2001.

Poverty monitoring systems at the national level: Poverty Monitoring and Analysis Technical Unit (PMATU)

As part of poverty reduction efforts in 2000, the RGC established the Council for Social Development (CSD), a high-level interministerial body with the mandate to promote, coordinate, and monitor development policies and programs aimed at poverty reduction. The General Secretariat of the Council for Social Development oversees the Poverty Monitoring and Analysis Technical Unit (PMATU), established in January 2002 under the sponsorship of Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA) and United Nation's Development Programme (UNDP) (GSCSD/PMATU, 2002). The CDRI provides technical assistance to the PMATU for the development of a national poverty monitoring system.

As the research arm of the CSD, the PMATU is mandated to: (i) coordinate data collection of other national institutions such as the National Institute of Statistics (NIS) and the statistics units of line ministries; (2) coordinate other data collection activities (e.g., qualitative studies, impact assessment studies, and specific case studies) and strengthen national capacity in data collection and analysis; (3) support, and in some cases, conduct, along with academic and private researchers, data analysis requested by decisionmakers; and (4) provide overall capacity-building support in poverty-related monitoring and evaluation (GSCSD/PMATU, 2002).

The PMATU drafted poverty, vulnerability, and inequality (PVI) indicators as a tool for monitoring and evaluating the impact of pro-poor policies and programs. The PVI is a consolidated list of indicators from various papers and plans shared by government and donor agencies. A broad set of indicators is presented in Table 1.

Table 1
PVI Indicators Table

Table	Descriptions
1	Indicators Related to Economic Growth
2	Indicators of Major Macroeconomic Balances
3	Indicators of Public Expenditure
4	Indicators of Access to Financial Capital and Services
5	Household Poverty Profile Indicators
6	Indicators of Poverty Dynamics
7	Indicators of Population Vulnerability
8	Sustainable Human Development Indicators
9	Demographic Indicators
10	Indicators of Employment and Labor Force Participation Rates
11	Indicators of Social Capital
12	Indicators of Food Security and Nutrition
13	Indicators of Health Status and Access to Health Services
14A	Indicators of Education Status and Access to Educational Services
14B	Indicators of Education Status and Access to Educational Services
15	Indicators of Household Economic LIving Standards
16	Indicators of Housing and Basic Household Amenities
17	Indicators of Farming and Farm-Based Income
18	Other indicators of Human Well-Being
19	Indicators of Access to Institutional Capital
20	Indicators of Access to Communications and Information

Given the limited resources, the PMATU has initially concentrated on building capacity for poverty monitoring and analysis at the central and ministerial levels. Thus, the next national household socioeconomic survey, to be conducted between October 2003 and December 2004, will employ a diary approach for the first time to collect consumption, expenditure, and income data. This survey will generate a massive data set for analysis. The National SocioEconomic survey employs a three-stage sampling to achieve national representation. Disaggregation of data at the commune, district or provincial level, however, is not statistically possible. Thus, the survey does not provide useful data for the purpose of the commune.

At the local level: "The SEILA Program/Partnership for Local Governance"

Apart from the above-mentioned national poverty monitoring system, other agencies are focusing their efforts at the local level. The RGC and its donors have joined efforts to establish and implement a program called "Partnership for Local Governance" or PLG which aims to reduce poverty through an improved and decentralized system of local governance. The Seila Program, the predecessor of the PLG, started in five provinces in 1996 and gradually expanded to cover 24 provinces and municipalities all over Cambodia. The RGC has formally adopted the PLG program as an "aid mobilization and coordination framework for support to decentralization and deconcentration reforms." PLG supports the programming of financial and technical resources at the commune, provincial and national levels to implement and develop the government's reform agenda to achieve an overarching goal of poverty alleviation (RGC, 2003). The RGC has stated that

> "the PLG's goal is to contribute to poverty alleviation through good governance and its development objective is to institute decentralization and deconcentration systems and strategies to manage sustainable local development" (RGC, p. 1, 2003).

The PLG program, designed largely for planning purposes, employs a system that establishes the "Commune Database" (CDB), which is actually a simple "project database" (MoP, 2002). The CDB will have been implemented in all the villages in Cambodia by 2003. It is to be updated annually between December and March. The data-gathering tool, called the *Village Data Book*, consists of 51 questions for village level data and 10 questions for commune-level data (see Table 2). Such questions mainly concern the number of households by age group, children attending school, types of shelter, number of transport, farm tools and machinery, and availability of basic infrastructure and do not touch on the aspects of household income, livelihood, food security, and nutrition.

Table 2a
Data to be Collected by Rural Communes

Village Level Data (To be collected by the Village Chief)	Shortcut
1. Total number of families	FAMILY
2. Total number of females	FEM_TOT
3. Total number of males	MAL_TOT
4. Number of girls 0–5 years old (under 6)	FEM_0_5
5. Number of boys 0–5 years old (under 6)	MAL_0_5
6. Number of girls 6–14 years old	FEM_6_14
7. Number of boys 6–14 years old	MAL_6_14
8. Number of girls 6-14 who go to school	F6_14_SCH
9. Number of boys 8–14 who go to school	M6_14_SCH
10. Number of women 15–17 years old	FEM_15_17
11. Number of men 15–17 years old	MAL_15_17
12. Number of women 18–64 years old	FEM_18_64
13. Number of men 18–64 years old	MAL_18_64
14. Number of women over 65 years old	F_OVER65
15. Number of men over 65 years old	M_OVER65
16. Number of illeterate women over 15 years old	F_ILT_15
17. Number of illiterate men over 15 years old	M_ILT_15
18. Number of houses with thatched roof	THATCH_R
19. Number of houses with tiled roof	TILE_R
20. Number of houses with fibro roof	FIBRO_R
21. Number of houses with zinc roof	ZINC_R
22. Number of houses with concrete roof	CONCR_R
23. Number of household with latrines	TOILET
24. Number of families with piped water, private pump well, or private ring well that is usable year round at their house.	H2O_HOUSE
25. Number of families with a communal tap, pump well, or ring well that is usable year round within 150 m of their house.	H2O_150M
26. Most common source of water for other families: pond, river, and rain water.	H2O_OTHER
27. Number of families with cattle and bufallo in the village.	COW_FAMI
28. Number of families with pigs in the village	PIG_FAMI
29. Average farm gate price of paddy in Riel for the month of December	PAD_PRICE
30. Number of motorcycles	MOTO_NUM
31. Number of tractors, koyons or cars	CAR_NUM
32. Number of horse carts and ox carts	OX_CART
33. Number of bicycles	BICYCLE
34. Number of row boats	ROW_BOAT
35. Number of boats with motors	MOTOBOAT
36. Number of families with TV sets	FAMIL_TV
37. Number of families who employed a traditional birth attendant last year	TBA_USE
38. Number of families who employed a trained midwife last year	MWIFE_USE
39. Number of traditional birth attendants in the village	TBA_NUM
40. Number of government-trained midwives in the village	MWIFE_NUM

41. Number of families who have some irrigated rice land	NUM_IRRI
42. Number of families who make use of chemical fertilizer during the past year	NUM_FERT
43. Number of families who made use of pesticide during the past year	NUM_PEST
44. Number of murder, robbery, and theft cases in the past year 45. Number of land conflict cases in the past year	INSECURITY NUM_LANDC
46. Number of female-headed household/families, where the head is a mother with one or more children with 0–5 years old	F_HH_UD5
47. Number of families having problems with violence at home	HH_VIOLEN
48. Name of the nearest market villages frequently go to buy goods	MARK_LOC
49. Time needed to get from the village to the nearest market either by motor or motorboat	HRS_MARK
50. Distance in kilometers to the nearest year-round road (4-wheel motor vehicles)	KM_ROAD
51. Time needed to get from the village to nearest year-round wroad either by motor or motorboat	HRS_ROAD

Table 2b

Village Level Data (To be collected by the Village Chief)	Shortcut
1. Number of primary school classrooms in the commune	CROOM_P
2. Number of secondary school classrooms in the commune	CROOM_S
3. Number of primary school teachers in the commune	TEACH_P
4. Number of secondary school teachers in the commune	TEACH_S
5. Area of wet season rain-fed rice land, in hectares (Ha)	WET-RAINFED
6. Area of wet season-supplemented irrigated rice land, in Ha	WET_IRRI
7. Rice production during the wet season, in metric tons (MT)	WET_PADDY
8. Area of fully irrigated dry season rice land, in Ha	DRY_IRRI_FULL
9. Area of recession dry season rice land, in Ha	DRY_RECESS
10. Rice production during the dry season, in MT	DRY_PADDY

The village chief is in charge of collecting data and completing the data book. He is expected to seek assistance from village development workers, if there are any. The recorded data are then verified by the commune clerk, who provides the commune-level data. These data are then discussed and further verified by the commune council members in a meeting with all the village chiefs. The cross-validated data are then sent to the District Planning Officers, who in turn forward the information to the Provincial Department of Planning for computer processing. Processed data are then sent to the Ministry of Planning (MoP) for analysis and dissemination. The MoP, which has agreed to develop the CDB into the National Information System, oversees the technical aspects of the database system.

Proposal for CBMS

It is proposed that a community-based monitoring system (CBMS), which has been well developed by the Micro Impacts of Macroeconomic Adjustment Policies (MIMAP), be adopted in Cambodia. The CDRI, a development-knowledge organization and the country's leading independent research institute, would spearhead the introduction of the CBMS. The CDRI leads in providing technical support to PMATU and is well-recognized for its quality research. An initial discussion on the implementation of "commune-based poverty monitoring" in Cambodia was held with the PMATU, the PLG Program, and other potential partners such as the GTZ Food Security and Nutrition Project. All would-be partners had already affirmed their support for the plan.

It is expected that the RGC, through its PLG and the NIS of the MoP, will eventually take over the exercise and extend it to the rest of the country through the PLG/Decentralization Programme.

Rationale for a CBMS in Cambodia

Cambodia has committed itself to go through the long process of decentralization. Part of said commitment was the conduct of local polls in February 2002 to elect the commune councils tasked with local development planning and implementation. The importance of local governance is well-recognized by Cambodia's stakeholders and many of them are working at contributing to and enhancing the success of this new reform. CDRI, for instance, has established a new research program on local governance and decentralization, a five-year commitment strongly supported by the RGC and its major donors.

A CBMS will complement these decentralization efforts especially in oiling the new state apparatus. As already mentioned, Cambodia lacks a community-based poverty monitoring system, despite having a commune database collected through administrative reports under the Seila/PLG Programme initiative. Naturally, the commune councils need adequate information generated in a systematic and reliable way in order to effectively conduct needs assessment, planning, monitoring, and

evaluation of development projects. The best way to achieve this is to build a system in place and have it run in a consistent manner by the commune councils, with the technical support of the Provincial Statistics Office and other agencies.

It goes without saying that the local capacity's consequent taking charge of the CBMS will be much more cost-effective than sending enumerators from the capital city as has been commonly done for national surveys and community-based surveys. Engaging local involvement and responsibility in the survey will contribute to the local ownership and ensure local use of data. Currently, the national surveys generate data for analysis only at the national level and provide no database for the local authorities. In fact, a large part of the communes are statistically left out in the national sample surveys.

Thus, it has been proposed that a pilot CBMS project be launched in Cambodia with the support of the MIMAP. The CDRI may undertake this exercise within a two-or three-year period. It will involve the PMATU, the NIS and the PLG since it is envisaged that the government will formally adopt and eventually take over the project for gradual expansion. A Supervisory Team composed of these institutions and led by the CDRI will be formed to implement the project.

Objectives of the pilot CBMS project

The project aims to:

1. select appropriate indicators for commune-based poverty monitoring and analysis;
2. provide practical scientifically generated data to commune councils for their effective planning, monitoring and evaluation of development projects;
3. produce Commune Poverty Monitoring Reports based on the CBMS results;
4. build capacity of the selected commune councils in survey methods and data processing, analysis and use;
5. promote the link between commune and provincial/national level planning processes in utilising CBMS data;

6. cement links between the PMATU, the NIS, and commune councils to prepare for an eventual nationwide CBMS; and
7. promote a concrete process of decentralization which has the highest commitment of both government and donors.

Research activities

The proposed project will be implemented in two phases over a period of 14 months. Phase 1 of the project is for five months from August 1 to December 31, 2003 while Phase 2, within which the pilot CBMS will be implemented, will be for nine months, from January 1 to September 30, 2004.

Phase 1

Objectives

1. Design a pilot CBMS in Cambodia that can be locally managed and which responds to local needs;
2. Establish partnerships for both project implementation and future funding support; and
3. Set up an institution (Supervisory Team) for effective implementation of the pilot CBMS.

Activities

1. Review the existing monitoring systems,
2. Design an appropriate commune poverty monitoring system,
3. Establish partnerships through meetings and consultations both for implementing the system and eventual take-over, and
4. Conduct a workshop to present the design and disseminate the pilot CBMS plan to stakeholders including key line ministries and other government institutions.

Output

1. An inception report detailing the plan to implement the pilot CBMS to be circulated among partners and stakeholders and submitted to MIMAP-CBMS, and

2. An established "Supervisory Team" that is ready to implement the pilot CBMS survey.

Phase 2

Objectives

1. Implement the pilot CBMS in Cambodia,
2. Build commune-level and provincial-level capacity in conducting a CBMS,
3. Establish a concrete link between national poverty- monitoring institutions and provincial level and commune councils, and
4. Equip the communes with a CBMS that is recognized by authorities and stakeholders.

Activities

1. Develop data collection and processing tools,
2. Recruit enumerators and data processors,
3. Train enumerators and data processors,
4. Conduct the survey,
5. Process data using the manual approach, which is primarily undertaken by commune teachers and officials, under supervision of the Supervisory Team,
6. Analyze data/survey results to be primarily done by commune teachers and officials, under supervision of the Supervisory Team,
7. Validate data processing and analysis, using computer, jointly undertaken by the Supervisory Team and the provincial statistical staff,
8. Write project report to be done by commune council members and the Supervisory Team, and
9. Present the results of the pilot CBMS in two workshops–one at the local level and one at the national level–to stakeholders, including key line ministries and other government institutions.

Output

1. The pilot CBMS is successfully implemented,
2. Commune councils and provincial statistical officials will have the capacity to conduct a CBMS,
3. A report of survey results by the commune councils (Commune Poverty Monitoring Report) that can be used for planning purposes, and
4. A report of the pilot CBMS submitted to MIMAP-CBMS and other partners such as the PLG Programme and GTZ Food Security and Nutrition Project. This report will outline the manner on how to expand the CBMS in Cambodia.

Methodology for the pilot CBMS project

The CDRI will assume responsibility for undertaking the pilot CBMS and achieving the objectives set above. During the course of the work, however, the CDRI will promote partnerships with the PLG Program, PMATU, National Institute of Statistics, GTZ Food Security and Nutrition Project, Provincial Statistical Office of the selected provinces, and selected commune councils. A final selection of indicators and variables will be based on further consultation with all these partners, which is to be done in Phase 1. Capacity-building will be a priority task for the partners, especially for the commune councils concerned.

The CDRI will draw on the experiences of other countries, which have implemented the CBMS, and extensively consult with the CBMS subnetwork through publications and discussions to ensure that the proper methodology will be applied and that the project will be successfully implemented.

As in other CBMS projects, data will be gathered mainly from households. At the household level, enumerators will be required to interview the household head or the oldest adult person in the house in case the head is absent. Information from the local governments will be compiled, in addition to the Commune Database collected by the PLG Programme. Supplemental information will be gathered from other sources such as administrative reports and surveys done by other agencies

in the past, if any. Focus group discussions (FGDs) may be desirable for an in-depth understanding of certain issues for this baseline survey.

School teachers within the communes and districts will be recruited and trained to be enumerators and data processors. They have been employed to conduct the population census and general elections in Cambodia. Traditionally respected by people, they are among the most educated at the local level and perceived as politically impartial. Moreover, they possess the permanent employment status as civil servants of the government, unlike the commune council members who can come and go with political appointments and elections.

Rather than applying the usual qualitative methods such as semistructured interviews and FGDs, commune council members who have lived and worked with the locals at length will be requested to write a commentary report to provide the qualitative aspects to the survey. The report will be discussed and agreed by all the commune council members before being incorporated into the Commune Poverty Monitoring Reports and the project report.

Coverage

Based on discussions with key partners, it is proposed that two provinces in Cambodia be selected for the pilot CBMS. One province represents households of a higher socioeconomic status and the other reflects those of a lower one. This scheme will provide insights on how the CBMS will be conducted in the provinces where there have been a considerable inflow of resources and capacity-building and consequently, on how to experiment with a province where capacity and resources are more limited. In each province, one district that shares the above-mentioned criteria will be selected. A sample of 50 percent of the communes in the district will be randomly selected. For each commune, a census of all the households will be conducted. The actual provinces, districts, and exact number of communes and households will be identified in the report of Phase 1.

In Cambodia, the commune is the lowest administrative unit. It consists of a few villages and has an average population of about

1,000 households, with sizeable variation. A commune is managed by a "commune council" whose members were elected for the first time in Cambodian history in February 2002. Commune council members, which number from 5 to 11 depending on the population of the commune, represent political parties and have a mandate of five years per term. The commune councils formulate a three-year development plan and manage development in the communes. Normally, 5 to 10 communes form a district. Thus, in a district, around 5,000 households are expected to be surveyed, or a total of about 10,000 households for the proposed pilot CBMS.

Composition of indicators

A set of core indicators for the pilot project is outlined in Table 3. These indicators have been drawn from consultations with partners and their working documents. A number of variables may duplicate those already contained in the PLG Program's Village Data Book, which is to be filled out by the village chief. Since the proposed CBMS will employ a census approach, and given the critical importance of these variables, they will remain in the core set in this pilot survey. Comparison and verification of each set of data can be drawn from the two approaches to better ensure the quality. This core set of indicators may still be fine tuned in Phase 1 of the project.

It is expected that a few supplementary questions may be added to meet the specific needs of each locale after further consultations with all key stakeholders and partners, especially with the local governments. This possibility will be addressed in Phase 1 of the project.

Technology to be adopted

In most of Cambodia's rural communes, there are neither electricity nor computers. Thus, it is proposed that manual processing of data be used for the CBMS survey. This limitation has implications both for the questionnaire and the questions. The teachers and commune council members will have to be trained to process the survey results manually. The data will also need to be computerized at the Provincial Statistics

Table 3
A Set of Core Indicators and Variables

Area of Concern	Indicators	Variables
1. Composition and Characteristics	• Demographic and Social characteristics	– Area size of household – Landlessness (homestead and agricultural land)
2. Basic Education and Literacy	• Educational facilities • Educational attainment and literacy or household members	– Number of schools and classrooms available to villagers – Educational materials and teachers – Elementary enrolment (6–12 yrs) – Lower secondary enrolment (13-15) – Upper secondary enrolment (16-18) – Household literacy (ability to read and write)
3. Income and Livelihood	• Total income • Expenditure • Wages and sources of income • Employment • Underemployment • Vulnerability to natural shocks	– Household income by different sources – Average per capita expenditure on food – Wages earned by household members in different categories of employment – Number of days worked per month and number of months worked per year – Prevalence of natural shocks – Monetary losses caused by natural shocks
4. Nutrition	• Nutritional status of children 0-6 years old	– Percentage of children (0-6 yrs) by height and weight
5. Housing and Shelter	• Characteristics of housing unit of households	– Percentage of households living in different types of houses (by construction materials used for roofs and walls)
6. Water and Sanitation	• Households with sanitary toilet facilities • Household with access to safe water	– Percentage of households having different types of toilet facilities and those without toilets – Percentage of households having access to different sources of water (boreholes, ponds, etc.) in both wet season and dry season
7. Health	• Health indicators and access to health facilities	– Common diseases within community – Infant, child and maternal mortality – Presence of health workers, hospitals, and health posts, etc. – Distance to such facilities
8. Social and Community	• Social and community status as perceived by household members	– Percentage of households having different types of lighting – Number of different transport modes
9. Peace and Order	• Crime incidence • Conflicts or armed encounters among community members	– Number of crime victims by type of crime (rape, murder, robbery, abuse, and physical injury) – Number of conflicts or armed encounters – Manner of conflicts settlement

Office under supervision of the Supervisory Team to validate the results found at the commune level. The SPSS programme will be used to analyze the data.

Data processing

A number of teachers, especially those teaching mathematics, will be recruited and trained to process the survey results manually using electronic calculators. Commune council members will be involved as administrators of the recruited teachers. The whole data processing stage will come under the close supervision of the Provincial Statistics Office which reports directly to the Supervisory Team.

Validation of data

The survey team leader to be recruited at the commune level will review all the completed questionnaires. The survey team leader affixes his/her signature on every questionnaire that he/she has checked. When there are mistakes in the responses, the survey team leader will send the responsible enumerators to reinterview households. The official from the Provincial Statistics Office as well as the Supervisory Team will both do spot checks to ensure the quality of data. To verify the results after manual processing, all the completed questionnaires will be computerized and analyzed at the provincial level under direct supervision of the Supervisory Team.

Dissemination

National level

The pilot CBMS results will initially be disseminated through a national workshop to all partners of the project and relevant governmental and non-governmental organizations. Efforts will be made to "sell" the project to prospective donor agencies and the government so that they will continue to expand the CBMS. Ideally, the joint government–donor PLG Program will eventually take ownership of the CBMS and incorporate it into its nationwide program.

Both GOs and NGOs will be invited to use the CBMS data for the diagnostic study of the poverty situation in the selected communes. The information will help design policy interventions and target vulnerable groups, which include the poorest of the poor in the district.

Local level

While ownership of the survey by commune councils is an expected outcome of the project, the pilot CBMS results will be disseminated beyond the selected communes. It is expected that the provincial authorities will further disseminate the pilot CBMS to other communes for consideration and potential adoption through their regular working meetings.

Results from the CBMS will produce Commune Poverty Monitoring Reports, which will be a main tool for commune council members to better monitor and evaluate the impact of development policies and programs undertaken in their locales, and to inform decisions regarding allocation of resources. A combination of Community Poverty Monitoring Reports will feed into the national poverty monitoring system.

Institutions and personnel

The CDRI was established in July 1990 as an independent Cambodian institute working to support capacity development within selected government and civil society institutions. In all its activities, the CDRI acts from a basic respect for local capacity, emphasizing the importance of building on existing experience, working in partnership with local institutions in planning and implementing activities to ensure that they respond to real needs.

The CDRI will be the responsible entity vis-à-vis the proposed pilot CBMS project. The Executive Director of the CDRI will be accountable to the MIMAP for financial and management issues. The CDRI Research Director directs and guides researchers and provides project oversight in order to ensure quality and integrity. CDRI provides an experienced researcher to lead the pilot CBMS project.

In order to promote local ownership and expansion of CBMS in Cambodia, the pilot CBMS will involve the NIS, PMATU, PLG Programme, selected commune councils, and other prospective donor agencies. The NIS will act as a counterpart for the pilot CBMS project. A senior official from NIS shall receive salary supplementation from the CBMS project in order to be able to fully commit and participate in leading the project.[1]

A "Supervisory Team" will then be established composed of the following:

1. CDRI researcher as Project Team Leader (funded by MIMAP–CBMS);
2. NIS/MoP official as Team Member (partly funded by MIMAP–CBMS and to be identified in Phase 1);
3. PMATU researcher as Team Member (to be identified also in Phase 1); and
4. PLG official as Team Member (likewise to be identified in Phase 1).

The commune councils will be empowered to manage both the survey team and the data processors to be recruited at the commune level. The commune council members shall receive modest honorarium from the project. To the extent possible, the Supervisory Team at the central level shall act purely as technical assistants but are responsible for project quality. The Provincial Statistics Office will also be actively involved and shall receive incentives from the project accordingly. The counterpart Provincial Statistics official is closer to the communes and shall, therefore, liaise between the commune councils and the Supervisory Team.

The survey enumerators and data processors will work closely with the commune councils and the provincial statistics official, all under technical supervision of the Supervisory Team. These individuals shall receive their compensation from the Supervisory Team.

[1] It has become a common practice to supplement the salary of the government employees to win their realistic commitment to the project. This is because their government salary is too low, around $20 a month, while much more is needed for basic survival.

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Key Comments

- There has to be motivation for the villagers to attend meetings and conduct the survey since they normally expect some incentives for participating in these activities.
- Maybe the focus should not just be on information gathering but more about having a better understanding of what use the information is and the value of the information specifically by itself.
- Three months is not enough to do all the system's process, particularly data cleaning and processing. Thus, there is a need to bring in local people and put up a whole team.
- Capacity development of the local government is critically important, especially in institutionalizing the system.
- Quality of data is very critical and manual processing should not necessarily compromise the quality of data. Thus, the technical capacity of the enumerators should be built up.
- The quality of database coming out of the CBMS exercise should be the number one priority because of the low quality of data that currently exists.
- Local capacity-building is very important because that is one of the major objectives of this activity.
- Link the system to the political campaigns at the local level. They connect the information to commune-elected representatives and use the politics of the situation as a lever fortune.

CBMS in Pakistan: Proposal for a Pilot Project

Rashid Memon

Introduction

The rise in poverty in the country during the 1990s has led to various public and private initiatives to improve governance that may help address the malaise. Although said initiatives are in the right direction, they are nonetheless still wanting with regard to community participation and institutional frameworks. This proposal therefore presents a community-based poverty monitoring system (CBMS) that aims to fill these gaps. Using local institutions, monitors and data processing capabilities, the project aspires to provide census information on a set of development indicators for 2 union councils in 2 districts. The data will not only provide a base for budget allocation but also essentially help improve the governance of the districts.

Background

Whereas poverty in Pakistan had been declining up to the late 1980s, it has increased sharply during the 1990s. The government has therefore formulated a poverty reduction strategy whose main elements include the revival of growth, provision of social services and public works programs. An underlying belief though is that without community participation, neither can the poor be helped through credit nor can social services be provided or public works program implemented. It

is also understood that the proper monitoring and evaluation of any program is very important for ensuring proper implementation.

Poverty indicators have regularly been monitored in Pakistan through regular Household Integrated Expenditure Surveys (HIES)[1]. However, the surveys do not contain adequate information on lower administrative units such as the district, tehsil and union council. With the advent of decentralization, which necessitates the participation of representatives at all levels in designing and approving local development plans, the need for data at these levels has become absolutely essential. The community-based monitoring system (CBMS) could thus be a useful source of data at the lower administrative levels and would provide the concerned authorities with a suitable empirical base for conducting budget allocation exercises.

The devolution plan and the CBMS[2]

On August 14, 2002, the government of Pakistan promulgated the Local Government Ordinance. Apart from the fact that administrative power was devolved to lower administrative levels and budget allocations were made the responsibility of the union council, tehsil and district administration, the ordinance calls for the creation of monitoring committees (MCs) at all administrative levels. The members of these committees are chosen by the members of the local council of elected representatives.

The key role of MCs would be to identify problems at the offices/facilities of the local government and bring these to the notice of the respective Council representative and the concerned administration. The focus of monitoring shall be on service delivery. Monitoring mechanisms would involve seeking the opinion of the public regarding

[1] The HIES is essentially a budget survey concentrating on income and consumption. Then, in 1995-96, the Pakistan Integrated Household Survey was initiated in order to monitor the impact of the Social Action Program. So far, four rounds of the PIHS have been carried out. It is likely to be continued to monitor poverty trends for the I-PRSP.

[2] The following information is an interpretation of the Monitoring and Evaluation Guidelines posted on the National Reconstruction Bureau's website.

service delivery, and field visits. Reports based on their work will be prepared by MCs every three months.

To the extent that periodical collection of information by elected people has been made into law, this is good news. Nevertheless, it is not clear what sort of data will be gathered by the MCs. The law "requires the members of the MC to proactively seek opinion of the public [..]",[3] a statement that is very ambiguous and gives a lot of leeway for manipulation. A well-defined system of quantitative and qualitative data collection could certainly give the system more definition in terms of indicators and frequency of data collection, and provide scope for proper validation by the community. In this context, the CBMS can provide planners with an unbiased and focused system of monitoring core indicators. As such,a pilot CBMs project is hereby being proposed.

Proposed plan for the CBMS pilot project

Objectives

As mentioned earlier, the representatives of all administrative levels are required to help design and later approve development plans for their constituencies. The only formal data available, however, are not even representative at the provincial level. It is difficult to see how, say a union council representative, can design, monitor and evaluate an input strategy at the union council level with this set of data. The CBMS, which will gather census information on some 20 core indicators may thus provide policymakers with regular information on the inputs and the impact of these inputs on marginalized communities.

The specific objectives of the pilot CBMS survey are:

1) To empower communities. The CBMS will be used as a tool for improving governance and creating an atmosphere of accountability. The CBMS system will aim to create a database on core indicators that can be maintained and used by communities to monitor the progress of their elected representatives.

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[3] Monitoring and Evaluation guidelines, National Reconstruction Bureau, Government of Pakistan. p. 16.

2) To improve allocative efficiency. The CBMS will prioritize areas of intervention (and budget allocation) such as health and education, and pinpoint issues of concern within these areas such as an emerging trend of tuberculosis, among others.
3) To monitor progress on 20 core indicators.
4) To assist rural support programs (RSPs) and other government interventions to target the most deserving people within a given community.
5) To enable researchers to evaluate the impact of RSPs and other interventions.

Methodology and coverage

The CBMS aims to be a ***census*** of two union councils, both from the province of Punjab. This province is closest to Islamabad and was chosen to minimize transport and management costs. Within the province, a two-step procedure was used to select the districts. The first step involved the listings of well-off and deprived districts.[4] Among these, the ones with the most conducive district administration were identified. As such, Multan and Bahawalpur were selected. One union council will subsequently be selected from each district during the implementation phase of the project, again keeping well-being and conduciveness as the main criteria.[5] In this way, the involvement of the local administration is assured from the very start of the project.

Indicators

There are three sources of indicators available for use in the pilot survey, namely, the I-PRSP prepared by the government of Pakistan, the MBN indicators provided by MIMAP, and the different poverty

[4] The criterion for deprivation has been provided by a deprivation index calculated by the Social Policy and Development Centre (SPDC, 2001). The deprivation index is a multi-dimensional index reflecting deprivation in education, housing quality, housing services and employment. SPDC has applied principal component analysis on census data to calculate this indicator.

[5] The CBMS team may however select other districts if it finds the district administration more helpful

studies carried out in the country. A combination of indicators ir proposed for the project, the list of which is shown in Table 1. Further changes will be made after a pilot testing of the questionnaire preceding the survey. A fair number of indicators is proposed, for the purpose of a baseline study and also for fear of losing out important indicators. After the pilot project, however, the team will be in a better position to identify a smaller core set of indicators which the community can follow up in subsequent rounds.

Monitors

There are three potential monitors (data collectors, both primary and secondary, if available) at all levels:

a) Member(s) of the Monitoring Committees,
b) Local lady health worker and or teacher, and
c) Youth volunteers.

For the purpose of the pilot survey, the Pakistan Institute of Development Economic (PIDE) will provide its own staff to supervise the data collection and will recruit members of the community as enumerators. Through this process, the PIDE-MIMAP team will be able to gauge the capacity of the local monitors and to also design a comprehensive capacity-building program that it could deliver to the monitors should the government decide to buy in the project. It merits mention that the government has anticipated the need for capacity enhancement, at least at the district level and has earmarked a substantial amount of resources for the purpose.

Frequency of data collection

In order to facilitate policy planning and evaluation, it is proposed that data collection be carried out annually, in line with the number of budgeting or re-budgeting exercises, and at least three months before the budgeting exercise is carried out. This will provide sufficient time to process the data for presentation during the exercise. Exceptions may be made in case primary data on some indicators requires to be

Table 1
Indicators to be Focused in the Survey

Indicator	Definition
Education	
Elementary enrollment rate	Number of children (6-12) attending the elementary level
Secondary Enrollment	Number of family members (13-16) attending the secondary level
Basic Literacy	Number of family members 10 years and above, able to read and write a simple message
Drop out rate	The cohort here is the children aged 5-19 that have ever attended primary school. Taking this cohort to be 100%, the figure shows the % of this cohort who dropped out of school before completing primary school.
Number of functional public schools	
Health	
Infant mortality rate	Number of live births: Number of infant deaths (1 yr. old)
Child Mortality Rate	Number of living children; Number of deaths of children (1-6 yrs old)
% of births attended by trained personnel Immunization Coverage of children	
Coverage of pre-natal care	
Contraceptive prevalence rate	
Nutrition	
Prevalence of acute and chronic malnutrition in children	Anthropomorphic measures of children aged 0-6
Prevalence of acute and chronic malnutrition in children	Anthropomorphic measures of women of child bearing age
Sanitation	
	% of population with access to toilets
	% of population with access to tap water
Security	
Proportion of households in makeshift housing	Number of households by type of construction materials used
Crime Incidence	Number of victims of crimes by type of crime
Incidence of armed encounters	Number of victims of armed encounters
Income and Livelihood	
Proportion of households with income greater than the poverty threshold	Household Income[6]
Employment	Number of household members (15 yrs. old and above) working (at least an hour during the reference period) or with a job or business.
Underemployment	Number of employed persons wanting more hours of work
Political Participation	
Proportion of households involved in at least one community organization	Number of households with members who are involved in at least one community organization
Proportion of households who participated in formal electoral processes	Number of households with eligible/registered/actual voters

[6] It has been validly suggested that focus should be on expenditure items that may be particularly sensitive to poverty status. Such items, however, can only be identified after a pilot testing of the questionnaire. So for the time being, income indicator would be kept in this list until it is replaced with a valid proxy.

monitored more frequently and are fairly easy to collect. In such cases, the collection process may be made quarterly, or as required.

Processing of data

Data processing is envisaged to be manual at the union council level and computerized at the district level. However, this is not a hard and fast rule. If there exists some community capacity and initiative, the research team does not object to having computerized processing at the union council level. However, as of now, the team thinks that at the union council level, tally sheets containing basic information on the core indicators will have to be maintained. The PIDE team will provide the required training to the enumerators for this purpose. This will allow the enumerators to be the first processors of data and also allow the results to be disseminated to the union council in the shortest possible time. Tally sheets will be forwarded to the tehsil headquarters and the raw data to the district level where it is proposed to have the data computerized. Some capacity does exist in this regard and the PIDE team can build upon it further if required. The Federal Bureau of Statistics also maintains offices in most district headquarters, and their cooperation will also be sought for data processing at the district level. However, if there are any problems regarding this issue, it is suggested that only tally sheets be computerized instead of the whole data set. During the pilot phase, the possibility exists that PIDE can itself computerize the data while at the same time creating the capacity to do so at the district level.

Data validation

Having processed the data into tally sheets, the results will be presented to the local community for discussion either during group discussions or community conferences. This will not only serve as a venue for providing information to non-educated members of the community, who may be unable to comprehend tally sheets, but will also lend community approval to the data and findings.

Dissemination and flow of information

Once the data are validated at the community level in both union councils, it will be shared with the district administration for computerized processing and analysis. The analysis will then be provided to planning bodies across the country so that district authorities are made aware of the potential of the tool at hand. Major NGOs in the area are also to be provided such analysis.

The dissemination process will consist of three workshops. The initial, pre-project workshop will be held at one of the union councils selected for data collection. The aims and objectives of the CBMS will be presented in this workshop to local stakeholders, including district administration, statistical agencies, NGO professionals and academics. After the project is completed, the same stakeholders will be invited to another local level workshop where results of the pilot will be shared with them. A third workshop will be held in Islamabad where results will be shared with federal government representatives and other national level stakeholders. If possible, district level data will also be placed in the PIDE website.

Timetable

The timetable of the proposed CBMS-Pakistan pilot project is shown in Table 2.

Institutional arrangements

The team that will implement the CBMS consists of the following:

Research Team

1) Dr. A.R. Kemal
2) Dr. G.M. Arif, Senior Research Demographer
3) Rashid Memon, Research Economist

Data Entry Team

4) Nabila Arshad, System Analyst, PIDE, who will provide the data entry program and supervise data entry process.

5) The data entry operators have yet to be decided and will probably be chosen from among the members of the community.

Field Supervisors

6) Khalid Hameed Sheikh, Research Demographer
7) S. Abdul Majid Shah, Research Economist
8) Enumerators will be chosen from the community.

In the process of field preparation, the team leaders will also meet with officials of the National Reconstruction Bureau, the Federal Bureau of Statistics, and local government officials at the District, Tehsil and Union Council Level.

Table 2
CBMS Pakistan'S Time Table of Activities

Activities	October	November	December	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August
I) Field Preparation											
a. Liason with government institutions	■	■									
b. District and Union Council Selection	■	■									
c. Liason with District and Union Council administration, workshop to present proposed CBMS and selection of monitors and data processors		■	■								
d. Questionnaire Design		■	■								
e. Training of Enumerators and Supervisors			■								
f. Pilot testing of questionnaire			■								
g. Household Listing				■							
II) Field Work											
a. Data Enumeration				■	■	■	■				
b. Data processing at Union council level				■	■	■	■	■			
c. Data Validation				■	■	■	■	■			
d. Dissemination of tally sheets					■	■	■	■			
III) Data processing at District Level									■		
IV) Analysis of Data, Preparation of Poverty Profile and draft final report									■	■	
V) Dissemination of Preliminary Results at Local and National level Workshops										■	
VI) Preparation of Final Report											■

Ia: Liason with government institutions includes presentation to the stake holders at the national level.
Ic: Liason with District and Union Council includes presenations to the stakeholders at the national level.
V: This includes two workshops, one at the level and the other at the national level to present the data analysis.

Annex 1
Definition – Annually Collected Outcome and Output Indicators in the I=PRSP

Indicator	PIHS	Others
Gross primary enrollment rate	The number of children aged 5-9 attending primary school as a percentage of those aged 5-9 (Karachi excluded)	The number of children regardless of age, as a percentage of the population of the official primary school age group. Source: NEMIS
Gross middle enrollment rate	The number of children attending middle school as a percentage of the number of children aged 10-12	The number of students admitted in grades 6-8, as a percent of the population of 10-12 year olds. Source: Pakistan Education Policy
Literacy rate	Percentage of population aged 10 years and older that is able to read a newspaper, write a simple letter and perform a simple sum.	
Drop out rate	The cohort here is the children aged 5-19 that have ever attended primary school. Taking this cohort to be 100%, the figure shows the % of this cohort who dropped out of school before completing primary school.	
Number of function public schools		The number of primary plus mosque schools Source: NEMIS
Infant mortality rate	Proportion of children who die before they reach their first birthday	The probability of dying before the first birthday Source: Pakistan Reproductive Health and Family Planning Survey
Child mortality rate		The probability of dying between the first and fifth birthday, having survived the first birthday. Source: Pakistan Reproductive Health and Family Planning Survey
% of births attended by trained personnel	Percentage of women that were assisted by a doctor, nurse or LHV during delivery	Percentage of women whose last delivery took place in a government or private health facility Source: Pakistan Reproductive Health and Family Planning Survey
Immunization Coverage of children	Percentage of children between the age of 12-23 months, fully immunized against 8 diseases. (based on recall and record)	
Coverage of pre-natal care	Percentage of pregnant women visiting health facilities for pre-natal consultation	
Contraceptive prevalence rate	Percentage of married currently using family planning methods	
% of population with access to safe water		Source: Planning Commission
% of population with access to sanitation		Source: Planning Commission
Food support program		Number of beneficiaries Source: Bait-ul-Mal
Head count ratio	Using calorific approach based on 2550 calories.	

Key Comments

- Consider integrating both supply side and the other indicators so that it can be presented as an alternative to the data collection instrument that will be used.
- Ownership of certain consumer durables would be good proxies for income.
- The cost of implementation is high.
- Include the unit cost that the community would have to shoulder if it takes the task on by itself.
- For the system to be sustainable, it has to be very cost-effective.
- The quality and quantity of information that would be generated by CBMS would definitely outweigh the cost that the CBMS would entail.
- Be very careful about the cost of implementing the CBMS when it is actually transferred to the local government.
- One of the project outputs should be to provide costing when the project is to be marketed to other donors.
- The initial stage will be more expensive because of the setting up of the infrastructure but once it is done, then the unit cost is going to be very low.
- Ultimately what matters is how much it would cost to have local enumerators get the households questionnaire done. That would be one of the major components in the costing and may be very, very minimal.

Implementation of a Community-Based Poverty Monitoring System in Ghana

Felix Asante

Background

Since 1983, Ghana has been implementing a number of economic recovery programs to stabilize the macro economy, promote growth, and subsequently reduce poverty. The last of these poverty alleviation efforts implemented by the government was the Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility (PRGF). For this, Ghana opted for the enhanced Highly Indebted Poor Country (HIPC) initiative of the Bretton Woods Institutions (BWIs) in February 2001. As a result, a Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) was prepared after consultations at the community level and is currently being implemented.

The consultation process brought to fore problems as perceived and needed by the poor, especially at the community level, which hitherto were not considered in development programs. One of the criteria that will be used to judge the successful implementation of the PRSP by the donors is the monitoring and evaluation of poverty alleviation programs and policies.

Ghana may have benefited from a number of monitoring programs but all have adopted the top-down approach instead of the bottom-up approach, albeit the fact that the country has adopted a decentralized local government system.

Local government and decentralization system

The local government system in Ghana began in 1988. It is a three-tier local structure in line with the decentralization policy.

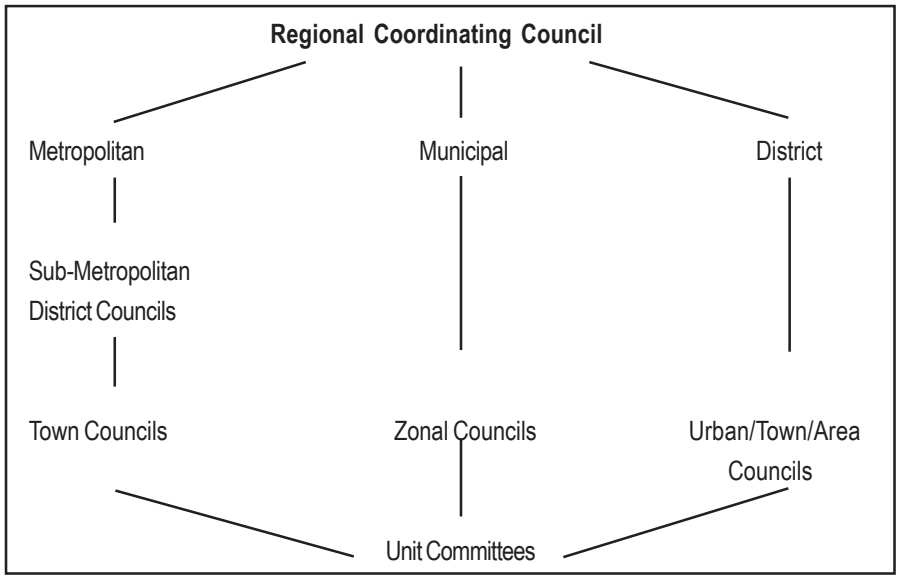
The first level constitutes 10 administrative regions and is coordinated by the Regional Council. For the second level, the regions are subdivided into local government assemblies—district, municipal, and metropolitan. Classification is done according to the size of the population in the area as well as other demographic and ethnic characteristics. The geographic areas of a municipality, for instance, consist of a single compact settlement. The area's geography, size, population, and ability to provide the basic infrastructure and other development needs from internally generated monetary resources qualify the area as a metropolis. A minimum of 75,000 persons is needed to come up with a district.

At the lowest level of the tier are 16,000 unit committees. The unit committees are at the base of the local government system and represent the basic unit of planning and political administration. A structural unit is normally a settlement or a group of settlements, with a population that ranges from 500 to 1,000 in rural areas and about 1,500 in urban areas. Figure 1 shows this three-tier local government sytem.

Because the local government system in Ghana is meant for the people to participate in the decision-making process for their own development, the assemblies therefore identify problems and development issues within their communities and develop mechanisms to solve them.

Unfortunately, there are currently no regular and timely data available on poverty at the district and unit committee levels. Lack of data makes it difficult for the district assemblies to (a) identify the needs of the local people and (b) address them sufficiently. A community-based monitoring system could thus offer the district assemblies the opportunities to assess policies being implemented at the local levels, identify problems and basic needs at the village/community levels, and determine solutions that can best address them.

Figure 1
Structure of the Local Government System in Ghana



Evaluation of existing poverty monitoring systems

Over the years, four rounds of the Ghana Living Standard Surveys (GLSS) have been relied on to (a) assess the poverty situation in Ghana, (b) provide information on poverty trends in the country, and (c) provide opportunities for policymakers to trace trends in a household's well-being over a period of time.

Even though the GLSS serves its purpose of providing poverty indicators, it is, however, burdened with the following problems:

1. The GLSS misses out on some important poverty indicators.
2. The GLSS uses poorly designed questions that make them incomparable over time.
3. Implementation of the GLSS involves high costs that make its frequency irregular.
4. The GLSS's global nature prompts it to gloss over poverty at the community and individual levels, making it difficult for the average Ghanaian to identify with some of the results.

There have been attempts to remedy some of the inadequacies of the LSSs. For example, the Core Welfare Indicators Questionnaires (CWIQs)—which are designed to furnish policymakers with a set of simple indicators for monitoring poverty and its impact on a country's living standards—help to fill in the gaps as far as some social indicators of poverty are concerned. Still, these instruments neither cover an analysis of poverty at the community level nor the problem of regularity in data collection which still persists. And although there have been participatory surveys that have involved collection of data at the community level, these have been very isolated and inconsistent.

Objectives

Ghana has had about 14 years of decentralization and the local government system is currently entrenched in national governance. One of the main objectives of the local government system is to ensure that people are directly involved in the decisionmaking process and responsible for their own development. The District Assemblies have been tasked to identify problems and development issues within their communities and to develop mechanisms to address them.

As is evidenced by the LSSs currently available, very little data on community poverty exist at the district level. The only available data on the districts are those collected by the sectoral departments for their Central Offices and not for the District Planning Offices. This major constraint in the development process makes it difficult for targeted interventions at alleviating poverty in the communities. In addition, such policy interventions use a "top-down approach" that involves very little analysis of the priorities and perceptions of the people in the communities.

Against this background, the proposed Community-Based Monitoring System (CBMS) for poverty will regularly inform policymakers on a timely basis of the effects of their policies on the people's standard of living at the community level. This will, hopefully, complement the efforts of the decentralized system and achieve the main objective of having the local people directly involved in the policies that best address their needs.

The proposed objectives of the CBMS for Ghana are:

1. To offer communities with simple and easy-to-collect poverty indicators to determine the prevailing standards of living;
2. To offer district planning offices with an up-to-date set of core welfare indicators to assess poverty status at the communities;
3. To provide policymakers with data both for the prioritization of projects and for the effective planning and monitoring of development programs in the various communities;
4. To improve the data collection, processing and analytical capacities at the local levels, especially at the district and unit committee levels;
5. To strengthen both the flow of information and the dissemination of poverty data from the national level down to the committee level; and
6. To test a locally feasible data-processing system without necessarily relying on central government resources.

Research activities

Welfare indicators

Poverty in Ghana is multi-dimensional and characterized by low income, malnutrition, poor health, illiteracy, insecurity, and isolation. Most of these indicators tie in with the Minimum Basic Needs Approach which captures the multi-dimensional characteristics of poverty. Its main areas of concern are health, nutrition, water and sanitation, income and livelihood, basic education and literacy, shelter, peace and order, and political participation.

At present, the poverty indicators available in Ghana do not include the "political participation" and "peace and order" indicators. The inclusion of these indicators in Ghana's CBMS will therefore provide additional information for poverty monitoring purposes. Table 1 lists down the variables and indicators in Ghana's proposed CBMS.

Table 1
Proposed CBMS Indicators and Variables

Area of Concern	Indicators	Variables
1. Composition and Characteristics	Demographic and social characteristics	Population, area size, size of available farmlands, and average household sizes
2. Political Participation	Participation of household members in community organizations and electoral processes	Number of households with members involved in at least one community organization and number of households with eligible, registered, or actual voting members
3. Basic Education and Literacy	Educational facilities, educational attainment, and literacy of household members	Availability and accessibility of schools, educational materials, and teachers; elementary enrolment (6-12 yrs); secondary enrolment (13-16 yrs); educational level of household head; and household literacy (ability to read and write)
4. Income and Livelihood	Sources of income-wages or salaries from employed household members, income from livelihood activities and other sources, and income household members abroad	Average household income, income and economic activities of household members, and number of household members with job or business
5. Nutrition	Nutritional status of children 0–5 years old	Number of children (0–5 yrs) by height, weight, sex, and age
6. Housing and Shelter	Characteristics of housing unit of the household and Household amenities	Households living in own or rented houses, number of people living in room, number of households, type of construction materials used for roofs and walls of dwelling
7. Water and Sanitation	Households with sanitary toilet facilities and households with access to safe water	Type of toilet facilities used, and source of water supply within the community
8. Health	Health indicators and access to health facilities	Common diseases within community, child and maternal mortality, presence and distance of health workers, hospitals, health posts etc.
9. Social and Community	Social and community status as perceived by household members	Availability of electricity; telephone, and postal facilities; access to banks and/or credit facilities, and type of transportation facilities
10. Peace and Order	Crime incidence and conflicts or armed encounters within community member	Presence of police post, number of crime victims by type of crime (i.e., rape, murder, robbery, abuse, physical injury) and number of conflicts or armed encounters

Data collection

The CBMS will be pilot-tested in Dodowa, a community in the Damgbe West district. To create a sense of ownership and final take-over of the system by the local authorities, the enumerators to be used for the data collection will be selected from the communities. The District Planning Office and the District Statistical Office will supervise data collection at the local level while the MIMAP team will provide the training and overall supervision of the system during the pilot-testing phase.

The basic sampling unit for the pilot test will be the household. Data collection will be undertaken through a census of all households at Dodowa.

The pilot area—Dodowa

Dodowa is in the Damgbe West district of the Greater Accra Region. It has about 1,800 households. There is one Town Council (sub-district structure) in Dodowa with three electoral areas made up of 10 unit committees. An average of three unit committees form an electoral area. Each committee has, on the average, about 10 members.

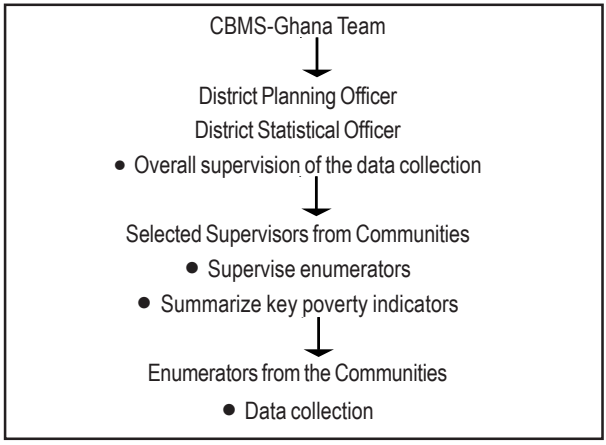
Supervisors and enumerators

The data collection will involve 10 supervisors, one from each unit committee. The activities of their supervisors will be coordinated by one person nominated by the Town Council. Each unit committee will then recommend four members as enumerators. These nominees will be screened by the CBMS Team before the training starts. Thus, about 40 enumerators will be employed for the survey.

Training

The first phase of the pilot testing of the CBMS in Ghana will involve the training of potential enumerators and supervisors on data collection techniques. Two separate training modules will be designed for questionnaire administration. Figure 2 illustrates the scheme for the training and data collection of the CBMs pilot survey.

Figure 2
Schematic Diagram of Training and Data Collection



The capacity to process and analyze data either manually or electronically at the community level is very low. As such, a detailed training program will be developed to improve the capacity to process poverty monitoring data. Prospective community information recorders and data processors will be identified by the District Planning Officer and trained for future poverty surveys.

Data processing and validation techniques

The data processing and analysis will be conducted at the community by the supervisors, namely: the District Planning Officer, the District Statistical Officer, and selected supervisors within the communities. A manual data processing system (tally sheet) will ensure that the key indicators given in Table 1 are extracted by the supervisors.

Validation of the data will be conducted at a meeting attended by the Regional Minister, the District Chief Executive, representatives from the Area Councils, assembly members, District Planning Officers, supervisors, opinion leaders in the community, and the enumerators. At the meeting, the results of the survey will be discussed and explanations sought for particular trends in the

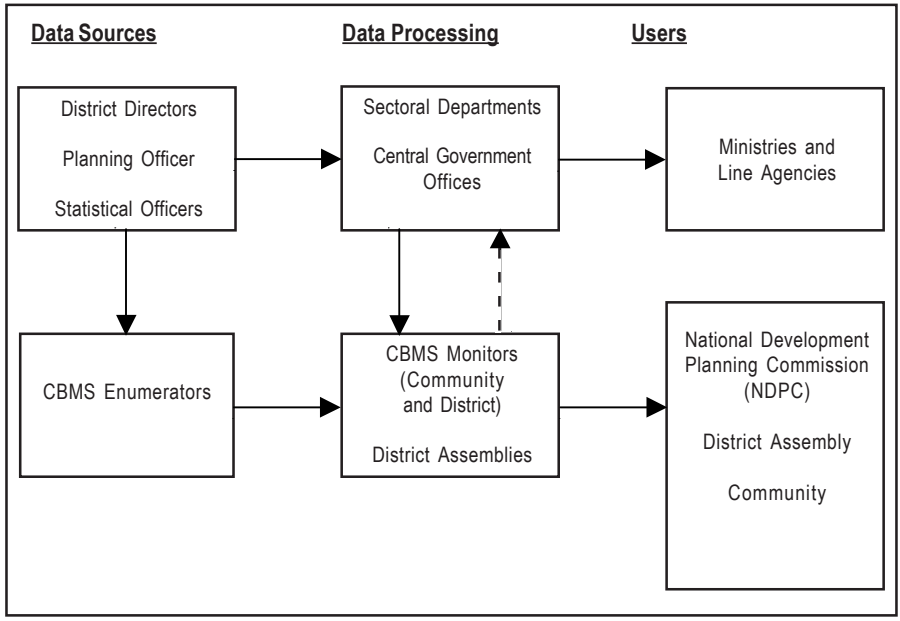
data. If the data are questionable, the enumerators may be required to revisit the community surveyed.

Data dissemination

The main method to be adopted for data dissemination will be the meetings with stakeholders and policymakers at the district and national levels. The meetings will seek to promote the use of poverty data in decisionmaking, resource allocation and subsequently, prioritization of projects at the district level. The proposed flow chart is presented in Figure 3.

After data validation, the results will be posted and displayed at the district offices or community bulletin boards in English and in the local language. Community poverty monitoring reports will also be published for dissemination to the District Chief Executives, Regional Ministers, the National Development Planning Commission and other interested parties.

Figure 3
Flow of Information



Data users

National Level: Both government and nongovernmental agencies will be encouraged to use the CBMS data for the diagnostic study of the poverty situation in districts at the community level. The information will help design policy interventions and target vulnerable groups, including the poorest of the poor, in the districts.

Local Level: It is envisaged that with the collaborative efforts of the district planners, the CBMS data will improve and enrich the preparation of district development plans that in turn feed into the national development agenda. The community poverty monitoring reports will be disseminated through workshops to inform District Assemblies/ District Planning Officers and help them monitor the impact of development policies and programs undertaken at the national level and/or local government in the surveyed communities.

Institutions and personnel

The following personnel will be members of the CBMS-Ghana project team.

1. Dr. Nii Kwaku Sowa, Core Research Fellow, Center for Policy Analysis (CEPA), Accra
2. Ivy K. Aryee, Research Officer, CEPA, Accra
3. Dr. Felix A. Asante, Research Fellow, Institute of Statistical and Social Research (ISSER), University of Ghana, Legon-Accra.
4. Prof. Clara Fayorsey, Associate Professor, Sociology Department, University of Ghana, Legon-Accra.

In addition, a network of personnel will be drawn from the following agencies:

1. Ghana Statistical Service,
2. National Development Planning Commission,
3. District Chief Executives,
4. District Planning Officers, and
5. Unit Committee leaders of the chosen pilot testing area.

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Key Comments

- Provide information on how can the decentralization process stimulate interest in the CBMS.
- Are the databases comprehensive enough to be able to really make effective survey dimensions?
- After the generation of community-level kind of segregated database, the next step is to convince the policymakers and the planners in different levels that this is going to really help and an opportunity to really make better survey dimensions.
- The selling job should include having a steering committee at the national level. Inform people that there is a CBMS activity and perhaps sell it through this involvement of the steering committee at the national level.
- There seems to be a tension between the PRSP Monitoring and the real CBMS. One reason may be due to the expenses because it is a high-end type of PRSP Monitoring. Similarly, Ghana seems to be more concerned with the PRSP observatory. The tension lies in the fact that more data needed for PRSP as compared to CBMS and the kind of people that will be involved would be very different.
- Put a balance between the PRSP demands with that of a real CBMS because in the end, what is needed is to facilitate effective decentralization.
- One problem is the consistency between the CBMS results and national level results and the confidence on the quality and uses of CBMS.
- Include a long-term vision on how the CBMS will be implemented in districts and explore the selling of the idea to other districts.
- Present information to local people for better appreciation.
- The priority for CBMS should always be local governance. Otherwise, it is not sustainable.

- Approximate, as much as possible, how the questions are phrased especially on what incomes and expenditures specifically refer to.
- It takes a special skill to undertake participatory household discussion and it takes another skill to really go to the households and take accurate data. They can both be undertaken but for specific set of data, it may best be done through focus group discussions. For more specific group data, it is better to do a household survey. Separate and economize on which data would be best.
- The standard CBMS can be used for both PRSP and local governance. If it works well, then it should be an important basis for evaluating the PRSP.
- Although the features of CBMS are very useful for local governance, it does not preclude the use of CBMS for other things like, for instance, PRSP. However, including all the PRSP indicators may be too ambitious.
- For some countries, they have identified over a hundred indicators but even national surveys find it difficult to include these hundred or so indicators. Thus, they are now scaling down the number of PRSP indicators.
- For CBMS, just to be able to include key indicators would be enough to know the conditions, say, in health or education, are improving or deteriorating. This would be very useful to the government and donors who are looking into the performance of the countries.
- PRSP and CBMS are two strategies to alleviate poverty, with the CBMS taking the bottom line and the PRSP, the national level.
- CBMS can play a central role in helping the local decisionmakers have the evidence to actually make decisions.
- Different countries have different situations in terms of administrative and political situation and structures. As such, these are very critical variables in the whole process of institutionalization of the CBMS.

CBMS Session 4
Poverty Alleviation Policies and Programs

Statistical System and Poverty Monitoring: The Case of Lao PDR

Phonesaly Souksavath

Introduction

The statistical system of Lao PDR was initially built to serve the central planning system that was established after the revolution in 1975. The system was characterized by the collection of primary data at local levels aggregated by the different administrative levels to national sector statistics. The system was decentralized in the sense that each ministry was responsible for statistics in its own field. Statistical units consisting of 1-2 persons were assigned the task at ministry level, and at the provincial and district departments of the ministry. The Committee for Planning and Cooperation (CPC), through its planning units in the provinces and districts, also compiled statistics received from sector ministry departments. At the CPC, the National Statistical Center (NSC) compiled national statistics received from the sector ministries and provinces.

At present, the statistical system in Lao PDR is still decentralized with responsibilities being shared among several actors. The NSC is the central producer and collector of national statistics as well as the coordinator of official statistics in Lao PDR. The set-up of the statistical system is as follows:

- *National Statistical Center (NSC)* is the central producer and collector of statistics. It conducts censuses, surveys and case

studies, and collects secondary data from line ministries and provinces. NSC is the coordinator of all official statistics in Lao PDR.

- *Ministries* produce statistics in sectors under their responsibility in cooperation with, or assistance from, NSC on technical and methodological issues.
- *Ministry of Finance* is responsible for statistics on government revenues, expenditures and foreign assistance. It also compiles import-export statistics.
- *The Bank of Lao PDR* is responsible for the compilation of monetary and financial statistics (MFS) and of balance-of-payments statistics.
- Planning departments in the *Provinces* collect data from other provincial sector departments, and from districts, villages and businesses. They also conduct field operations for NSC surveys.
- Planning offices in the *Districts* collect data from villages and households and take part in field operations for NSC surveys.

Coverage of the current statistical production

The concept of national statistics and the role of the NSC has been recognized and established in Lao PDR. The bulk of statistics is produced through the traditional system of reporting. Through the years, the quality of the statistics has improved with the NSC introducing the sample survey approach and other statistical methodologies, which had in general led to a qualitative improvement of statistics.

The main statistics being compiled by the NSC include: national accounts, price, population, gender, poverty, labor, foreign trade, monetary and financial statistics.[1] In addition to the administrative aspects of data collection, the NSC also conducts surveys and censuses, and does some basic analyses.

[1] The NSC is not the only producer of these statistics.

Population statistics

The set of population statistics, with decennial censuses and intermittent demographic surveys, is a strong component in the Lao system of official statistics. Aside from the population survey, the next of which will be conducted in 2005, the Reproductive Health Survey (UNFPA sponsored) was also done in 2000, also providing a head count and estimate of fertility and mortality.

There might also be a need for data on internal and external migration, and for a calibration of population projections but hopefully, the planned household survey can address these issues.

Social statistics

Social statistics are mainly the responsibility of the sector ministries while the NSC concentrates on the household survey to collect the more direct social indicators.

The various surveys conducted to collect social statistics include:

- the UNICEF Multi-Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) conducted in 1996 and 2000,
- the UNFPA Birth Spacing Survey in 1994 and the Reproductive Health Survey in 2000,
- the Village Book project (at the instigation of UNDP), and
- the LECS (Lao Expenditure and Consumption Survey) survey approach (NSC).

The LECS is a multi-purpose survey approach. The third LECS was conducted in 2002/03, but there is a plan to start conducting annual household surveys. The annual survey program was implemented beginning 2003.

Based on the results of different surveys and data sources, the NSC, in collaboration with UNDP, prepared the first National Human Development Report (NHDR) in 1998. The second NHDR has been drafted by many authors from different government agencies, with the NSC contributing one chapter to the report.

Economic statistics

In the field of economic statistics, the System of National Accounts (SNA93) is supposed to function as the umbrella of all economic statistics. The system consists of a coherent, consistent and integrated set of macroeconomic accounts, balance sheets and tables based on a set of internationally agreed concepts, definitions, classifications and accounting rules. The Lao National Accounts are, however, rather primitive at the moment. Meanwhile, the NSC is still in the process of developing the SNA base on SNA93 and expected to finalize it by the end of 2004. For this, a benchmark estimate of the GDP by production and expenditure side was developed in 1997.

Price statistics

To improve national accounts statistics, the price statistics need to undergo further development. In this connection, the consumer price index is now being produced and published on a monthly basis and covers a wider geographic area. At present, the weights are taken from the LECS survey of 1997/1998 but these will be updated when the results from the ongoing LECS survey are made available.

A producers price index is also under development. Gathering of price information has also started, together with the quarterly enterprise survey, since 2003.

Statistics on poverty

The NSC, with assistance from Statistics Sweden, Asian Development Bank (ADB) and World Bank (WB), has derived a set of poverty statistics for 1992/93 and 1997/98, defining evaluation and monitoring criteria for poverty monitoring at household, village and district levels. Besides the quantitative analyses of poverty, Lao PDR also received technical assistance on the Participatory Poverty Approach (PPA) from ADB in 2002. This project aims at building up the capacity of monitoring and evaluation of the poverty situation, in combination with the quantitative assessment. The approach explores complementary ways of enriching the poverty profile, describing and

understanding the nature of poverty, and giving more substantial causal explanations in order to generate better poverty reduction strategies.

Poverty assessment and monitoring

Poverty assessment

Poverty in Lao PDR has a complex and multi-perspective character. For the Lao multi-ethnic culture, poverty has a particular meaning, as it refers to families that have been stricken by misfortune and/or are the least well-off in a given community.[2] That is why household poverty is an important criterion for poverty assessment at the district level. Villages provide a measure of welfare, a natural safety net to compensate for shortcomings in livelihood within the village.

The understanding of 'poverty' in the Lao culture must be taken into account in designing sector programs for eradicating basic poverty. Livelihood improvement has a series of manifestations highly relevant to identifying strategic approaches to poverty reduction. For this reason, the Government prefers to stress the improvement of livelihoods, focusing on people-centred, participatory development. These are positive and socially mobilising concepts, embracing all segments of society and not only those identified as poor.

There are many methods of poverty measurement and analysis such as poverty lines; participatory poverty assessments; vulnerability indexes; and the Human Poverty Index. Poverty measurement and analysis in Lao PDR is still in the initial stages and draws heavily from the Lao Expenditure and Consumption Surveys (LECS), which take place every 5 years, starting in 1992/93. LECS II was conducted in 1997/98, just prior to the full impact of the Asian financial crisis. LECS III was conducted in 2002/2003 and the preliminary analysis was done prior to the Eighth Round Table Meeting in September 2003. The complete set of the report is expected by year end.

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[2] For instance, in the Prime Minister's instruction regarding "decentralisation" (PM/01/ March 11, 2000), villages are encouraged, before formulating a village development plan, to collect data and observe the living conditions of each family, ranking them accordingly into wealthy, self-sufficient and poor families.

Poverty assessment in Lao PDR has been done through both quantitative and qualitative measures.

a) Quantitative measurement using poverty lines - The poverty line methodology is the result of joint efforts by the National Statistics Center, Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA), ADB, and the World Bank. The Lao Expenditure and Consumption Surveys have provided the data for the analysis. There are two poverty lines: (1) the food poverty line, and (2) an overall poverty line. The first refers to a lack of food security and the second to lack of food and non-food necessities.

The food poverty line threshold is 2100 calories per day per person, which the World Health Organization (WHO) and other international organisation have determined as the basic requirement for people in Lao PDR. Those with less intake are considered to be living below the food poverty line. The cost of acquiring this intake plus 20 percent for non-food necessities (e.g., shelter, clothing), determines the overall poverty line.

b) Qualitative Assessment - Qualitative analysis of poverty in Lao PDR started in 1997, based on "Rapid Poverty Assessment (RPA)" techniques developed by the then State Planning Committee.[3]

RPAs were undertaken in three provinces, namely: Luang Namtha, Bolikhamxay and Attapeu. Together with a series of regional consultation workshops on poverty, the information gathered played an important role in preparing a National Poverty Alleviation Action Plan.[4]

Qualitative analysis nationwide began with the Participatory Poverty Assessment (PPA)[5] in 2000 which emphasised causation and perceptions of poverty throughout the multi-ethnic population. The PPA recorded the experiences and concerns of the people in order to

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[3] They were designed to obtain information on poverty/well-being at the village/community level as well as the household level and focused on gaining an insight into the perception of the nature and causes of poverty. Cf. Government document to the 7th RTM "Fighting Poverty", Nov. 2000, op.cit., p 41-44.

[4] Cf. Government Report to RTM 6 (1997), p.28.

[5] NSC with support from ADB, 2000.

identify and initiate appropriate actions to reduce poverty. This was accomplished by combining information on poverty (statistical, cultural, anthropological, institutional, economic, among others) with an understanding of the views of poor people.

In 2002, there was a follow-up to the original PPA which enabled tracking developments over the two-year interlude in 55 representative villages in 13 provinces.[6]

In general, the study showed that most villages experienced improvement over the two-year period. However, some showed no improvement or had become worse off.

Villages that showed progress benefited from improved roads, enabling access to paddy land and markets. They also benefited from donor-assisted projects such as the construction of schools and health clinics and provision of medicine kits. Some benefited from improved irrigation and Unexploded Ordinance Programme (UXO) removal.

In the villages where overall income increased, implying a decrease in poverty, it was found that increases in production were being realised by only a few households. In many cases, the majority of households had remained the same or were worse off than in 2000. An inequality gap has thus appeared within villages, both in villages of the same ethnicity and in villages where several ethnic groups were integrated.

With respect to villages that remained the same between 2000 and 2002, problems that were encountered included repeated moves, lack of land (especially paddy fields), and presence of UXO, thereby preventing cultivation. With respect to villages that had become worse off, lack of land was again a major problem. In particular, the reduction of traditional fallow cycles following new land allocation regulations is causing soils to deplete and yields to decrease. Despite its overall high level of poverty, the Northern Region appears to be more dynamic. The Southern Region showed less change over the two-year period.

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[6] The original sample was 84 poor villages from 18 provinces and 43 districts in the 2000 PPA. The report entitled: "Summary of the Recent Research Results on Poverty Assessment" is available as Working Paper No. 3 under the NSC/ADB Participatory Poverty Monitoring and Evaluation Project.

Very recently, the Government has adopted a participatory monitoring approach concerning the contribution of Public Investment Projects (PIP) to assess poverty reduction. The review is still in progress and to date, selected northern provinces have been visited (Louang Prabang, Oudomxay, Louang Namtha, and Houa Phanh).

The initial findings include the following:

- Most people say they are better off because of infrastructure investments, especially roads that allow access for the sale and purchase of goods, and access to health and education services. Forest products, however, are being depleted.
- Agricultural production has not improved; village relocations often result in insufficient produce for sustainable livelihoods.
- Livestock disease remains a major problem and has not been resolved.
- Infrastructure projects tend to result in a few individuals becoming wealthy.

In addition, in 2001/2002, the local authorities conducted poverty assessment at the district level using the national poverty criteria defined in Prime Ministerial Instruction No. 10 on poverty reduction.[7] Details on the poverty criteria are shown in Box 1.

On the basis of these criteria, 72 districts have been identified as poor. As stated earlier, at this juncture, the district level is the most relevant and reliable level for data collection and poverty monitoring. Furthermore, the district represents the level where coordination between all government services is best achieved. Of the 72 districts, 47 have been identified for priority intervention during 2003-5005.[8] Box 1 gives more details.

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[7] It was issued in June 2001. However in the implementation the local authority has been adopted some other additional local criteria.

[8] The National Poverty Eradication Programme (NPEP), Eight Round Table Meeting, September 2003.

Box 1
Poverty Definition and Criteria

"Poverty is the lack of ability to fulfil basic human needs, such as: not having enough food [i.e. less than 2,100 calories per day/capita], lack of adequate clothing, not having permanent housing, not capable of meeting expenses for health care, not capable of meeting educational expenses for one's self and other family members, and lack of access to transport routes". Instruction 10 specifies that "there is to be a systematic accounting of village and district poverty levels. Thereafter, these findings must be incorporated into the poverty eradication planning.

Criteria have been developed in order to assist local authorities in monitoring changes in poverty, especially in poor households and districts, and to help the district and provincial authorities themselves to better understand the poverty situation at the grassroots level. These officially used criteria are divided into three levels as follows:

Household level:
Households considered as poor are those with an income (or the equivalent in kind) of less than kip 85,000 kip (100,000 kip for urban and 82,000 kip for rural) per person per month (at 2001 prices). This sum allows the purchase of about 16 kilograms of milled rice per person per month; the balance is insufficient to cover other necessities, such as clothing, shelter, schooling and medical costs.

Village level:
Villages considered as poor are:
- Villages where at least 51% of the total households are poor.
- Villages without schools or schools in nearby and accessible villages.
- Villages without dispensaries, traditional medical practitioners or villages requiring over 6 hours of travel to reach a hospital.
- Villages without safe water supply.
- Villages without access to roads (at least trails accessible by cart during the dry season).

District level:
Poor districts are:
- Districts where over 51% of the villages are poor.
- Districts where over 40% of the villages do not have local or nearby schools.
- Districts where over 40% of the villages do not have a dispensary or pharmacy.
- Districts where over 60% of the villages are without an access road.
- Districts where over 40% of the villages do not have safe water.

Provincial and national levels:
The measurement of poverty at provincial and national levels is a compilation of poverty at the district level. It may then be combined with poverty analysis based on household consumption and expenditure surveys performed by the National Statistical Centre.

Poverty situation during the 1990s

Based on the poverty head count index[9], the level of poverty in 1992/1993 was 45 percent while in 1997/1998, poverty decreased to 38.6 percent. It is thus clear that during this period, poverty decreased although the richer provinces benefited more than the poor ones. The poverty reduction rate of 3.1 per cent per year demonstrates the benefits of economic growth which benefited the whole population during this period. Preliminary data from LECS III in 2002/2003 indicate that the poverty level may have fallen further to about 30 percent.

There are, however, still considerable variations in the levels of poverty between regions and provinces. The North has the highest level of poverty though there was some reduction from 55.4 percent to 52.5 percent in the period between the two surveys. In Vientiane Municipality, the wealthiest of the regions, poverty dropped from 24.4 to 12.2 percent. The South was the second poorest region (Table 1).

The distribution of the poor, in terms of their absolute number, meanwhile, differs considerably between provinces and regions, because the population in each area is different in size. The Northern Region has by far the highest number of poor people.

Table 1
Percentage of Poor by Regions and Provinces

Regions/provinces	1992-1993	1997-1998	Annual Rate in Decrease of Poverty
Vientiane municipality	24.4	12.2	-13.9
Northern region	58.4	52.5	-2.1
Central region	39.5	34.9	-2.5
Southern region	45.9	38.4	-3.6
Laos	45.0	38.6	-3.1

Source of data: NPEP, Eight Round Table Meeting, September 2003.

[9] The head count index shows the percentage rate of the population with income or consumption and expenditure, lower than the poverty line. There are two poverty lines, the first is the food poverty line, and the second is the non-food poverty line. For Lao PDR, the average poverty line is 15,218 kip per person per month in 1997/1998, 19,270 kip and 14,407 kip per person per month for urban and rural, respectively.

In terms of rural-urban comparison, the poverty situation differs greatly as shown in Table 2. In 1992/1993, urban poverty was 33.1 percent and rural poverty, 48.7 percent. This was reduced in 1997/1998 to 26.8 in urban areas and 40.9 percent in rural areas. On the average, economic growth benefited the urban more than the rural areas. Therefore, inequality has been increasing since the 1990s.

Table 2
Incidence of Poverty by Regions and Rural and Urban Areas
(Percentage of Poor)

Regions	Urban Areas			Rural Areas		
	1992-1993	1997-1998	Growth Rate	1992-1993	1997-1998	Growth Rate
Vientiane municipality	22.46	16.7	-5.9	30.14	4.47	-38.2
Northern region	48.93	43.27	-2.5	60.4	53.53	-2.4
Central region	37.42	27.65	-6.1	39.89	35.89	-2.1
Southern region	27.64	35.84	5.2	49.62	38.66	-5.0
Laos P.D.R.	**33.14**	**26.86**	**-4.2**	**48.66**	**40.97**	**-3.4**

Source of data: NPEP, Eight Round Table Meeting, September 2003.

The Gini coefficient (a measure of inequality) rose from 28.6 in 1992/93 to 35.7 in 1997/98 as seen in Table 3. The increase in inequality is an indication that economic growth benefited Lao's multi-ethnic population unequally and that the benefits of this economic growth are lower for the poor than for the rich.

Table 3
Inequality of Per Capita Real Consumption

Regions/provinces	1992-1993	1997-1998	Growth rate
Gini coefficient	**28.6**	**35.7**	**4.4**
Quintile shares			
First	9.3	7.8	-3.5
Second	13.5	11.8	-2.7
Third	16.9	15.4	-1.8
Fourth	21.9	20.6	-1.2
Fifth	38.4	44.4	2.9

Source of data: NPEP, Eight Round Table Meeting, September 2003.

Causes of poverty

The results of the participatory poverty research carried out in 2000 (NSC and ADB) indicate that in the eyes of the poor themselves, the main indicator of poverty is the extent of rice sufficiency while that of wealth is availability or ownership of livestock.

Some points that may be gleaned from the research are as follows:

1. The indicator of poverty is the level of rice sufficiency while the indicator of wealth is livestock availability or ownership.
2. Main problems (which are related to the problem of rice sufficiency) include the reduction of land for swidden cultivation, livestock disease, ill health, hiring out of labor, lack of necessary technical knowledge, lack of access to roads, lack of clothing, and poor housing.
3. The causes of poverty, in general, are (in order of importance); (i) problems associated with land; (ii) death of livestock due to lack of veterinary services; (iii) lack of cash investment to make livelihood improvements; (iv) natural disasters; (v) environmental problems; and (vi) lack of water for agriculture.
4. Other causes include the lack of local leadership, relocation, lack of health services, too many children, lack of knowledge of the market, lack of government services, low agricultural prices, addiction to opium, and presence of UXOs.

The analysis on the causes of poverty is one of the basis for the establishment of various interrelated policies explicit in the national poverty eradication program (NPEP).

Poverty monitoring

Background

Monitoring of poverty during the 1990s was not properly set in place. Neither did a process of annual assessment take place at all.

In mid-2001, the Lao Government developed a reporting system on poverty level within the country following the Prime Minister's Directive No. 10 dated 25 June 2001 on the "Development of Poverty

Eradication Programs". The directive introduced specific criteria for defining poverty at the household, village, district and provincial levels. The National Statistical Center was tasked to develop an assessment questionnaire that operationalizes these criteria.

These criteria were integrated into the data collection system- the village book-as a tool for monitoring. The Village Book aims to collect socioeconomic information from the grassroots level. Said data include those on population, housing, agriculture, labor statistics, education, health and poverty. The village chief is responsible for filling out this book and reports to the districts, which in turn report to the provincial office. The latter then reports to the NSC once a year. This Village Book was introduced last year. As such, there are still some issues that need to be improved, particularly the capacity of the village, districts and provinces.

Due to this lack of capacity and resources, the NSC has selected 10 percent of the total village as a base for country estimation.

Monitoring methods

To be able to incorporate all factors relevant to poverty reduction, including variables resulting from geography, ethnicity and culture, it is important to set up and maintain an assessment of the poverty situation in Lao PDR. Poverty research and monitoring is also important in guiding the redefinition of central-local relations and in formulating the Public Investment Program. In both cases, central and local officials will need training to effectively address the needs of the poor.

Box 2 outlines some key elements in the method process of poverty monitoring.

Box 2
Key Elements in Poverty Monitoring

- At village levels district officials in collaboration with villages' officials have to visit the households in order to assess the situation regularly.
- At district levels provincial authorities in collaboration with district officials have to visit the villages in order to monitor the poverty situation.
- At the national and provincial levels, in addition to the result of the assessments at the villages and districts levels, assessments will also based on quantitative as well as qualitative indicators in order to make it comparable to international standards.

Capacity-building at the national, provincial and district levels is a major concern. Increasing capacity at the district level will *de facto* enable village participation in the planning process: Questionnaires are also being structured to enhance interactions between district officials and villagers for data collection and planning purposes. The result will be an improved targeting of projects for poverty alleviation, more efficient allocation of resources within the framework of the 'decentralisation' programme and the PIP and, most importantly, local ownership of the project planning process.

New approaches to poverty research and monitoring will be required, including combining participatory exercises with traditional household surveys. The latter combines quantitative and qualitative analyses of poverty measurement, leading to better poverty eradication strategies and builds on the following steps:

a) Poverty monitoring of households via village level statistical data

There is a need for reliable data on districts and villages, especially within the context of districts being the planning and fiscal units and villages, the implementing units. The "Village Statistics Book" is a useful instrument for monitoring the socio-economic profile of villages. The implementation of the "Village Statistics Book" is progressing, with 11 provinces having completed the first round of household poverty monitoring. This will become the basis for locating household poverty nationwide. Procedures regarding poverty monitoring at the local level must still be strengthened.

b) Quantitative poverty monitoring using the LECS III 2002-2003 Survey

The LECS III 2002/03 survey has been modified and expanded to better analyse poverty. Improvements include the inclusion of rural prices; questions relating to household assets and income from agriculture and business; and questions relating to housing, education, health, and use of time of all household members. Data collection has been completed and a preliminary report will be completed by the end of 2003.

c) Qualitative poverty monitoring using participatory methods

Quantitative research on poverty must be carried out in unison with qualitative research. Participatory monitoring and evaluation of poverty is important, which includes listening to the poor express their needs and gaining a thorough understanding of the gender, cultural and livelihood dimensions of their circumstances.

Finally, monitoring of sector programs and initiatives is important. Again, this requires data and measurement tools so as to evaluate the contribution to poverty reduction. Projects supported by donor agencies should be reviewed from this perspective.

Capacity-building and resources for poverty research and monitoring

The monitoring process in implementing the NPEP objectives and program will also serve to help the government monitor the progress in implementing its international commitments, especially the progress toward meeting international goals of poverty reduction such as the UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The NSC is the main body assigned to monitor and evaluate the process of implementation of the NPEP, particularly in the 72 districts which were identified as poor and need priority interventions. The challenging role for the NSC and the building up of its grassroot level (district and province) capacity is thus urgent.

The capacity-building process can be divided into 2 steps. At the national level, the NSC needs to improve its research and analysis capacity while at the provincial and districts levels, there is a need to train and strengthen skills of the manpower in the areas of monitoring and data collection. At the same time, an exchange and learning of experiences on how poverty is monitored in other countries is essential.

To achieve these objectives, issues of financial support from both government and donors have to be addressed. The key is to adequately build the capacity at the grassroot level to be able to respond to current needs/demand.

Key Comments

- With very little resources, especially qualified human resources, the NSC allocates a large part for monitoring poverty in different ways.
- What is extremely interesting is that the national system marries successfully quantitative and qualitative approaches. And it gives a very good picture of the evolution of poverty since ten years. Income poverty is decreasing. Also, important results from the qualitative surveys throw light on these quantitative results.
- More details on the Village Statistics Book and on the methodology of filling the community questionnaire should be given. This would make interesting comparisons with other CBMS, particularly with the Nepal and Cambodia cases.
- For such a small and poor country with little resources and weak national statistical office, a lot of very interesting information about poverty was provided.
- Get more details on this approach and more information about the methodology to be able to have a better assessment.
- Since it is a kind of community questionnaire, some type of comparison could be done with the Nepal's community-based questionnaire as well.
- Extreme inequality with respect to literacy exists in some communities. There is a bit of an ethnic dimension to all of this and perhaps poverty monitoring should bring out more of this.
- Provide details on how income and expenditure were estimated.
- The national poverty eradication program creates a demand for more disaggregated information which might be addressed by the CBMS. But as the local level, is there a demand right now for information at the village or at the district level? Is there a planning cycle, an annual planning cycle? Does the village or the district receive its own revenues or funds that can used to address some of the problems at their level? These have to be explained since these are some of the questions that CBMS answers.

Poverty Analysis in Thailand: Data Producer Perspectives

Jirawan Boonperm

Poverty and development

There have been growing criticisms in Thailand on the ability of the past and present path of economic development to raise the true welfare of the Thai people. Critics have often argued that there is a sizeable group who have not benefited from the country's economic growth and have not been able to maintain a reasonable standard of living.

This is an important issue for public policy. Of course, there will always be groups who will lag behind others in benefiting from economic growth and in the accumulation of financial wealth. Thailand is not alone in this as the same point can be made in other countries. Indeed, relative economic achievement and well-being is a permanent feature of any society.

To assess whether or not development benefits have really filtered down to the people, a broad-based measurement of economic well-being within a developmental context is needed. In many developing countries, the general approach is to assess the size and proportion of the group that have not been able to maintain a certain benchmark in their standard of living. In Thailand, the policy debate has increasingly emphasized the attainment of this absolute benchmark as the true measure of economic progress, and the failure of such attainment as a reflection of poverty.

The Thai government, especially the present one, acknowledges that absolute poverty exists and has identified poverty alleviation as one of its most important development tasks. The government has announced that its goal is to have poverty eradicated within 6 years. This is a challenge indeed and needs real cooperation and participation among all parties in the country. Several urgent policies and programs have been introduced such as the Village Fund Project, Debt Suspension and Interest Support Scheme for Farmers, and the 30 baht Health Coverage, among others, but it also recognized that there must be effective measures to monitor and evaluate the success of such policies, projects and programs.

Measuring poverty and data requirement

Broadly defined, poverty is a multi-dimensional concept, which varies across countries and societies. Poverty can be looked at as a lack of capabilities of the person to fully participate in the normal livelihood of that society, as a deprivation from a normal standard of living of the people in that society, or as a lack of acceptable culture pertaining to that society.

For the poor themselves, poverty could refer to factors close to their everyday lives and easy to understand such as low income, not enough food and no land for agriculture. For the academics and experts, poverty is often viewed in broader terms and covers factors that can potentially explain why the poor stay in poverty. Most of these factors involve social, economic and political structures.

One of the most meaningful concepts of poverty is the lack of adequate income to acquire necessary food and non-food items for normal living. In Thailand, poverty is analyzed based on the 'income approach' because it reflects command over resources that could be used as a means for a person to get what he lacks. The lack of adequate income, therefore, is a more convenient and easier understandable concept of how people could be classified as poor. This definition could also allow us to relate to the developmental status of our country and see if the development benefits are spread out across the population.

In Thailand, the poverty line based on income has been established since the early 1970s. The approach used to establish this minimum income level is called 'Nutritional Adequacy Approach'. The minimum nutritional requirements are measured against the actual food consumption of the Thai people in different regions to see if they meet these minimum requirements. The prices of the food items are then used to convert their costs into monetary terms. What results is the minimum income that is needed to get these nutritionally adequate food items. This income is sometimes called 'food poverty line'. When the minimum income required to get non-food items is added to this food poverty line, the final result is the 'total poverty line'. The average poverty line can be computed for the whole population or sub-populations in different regions or locations. Table 1 presents the data on poverty lines and incidence in Thailand from 1998 to 2000.

Table 1
Poverty Lines and Poverty Incidence in Thailand, 1988 to 2000

	1998	1990	1992	1994	1996	1998	2000	2002
Overall Poverty Line (bath/person/month)	473	522	600	636	737	878	882	922
Poverty Incidence (%)	32.5	27.2	23.2	16.3	11.4	13.0	14.2	9.8
No. of the Poor (million)	17.9	15.3	13.5	9.7	6.8	7.9	8.9	6.2

Source of data: Computed from various Socio-Economic Surveys (SES)

At the early stage of doing poverty analysis in Thailand, the main source of income and consumption data was the Household SocioEconomic Survey carried out regularly by the National Statistical Office (NSO) since 1962. Many projects were done using this source of data. Included in the analysis are:

- trends in household income and expenditure levels over time;
- trends in urban–rural and regional disparities;
- trends in the size and distribution of the 'poor' people;
- characteristics of poor and non-–poor households; and
- poverty line and income distribution.

The need for poverty analysis and evaluation has been increasing dramatically not only in terms of completeness and timeliness but also in terms of coverage. Such analyses are also urgently required at the local levels, i.e., provinces, districts, sub–districts and even down to local administrative areas. The questions refer not only to who the poor are and what their family circumstances are, but also and above all, to where they are and how we can help them.

Under the new constitution promulgated in 1997, one important issue is the decentralization of power of the government. Accordingly, each local administrative area has its own head and a team who are elected by the local people and responsible for the socioeconomic, political and environmental development of the area. This has led to the increase in the demand for community-level statistical data especially those to be used in poverty analysis and poverty alleviation plans and programs as well as in targeting poor families or people in the community for various anti-povety programs.

It can be concluded that the statistical system in the country must be enhanced to provide sufficient statistical data if the country is to further reduce the poverty problem. The relevant data must be consistent, continuous over time, of good quality, timely, complete in details and representative at the community level.

Major sources of data for poverty analysis in Thailand and their limitations

Household surveys

The technical study of poverty in Thailand started soon after the implementation of the First National Development Plan in 1961 using the data obtained from the Household Expenditure Survey conducted by the NSO in 1962/3. The surveys were then extended to become what it is now–a biennial Household SocioEconomic Survey (or SES), which is conducted biennially. This survey is believed to be the single most complete source of data used in setting the poverty line, studying poverty and income distribution as well as constructing the consumer price index (CPI).

The SES adopts a stratified two-stage sampling methodology, with 76 provinces constituting 76 strata and, in each stratum, the area is divided into municipal (MA) and non-municipal (NMA) areas. At the first stage sampling, sample blocks (in MA) and sample villages (in NMA) are selected from each area. A total sample for each round of the survey totals around 46,580 households. Results of the SES are presented at the provincial, regional and national levels. The items surveyed include:

- household and housing characteristics;
- expenditure by goods and services and by types of purchase;
- change in assets and liabilities;
- household income by sources of income; and
- household debts as reflected in the application for loans.

Apart from the SES, the NSO has also regularly carried out many other household surveys on an annual basis or on a shorter- or longer-interval basis. Among the relevant ones are the Household Labor Force surveys (monthly basis), the Health and Welfare Survey, the Household Manufacturing Industry Survey, the Civil Servant Socio-Economic Survey and Village Survey.

Although there are several surveys from which poverty analysis could be derived, the analysis made may not be generalized to the whole country because of certain limitations, to wit:

- The survey data cannot be used to locate or target the poor.
- All of the survey data are of cross-sectional type whereas many in-depth analyses require longitudinal data to explain change over time of poverty characteristics of the poor.
- There is no linkage between household income and expenditure data, on the one hand, and other socio-economic data, on the other hand. In other words, it is not possible to link SES data to the data from other household surveys. These have prevented the better utilization of these survey data.
- The income and expenditure data are still subject to high non-sampling error such as non-response error which is relatively

high in the municipal areas especially for those high-income sample households.

- The survey data cannot provide estimates at the community level.

Community level data

The Community Development Department of the Ministry of Interior has carried out a project to collect data for use in rural development since 1980. The major data collected are of 2 types, namely, (a) data on Basic Minimum Needs (BMN) of the population which are collected every year, and (b) data on SocioEconomic Baseline Data (SEB), which are collected every 2 years.

The BMN data are household level data that indicate the level of quality of life of the people. The indicators obtained from these data determine whether households meet the minimum basic needs criteria. The number of households whose indicators are still below minimum levels will be the target of specific development programs.

The SEB data, meanwhile, provide information that help explain the quality of life and socioeconomic status of the villages as well as identify problems that need to be looked after at the village, sub-district, district, province, region and national levels.

The BMN and SEB data are recorded by the village committee which consists of the representatives from the villages and the officials from various government organizations. The recorded data are processed at the Local (Tambon) Administrative Area office using computers and linked on-line to the organizations concerned. The Government has approved the use of the BMN and SEB data as baseline data for government policies, plans and programs aimed at reducing poverty

Nevertheless, there are also some limitations in the use of BMN and SEB data for poverty analysis.

First, the main drawback is the low quality of the data. Due to the unique method of data collection by which the village team reports and records the data without conducting (household) individual

interviews, the recorded data may be subject to a high degree of bias due to subjective judgements and not based on facts. Second, data contents are less flexible, with most of the indicators being set up and used in every area. Some might not correspond to the situation at a particular location. And third, insufficient information about the households (such as income, expenditure, liabilities, durable goods, among others) limits the use of these sources of data for in-depth analysis of poverty.

Future directions

It is a great challenge to improve the sources of poverty data because the government has given a high priority to the poverty reduction issue.

Since the NSO is the central organization under the country decentralization statistical system, the NSO is responsible in doing these tasks. In response to the challenge, the NSO has come up with a plan of action that focuses on the following:

- *Improving the household surveys*. The is to be done by providing more longitudinal data in addition to cross-sectional data and linking data among different surveys. An example of this was the introduction of the rotation sampling in the Labor Force Survey (LFS) in 2002. With this effort, users can better monitor change in pattern and level of employment over time, with emphasis on the less privileged groups of people.
- *Redesigning the survey for the SES as a panel survey and adopting a multipurpose approach*. The former is to respond to the need of policy planners to investigate the poor people in greater depth while the latter will provide a better opportunity to utilize various types of social and economic data for the sake of integration.
- *Improving the quality of survey data vis-à-vis the non-response issues*. The NSO has put a lot of efforts to promote public use and acknowledgement of the importance of statistics. With better understanding, cooperation from survey respondents would become better.

- *Strengthening coordination between the NSO and major data users*. Regular meetings with major users have been set up in order to provide a forum for them to state their data requirements as well as to report/inform the NSO of the drawbacks or problems in the use of NSO data. With limited resources available, it is important for the NSO to focus on projects with a high priority.
- *Improving the NSO coordination role among other statistical units in the country in order to reduce the repetition of statistical activities and improve the quality of statistics produced*. The BMN and SEB project is one of those planned for the NSO to coordinate in order to upgrade the quality of this source of data.
- *Strengthening and improving the ICT in the process of data collection, processing and data dissemination*. After the Administrative Reform, the NSO has been transferred from the Office of the Prime Minister to the Ministry of Information and Communication Technology (ICT). Under the new umbrella, the ICT infrastructure and capability of the NSO personnel will be improved.
- *Providing a one-stop service approach for statistical data requirements to various users*. The National and Provincial Information Centers are being developed so that users may have better and easier access to sources of statistical data. For the major users like the National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB), the relevant statistical data, especially those to be used in poverty analysis, will be accessible on-line.

Recommendations

The key input to the system of poverty reduction evaluation is the availability of complete, accurate, reliable and timely data. To serve this purpose, the statistical data producer organizations should adapt their operation plan as well as improve their capability and efficiency so that they can provide sufficient and quality statistical data within their limited resources.

In general, the survey on household income and expenditure receives a relatively lower response rate than others. This is due to the detailed information to be collected, most of which relate to data that people tend not to disclose. In some cases, even if some people might wish to provide data, they were not able to record them properly though, especially among the poor or less educated groups. Because of the above, it is quite important to balance between the increasing demand for more detailed data (multi-dimensional and longitudinal data) and the data provider burden.

Sometimes, the provision of small gifts as an incentive for providing data will also be necessary. However, it has to be done with proper consideration so that it will not affect the operation of other projects. In Thailand, the households which record information for 7-day food consumption, and those which are in the panel sample are usually given small gifts.

For long-term development of the survey, it is worth trying to educate the people, especially those residing in rural areas, on how to keep accounts of their business activities such as farm work or household manufacturing industry. This would help them better manage their businesses and, at the same time, help them provide better information to the survey.

Normally, for the household income and expenditure survey, it needs well-trained field staff. Permanent staff are preferable because they are more responsive and disciplined.

To produce statistics from the reporting process especially those from the community level, it is important to gain local people participation in the production process. In this regard, it is important to help build the capacity of the community to utilize the information in formulating, monitoring and evaluating the community development plan.

In terms of the sample size, plans to increase the number of samples should first be seriously studied because an increase would dramatically raise the cost of the survey and also increase the burden of data providers. Instead, user requirements should be analyzed carefully so that only the necessary information is collected.

Intensive quality control on operational and technical aspects is compulsory for this kind of surveys. However, it has to be conducted properly and systematically.

Finally, to provide timely and quality statistics for poverty monitoring and analysis especially for evaluating the success of the anti-poverty programs of the government, there should be a concrete short- and medium-term plan for producing relevant data. The statistical system of the country could thus evolve and develop over time based on these plans to meet the demands for poverty statistics.

Key Comments

- The system has to go beyond the usual censuses and surveys to be able to address the needs particularly brought about by decentralization.
- Some surveys could be designed but there is always a trade-off between more information and cost. There is room for community-based monitoring systems, whether they fall under the auspices of statistical agencies or not.
- The CBMS is currently initiated outside the official statistical system but eventually, it is hoped that it complement and would be regarded as part of the poverty monitoring systems.
- Include also the possibility of collecting some demand-side indicators.
- Having more and more people from the statistics office aware of the CBMS will increase the demand for better-quality data and help address the question about consistency between data coming from the national statistics office and from the CBMS.
- Explain how poor and the non-poor are determined from the system.
- Had there been instances when BMN data were misapplied? There are instances when data are manipulated for political gains of some local political leaders to get funds from the national government.
- Have the BMN data been intensively analyzed in terms of data quality? Which of the BMN data had been particularly reliable or the most reliable?
- Are the medical care and housing, which have been the two priorities of the Thailand government, the ones that stand out from the BMN data? If not from the BMN data, where did information came from?
- Have there been successful applications of the BMN data since 1980 either for program or project evaluation? If none, why?

NRDB Spatial Database Training

As part of the CBMS sessions in the conference, a one-day training on the Natural Resources Database (NRDB) program, a spatial database software, was held on November 7, 2003.

NRDB is a free geographic information system (GIS) tool for developing and distributing environmental databases. Its aim is to provide people in developing countries with a powerful yet simple tool to assist in the managing of their own resources. It was developed for the Bohol Environment Management Office, Province of Bohol , Philippines, by Richard D. Alexander, with the assistance of Voluntary Service Overseas. In 2000, it was adopted by the provincial government of Palawan, Philippines as part of their community-based monitoring system (CBMS). In 2003, NRDB became a critical component of the CBMS.

To start the training, Dr. Celia Reyes, CBMS Network Leader, gave the welcome remarks and a brief background of the database program. She was followed by Ms. Jasminda Asirot of the CBMS Network Coordinating Team who shared the usefulness of the GIS and the NRDB software in the CBMS implementation in the Philippines for visual data and spatial analysis.

Mr. Dirk Heinrichs, former technical consultant of the provincial government of Palawan from the Center for International Migration and Development (CIM) Integrated Experts Program, provided a more detailed discussion on the Palawan experience on the use of the GIS and NRDB in land use planning and assessment of human welfare,

among others. Mr. Heinrichs also cited the differences between the GIS and NRDB in that the latter is not a GIS but a database with mapping tools. Furthermore, he showed several examples of possible analyses using the GIS and several lessons learned from Palawan's GIS and NRDB experience.

Mr. Richard Alexander then discussed the database structure and functions of the program, and cited several examples of thematic mapping analysis which can be done in the software.

There were two hands-on exercises for the participants during the training. The first one showed how to locate a new deep well site in a particular village. The step-by-step procedure was facilitated by Mr. Heinrichs, Mr. Alexander and Ms. Asirot. The second exercise gave an opportunity for the participants to work on another example at their own pace.

The training was attended by CBMS partners as well as participants from the Modeling and Policy Impact Assessment (MPIA) and Poverty Monitoring, Measurement and Analysis (PMMA) subnetworks. Some of the participants were so interested to use the program that a follow-up session was organized the following day where details in digitizing maps and database set-up were expounded on. A user group email service is also being developed to assist the participants in setting up and creating their own databases.

Moving the CBMS Forward: Other Applications of CBMS

To introduce new ideas to the network, selected resource persons in their respective fields were invited to share their expertise to expand the knowledge base and potential uses of CBMS.

Four topics of interest were presented and discussed:

Localizing the Millennium Development Goals by Mr. Koen Van Acoleyen

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are international commitments and global declaration. The MDGs can support the formulation of local socioeconomic plans and offer benchmarks for guiding and monitoring local developments. It is a strong monitoring tool. It is a challenge to bring it down to the national level more so to the local and provincial level, to make sure that all the national and local leaders are committed, but more so at the local and provincial levels. One important thing is to communicate the MDGs to the people everywhere. Localizing the MDGs has been one of the challenges.

Looking at the overall figure, Vietnam is doing very well in achieving the MDGs. There are, however, a lot of disparities among different provinces. Down to the community level, the disparities are even bigger. It is, therefore, relevant to look at the changes at the local level in reaching the MDGs.

Start-up

The first thing to do in localizing the MDGs is to think from the perspective of the local people. What do the MDGs mean to them? What it means to them is in terms of whether they have enough to eat every day. It means health care when they are sick. It means access to clean water. It means access to basic education. They want the government to be committed to improving the quality of life of the people.

Constraint in reaching the MDGs

Some of the challenges that Vietnam faces in achieving the MDGs at the local level are related to local capacity constraints. First is the lack of quality baseline data to track the changes of the MDGs. Many of the data are not available or are not reliable.

The second capacity-constraint is the MDG framework. All the authorities know the issues about the MDG very well. These are not new but what is new is the time-bound commitment. There is a deadline for achieving the goals. The government is responsible to achieve the MDGs on time. And this requires coordinated effort.

The third constraint is the capacity to integrate the MDGs and Vietnam Development Goals (VDGs). Because some of the targets in the MDGs in Vietnam have already been achieved such as the reduction of poverty by half, the government is more ambitious with Vietnamese development targets that go beyond the MDGs. However, there is a need to have the capacity to integrate those goals from national level to local planning process.

The next constraint is the limited capacity to calculate the cost of local budgets to reach the MDGs. Because of decentralization in Vietnam, local authorities are more involved with their budget allocations but unfortunately they do not know how to calculate the cost of achieving an MDG target so that they can budget for it.

The last constraint is the limited capacity to monitor the MDGs at the local level. The CBMS team hopes that by working with the the national level, they will be able to support the monitoring at the community level.

Challenges in reaching the MDGs

The challenges to reaching the MDGs at the local level relate to intergovernmental coordination that is needed. The first required coordination across the different ministries at the central level because in Vietnam there is a separation between the number of ministries focusing on economic issues and on social issues. It is thus a challenge to coordinate their work because social and economic issues are very much interrelated.

The next challenge is the need to coordinate between the plans at the central local level and the policies for local level needs since many of the policies are developed at the national level.

The third challenge is coordination among the various sources of government funding. There are so many programs in place with different funding mechanisms and different management and reporting requirements. Local authorities are overwhelmed by these different programs and they do not have the management capacity to do these.

Other issues

Good governance is a means to facilitate the achievement of the MDGs. Good governance and accountability by local authorities for national government is important. Transparency, accountability, overflow, and meaningful participation to local decision-making are required for this.

How do we move forward to achieve the MDGs so that every person in Vietnam is reached?

First, of course, we need national commitment that also requires local level action. Second, we have to have balance and an equitable way of reaching across all provinces and subgroups.

In conclusion, it is important that local capacities are strengthened especially on data collection and on the analysis and integration of the MDGs in local planning. Coordination among ministries and between central and local levels in promoting good governance and accountability at all levels, particularly at local levels, need to be improved.

Engendering the CBMS by Swapna Mukhopadhyay

Why is it that we are talking about engendering the CBMS? Why does gender keep on coming up in the discussions, basically on poverty issues? What is needed to engender the CBMS?

Perhaps the first thing to understand is that within the household, men and women have different roles. They are often not treated on the samel level. They are also not equally treated within the community. Women are treated differently in society and in the market. The manifestation of differences in gender can be found everywhere and is also reflected in policy which is mostly gender-unequal.

Governments have signed all kinds of documents on gender and have many different projects on gender. These, however, just scratch the surface and do not address the basic issues. The basic issues have to come from the bottom and from understanding gender differences at the bottom.

CBMS focuses on poverty analysis at the ground level. But one needs to understand that poverty at the household level is different. You need to go beyond and go inside the household to see how poverty is affecting men and women differently.

Second, it is important to understand that men and women react differently to poverty situations.

To engender the CBMS is therefore to include gender dimensions in the indicators being monitored.

Meanwhile, monitoring the status of women in the communities will be difficult through the household survey mechanism. Focus group discussions would be more appropriate to get accurate information on the conditions of women. Other indicators such as health, nutrition and indication can be derived from a household survey but other indicators such as violence, stress, and anxiety are more accurately derived from focus group discussions.

Composite Indices by Louis-Marie Asselin

Poverty is multi-dimensional and dynamic. Studies have shown that income-based indicators are insufficient to describe the true deprivation

status of households. It is thus important to analyze various dimensions of poverty by using several poverty indicators.

One key issue in analyzing the various indicators is how to combine them to come up with a single indicator that will identify who are the most deprived. One of the methods that addresses this need is the use of a composite index. Here, a set of indicators is expressed as some mathematical function to come up with a single indicator. However, it is important that indicators are analyzed simultaneously.

There are several ways to simultaneously analyze multiple indicators to derive a composite index and use it to come up with a composite indicator and poverty rates. The most popular techniques are the Principal Component Analysis (PCA), Factor Analysis (FA) and Multiple Correspondence Analysis (MCA) which is the technique used for categorical data. Since household indicators are mostly categorical, MCA is the technique often used to identify the poorest households as well as to determine poverty rates.

DAD Software by Jean-Yves Duclos

Distribution Analysis/Analyse Distributive (DAD) software is designed to facilitate the analysis and the comparisons of social welfare, inequality, poverty and equity across distributions of living standards. Its features include the estimation of a large number of indices and curves that are useful for distributive comparisons as well as the provision of asymptotic standard errors to enable statistical inference. The features also include basic descriptive statistics and provide simple non-parametric estimations of density functions and regressions.

DAD's environment is user-friendly and uses menus to select the variables and options needed for all applications. The software can load simultaneously two data bases, can carry out applications with only one data base or two, and can allow for dependence or independence of data bases and vectors of living standards in computing standard errors on differences in indices and curves.

The data bases can be built with the software or can be loaded

from a hard disk or a floppy or CD-ROM driver. The data bases can be edited, new observations can be added, and new vectors of data can be generated using arithmetical or logical operators

Concluding remarks

These four topics have shown other areas of potential application and expansion of CBMS.

In achieving the MDGs at the national level, work has to be done at the local level. But the lack of reliable data at the local level has been the constraint in monitoring the MDGs. CBMS, being local level-based, can address this gap. Currently, some of the key indicators in the MDGs are actually included in most of the CBMS indicators in the projects presented during the conference. As such, in the next few months/years, the CBMS indicators will be used to monitor the MDG accomplishments.

Meanwhile, some of the indicators being monitored by CBMS country members already included gender dimensions. But the CBMS still has the flexibility to incorporate community-specific indicators relating to gender. However, it would be difficult to incorporate everything since it will make the work too extensive that maybe the household will already refuse to respond. To include other aspects of gender, there is a need to go beyond the CBMS and develop an instrument that is designed to capture all.

On the other hand, the use of composite index to come up with an aggregate measure of poverty will be useful particularly in ranking of individuals and households while the use of DAD software allows for a more in-depth analysis of CBMS indicators.

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The Community-Based Monitoring System (CBMS) Network is part of the Poverty and Economic Policy (PEP) Research Network of the International Development Research Centre (IDRC)-Canada. It is comprised of researchers and analysts with specialization in poverty measurement, development and implementation of local monitoring systems, and policy-impact analysis from selected countries. In general, the network aims to provide a good information base for policymaking, program design and impact-monitoring through the development and institutionalization of a community based monitoring system.

CBMS attempts to build and strengthen the capacity of planners and program implementers at the national and local levels for a more improved and transparent system of resource allocation and governance. A major objective of CBMS is to aid poverty reduction, but other important associated benefits include capacity-building of local government units, increased gender equity, and early warning signs of crisis.

Since the early 1990s, IDRC-Canada has supported the design and pilot-test of community-based monitoring and local development systems in selected countries in Asia and Africa through its Micro Impacts of Macroeconomic Adjustment Policies (MIMAP) Research Program. CBMS research work has long been established in the Philippines, Nepal, Vietnam, Burkina Faso and Senegal while related initiatives have also been done in Bangladesh, India and Sri Lanka. In particular, the aforementioned CBMS work and related-initiatives were established through IDRC-supported national projects in these countries. As of date, the coordination of on-going CBMS work in these countries as well as the expansion of CBMS work in Bangladesh, and the development of CBMS in Benin, Cambodia, Lao, Ghana, and Pakistan are being implemented under a research grant from the PEP-CBMS Network.

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